THE STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS OF PARENTING STYLES, ATTACHMENT DIMENSIONS, LONELINESS AND HOPE

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AYLİN DEMİRLİ

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_____

Prof. Dr. Meliha ALTUNIŞIK

Director

I certify that this thesis satisfies all the requirements as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

_____

Prof. Dr. Ayhan DEMİR

Head of Department

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

_____

Prof. Dr. Ayhan DEMİR

Supervisor

Examining Committee Members

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Demir	(METU, EDS)	_____
Prof. Dr. Esin Tezer	(METU, EDS)	_____
Prof. Dr. Ömer Geban	(METU, EDS)	_____
Prof.Dr. Emine Gül Kapçı	(AU, ESF)	_____
Assoc. Prof. Dr. Oya Güneri	(METU, EDS)	_____

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Name, Last name: Aylin DEMİRLİ

Signature:

ABSTRACT

THE STRUCTURAL RELATIONSHIPS OF PARENTING STYLES,
ATTACHMENT DIMENSIONS, LONELINESS AND HOPE

Demirli, Aylin

Ph D., Department of Educational Sciences

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. Ayhan Demir

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The present study investigated the predictors of hope among university students via a mediational causal model, in which perceived parenting styles were proposed to interact with attachment dimensions and loneliness to predict hope. The sample consisted of 550 undergraduate students (378 females, 172 males) selected from Ankara University Faculty of Educational Science by convenient sampling. Demographics Information Form, The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory (CRSI), Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Inventory (ECR-R), University of California Los Angeles (UCLA) Loneliness Scale, Dispositional Hope Scale (DHS), and State Hope Scale (SHS) were used in data collection. Reliability and validity of the scales are also assessed. Structural equation analysis was utilized to test the causal model.

The results which are conducted by structural model analysis revealed that agentic and pathway thinking of state hope as well as agentic and pathway thinking of dispositional hope were positively

predicted by loneliness; whereas loneliness was positively predicted by both avoidance attachment and anxiety attachment dimensions. While anxiety dimension was only predicted by perceived demandingness of mother, avoidance dimension was weakly predicted by perceived responsiveness of father. Findings are discussed within the developmental model of hope.

Keywords: Hope, Loneliness, Attachment Dimensions, Perceived Parenting Styles

ÖZ

ALGILANAN ANABABA TUTUMLARI, BAĞLANMA BOYUTLARI,
YALNIZLIK VE UMUDUN YAPISAL İLİŞKİLERİ

Demirli, Aylin

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Bu araştırmada, üniversite öğrencilerinde algılanan anababa tutumlarının bağlanma boyutları ve yalnızlık düzeyi ile beraber umut düzeyinde ne ölçüde etkili olduğunu nedensel bir model kullanılarak incelenmiştir. Araştırmanın örneklemini Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi'nden tabakalı seçkisiz örnekleme yöntemi ile seçilmiş 550 (378 kız ve 172 erkek) lisans öğrencisi oluşturmuştur. Veri toplama için Demografik Bilgi Formu, Çocuk Yetiştirme Stilleri Ölçeği, Yakın İlişki Yaşantıları Envanteri, UCLA Yalnızlık Ölçeği, Genel Umut Ölçeği ve Durumluk Umut Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Tüm bu ölçme araçlarının geçerlik ve güvenirlik analizleri mevcut örneklemden elde edilen verilerle incelenmiştir. Verilerin analizinde nedensel modeli test etmek üzere yapısal eşitlik modellemesi analizi kullanılmıştır.

Sonuçlar yapısal eşitlik model analizi yöntemi ile elde edilmiş, yanızlığın, durumluk umut amaca güdülenme (*agentic thinking)* ve amaca ulaşma yolları *(pahway thinking)* boyutları ile genel umudun

amaca güdülenme (*agentic thinking)* ve amaca ulaşma yolları *(pathway thinking)* boyutlarını negatif yönde yordadığını ortaya koymuştur. Yalnızlık ise kaçınma ve kaygılı bağlanma boyutları tarafından pozitif olarak yordanmıştır. Kaygılı bağlanma, annenin çocuk yetiştirme stili sevgi boyutu tarafından yordanırken, kaçınan bağlanma sadece baba çocuk yetiştirme stili kontrol/denetim boyutu tarafından çok zayıf bir biçimde yordanmıştır. Tüm bulgular umut çerçevesinde tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Umut, Yalnızlık, Bağlanma Boyutları, Çocuk Yetiştirme Stilleri

To my dear son,

SİNAN UMUT YILDIZ

&

To my beloved better half

AHMET YILDIZ

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...ve canım oğlum... en büyük teşekkürüm sana... beni annen olarak seçtiğin için, gözlerinin pırıltısı için, candan gülüşlerin için sana çok teşekkür ederim. Seni çok seviyorum.

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INTRODUCTION

Hope is the desire to find new ways to realize what one desires and not giving up. Therefore, being hopeful is of crucial importance in coping with hardships in life, improving negative conditions and making dreams come true (Fromm, 1968). As a matter of fact, hope, which humanity has attributed positive or negative meanings at different times but never denied its value throughout history, has been one of the most important emotional and cognitive dimensions of human existence. So much so that, in ancient history, hope, which was stuck in Pandora's Box, was sometimes called a "foolish counselor" but sometimes seen as "the heart of everything good and beautiful along with love, in life" in Martin Luther Kings' words.

The existence of hope is even more important in the modern world that has been more and more complicated. The decisions to be made continuously, tests to take, a competitive environment that has increasingly been fiercer and uncertain job conditions have increased the prominence of individuals' setting true goals, maintaining the necessary motivation to reach these goals and finding new ways in the face of difficulties; in other words, hope. Lack of hope is attributed such a power that might lead individuals to suicide and societies to annihilation.

The relation of low levels of hope to many negative psychological conditions such as loneliness (Lekander, 2000), low self- confidence, depression and suicide has been revealed. However, a high level of hope might help solve problems that are the most difficult to solve. The ability to be persistent and flexible in dealing with competitiveness of such situations as increasing academic success, sports or exams, or stressful conditions such as job applications is directly related with high levels of hope. At the same time, the level of hope potentially constitutes one of the factors of psychological soundness (Kashdan, Rose, & Fincham, 2002). That's because being hopeful functions as a buffer zone in many stressful situations (Barnum, Snyder, Rapoff, Mani, & Thompson, 1998; Taylor & Armor, 1996) and it is related with many positive variables such as high self-esteem (Curry et al., 1997).

Hope, which was taken as a purely emotional dimension in the past, has been considered as a two dimensional concept with the addition of the cognitive dimension in recent years (Averill, Catlin, & Chon, 1990; Snyder, Harris, Anderson, Helleron, Irving, & Sigman et al., 1991). The emotional dimension might be defined as the feeling of desire and power to reach a goal; hence, hope is a cyclical emotion and our past experiences related to it are effective in the process of reaching our goals today and in the future. (Snyder, 1994; 1995; 2000; 2002). The second dimension is the cognitive dimension, which is defined as the ability to find ways to reach the goal (Snyder, 2002). Taken together, hope is defined as a cognitive skill that stimulates an individual to reach a goal by providing the necessary emotional motivation and by enabling him/her to find suitable goal-oriented methods (Snyder et al., 1991).

This skill is shaped by the experiences that one gains since his/her birth. If an individual has seen, depending on his past experiences, that s/he can find ways to reach goals, this provides him/her with the feeling of desire to reach an outcome in new goals s/he encounters and the feeling of confidence that s/he can find new ways (Onwuegbuzie & Daley, 1998; Snyder et al., 1996; Snyder, 2000; 2002). Snyder (2000), emphasizes that the experience of setting goals, reaching goals and getting satisfaction at the end from the very first years of one's life is an important factor in forming hope in adulthood. According to him, the child's experiences with his/her family are significant in forming hope schemes (Shorey, Snyder, Yang, & Lewin, 2003). Various other studies also point out the importance of parents' attitudes and behaviours in the development of cognitive processes in children, such as evaluation of himself/herself and setting goals (Snyder, Cheavens, & Sympson, 1997; Shorey, Snyder, Yang, & Lewin, 2003; Snyder, 1994).

Family atmospheres where boundaries are indefinite, and consistency and support mechanisms are insufficient prevent learning hopeful thinking in the process of child development (e.g. Snyder et al., 1997). Moreover, over-protective and inhibitive parent behaviours affect children's thinking styles and lead to problems such as loneliness (Jackson, 2007; Jackson, Pratt, Hunaberg, & Pancer, 2005; Türkmen & Demirli, 2011) and hopelessness (Mahoney, Pargament, Cole, Jewell, Maggar, & Tarakeshwar, 2005) as well as insecure attachment. In brief, an individual's level of hope is directly related to attachment styles, which are related to parent behaviours and loneliness. In fact, many theorists interested in attachment processes state that an individuals' attachment relations with his/her parents in early periods of his/her life are highly

effective in determining the characteristics of his/her relationships with others and expectations from his/her relationships in adulthood (Bowlby, 1958; Dominiquez & Carton, 1997; Waters, Crowell, Elliott, Corcoran, & Treboux, 2002). Bowlby (1977), also, puts forward that the attachment styles formed in early ages are transferred to later periods of life almost intact, through internal working models. Hence, the relationship of parents with their children and how they treat them is noteworthy (Snyder, Cheavens, & Sympson, 1997; Sezer, 2010).

Attachment means the establishment of a positive, strong and healthy emotional relationship between the baby and the mother, which ensures the baby to feel secure (Kesebir, Kavzoğlu, & Üstündağ, 2011). The consistency of the attachment patterns in childhood depends upon the attitudes and behaviours of the person who looks after the child. The consistency in the attitudes and behaviours of the person who looks after the child determines the consistency of the child's attachment patterns (George & Solomon, 1999; Zimmermann & Becker-Stoll, 2002).

Attachment, which starts to be formed in early periods of life and is thought to be continuous, is important in the sense that it shapes the ways one establishes relationships with others (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991). Individuals who have healthy and satisfying relationships with their parents are able to develop supportive relationships with people outside the family more easily (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1967; Sümer & Güngör, 1999; Waters, 2004). Furthermore, if an individual develops close relationship with another individual (Rieger, 1993) and if this relationship bears supportive and protective characteristics may be observed in all phases of his/her life and in his/her close relationships (Brehherton,

1992; Kesebir, Kavzoğlu, & Üstündağ, 2011; Peplau & Perlman, 1982).

Weiss (1984) defines loneliness as the experienced stress caused by the separation with the attached object, and thus, not being able to establish the desired levels of closely attached relationships with others. Like Weiss, Bowlby (1973) and Sullivan (1953), also point out that loneliness is a reaction to qualitative or quantitative deficiency in close relationships. Additionally, they stated that loneliness appears in a developmental context and is related to the fact that the social relationships in different stages of development are not able to satisfy the needs of that stage. Consequently, life experiences in the early stages of life are determinant in an individual's relationship styles and level of loneliness in the future.

In this regard, whether the attachment dimension is secure or not gains importance. Those who have secure attachment types are more harmonious with their family and friends, more self-confident, trust others more and experience fewer social problems (Kafeetsios & Nezlek, 2002; 2006; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002). On the other hand, those who have insecure attachment types are uncomfortable in being close to others, have considerable difficulty in trusting them fully, adapt to social life less, cannot quite control their emotions and are more susceptible to stress (Kesebir, Kavzoğlu, & Üstündağ, 2011; Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002).

The characteristics of individuals who have insecure attachment types may also be observed in those who experience a high level of loneliness. Individuals with a high level of loneliness have the feeling of togetherness less (Tiikkainen & Heikkinen, 2005) and feel hopeless as well as experiencing problems in relationships

and focusing on the weaknesses of themselves or others. When things go wrong, they avoid taking action, constantly worry about possible negative results and prefer to avoid the problems instead of confronting them (Girgin, 2009). Thus, loneliness carries a low level of hope, whose most important feature can be summarized as not to lose motivation to solve problems and to be able to find alternative ways.

In the light of all these points mentioned above, it can be stated that the attachment dimension that is formed from birth by interaction with parents is also transferred to adulthood and determines whether one will experience the feeling of loneliness, through the cognitive schemes it involves (Vauras & Laakkonen, 2007). As a result of not being confident in himself/herself and the outside world and not having the desired intimacy levels and sufficient relationships, the individual is incompetent in setting suitable goals and having the motivation to reach these goals. Moreover, they might experience significant difficulties in trying alternative solutions in which they can use their social relationships efficiently.

All the concepts discussed above, parent attitudes, attachment, loneliness and hope, are formed within the context of the social structure they are in. However, most of the studies available are conducted with individuals in Euro-American culture. Therefore, the question of how hope –especially as conceptualized by Snyder- develops in various social and ethnical societies still lacks an answer. Given this and the importance of parent behaviours and attitudes in children's psychosocial life in Turkey, it can be seen that the role of parent behaviours in hope and loneliness through the schemes that form attachment dimensions should be examined in

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Turkey. For this reason, the relationships between parent behaviors, attachment dimensions, loneliness and hope will be investigated in this study.

1.1. The Conceptualization of Hope

In the late-20th century, social scientists turned their attention to hope, (e.g. Melges & Bowlby, 1969; Menninger, 1959; Schachtel, 1959) which is an experience that all individuals encounter during the course of their lives, yet it is complex and difficult to define.

During the late 1950s to the 1960s, hope was examined under the guise of more formal scientific approaches. (e.g. Cantril, 1964; Farber, 1968; Frank, 1975; Frankl, 1992) Both psychiatrists and psychologists agreed on the premise that hope was based on positive expectations for goal attainment (Melges & Bowlby, 1969; Menninger, 1959; Schachtel, 1959). Although promising, their work did not capture the support of the wider scientific community to remain skeptical about hope.

From the mid-1970s onward, there was a surge of psychological research and writings related to stress, coping and illness. Researchers suggested that negative thoughts and feelings were related to poorer health and coping (e.g. Cohen, 1979; Cohen & Lazarus, 1979; Cousins, 1976) while some other researchers argued that, given the involvement of positive thoughts and emotions in poor health, positive processes such as hope would be worthy of study for possible positive squeal (e.g. Frankl, 1968; Simonton, Matthews-Simonton, & Creighton, 1978; Mason, Clark, Reeves, & Wagner, 1969).

As such, the 1970s and 1980s marked a period when many investigators, from variety of disciplines developed theories about hope (e.g. Dufault & Martocchio, 1985; Frankl, 1968; Fromm, 1968). In general, most of these theories and ideas regarding the concept of hope can be grouped into either an emotion-based or cognition-based category. However, these two perspectives are beginning to merge to some degree, imbuing hope with both affective and cognitive qualities.

Hope was described by many as a basic, fundamental, and essential part of life (Dufault & Martocchio, 1985; Fromm, 1968; Herth, 1990). Korner (1970) stated that hope is always associated with personal matters-it is related to a wish and an unmet need, it is energizing, it stimulates action, and some parts of it are conscious and some unconscious. Dufault and Martocchio (1985) also stressed the individual affective aspect of hope. They defined hope as a multidimensional dynamic life force characterized by a confident, yet uncertain expectation of achieving a good future that, to the hoping person, hope is a personal and individual thing and can endure despite the stress that one might experience.

Contrary to what one might intuitively postulate, models that operationalize the construct of hope from an affective point of reference are fewer in number than those that are more cognitive in nature. Furthermore, many of the researchers who put forth emotion-based models include some sort of cognitive component. The history of hope research based on cognitive aspect takes root in the 1960s. For example Menninger, (1959) one of the pioneers, stated that the core of hope is thinking rather than emotions. He argued the cognitions providing the underlying bases of hope. Erikson also

defines hope as "the enduring belief in the attainability of fervent wishes in spite of the dark urges and rages which mark the beginning of existence" (1964). Thus, hope is a thought or belief that allows individuals to sustain movement toward goals. Erikson places hope in a developmental context, positing that we hope from birth; moreover, he discusses the conflicts that arise internally from hope. Our "fervent wishes" may come into conflict with those of others, especially when we are infants. In Staats's view (1989), hope is seen as the interaction between wishes and expectations". This view combines tenets of Erikson's view with those of the theorists who emphasized expectancy. Staats (1989) defined hope as having an affective component as well as cognitive aspects. Cognitively, hope is seen as the communication between these expectations and the desires behind them. Again, hope is seen as a mediating force that weighs expectations of achievement and the affective intensity of the wish or desire. Averill, Catlin, and Chon (1990) also described their theory of hope as an emotion, though governed by cognitions. They stated that development and deterioration as well as hope are affected by environment. Thus, they stressed the childhood learnings in the development of hope. In contrast to the cognitive side of hope which receives more research attention Mowrer (1960) based on a stimulus-response paradigm, conceptualized of hope from the more behavioral point of view; with hope as an affective form of secondary reinforcement. In his research with animals, for example, Mowrer noticed that when working in a stimulus–response paradigm, the emotion of hope seemed to appear in these subjects when a stimulus associated with something pleasurable occurred.

The most comprehensive hope theory was built up in the mid-1980s as a new cognitive, motivational model by Snyder and his

colleagues. They conceptualized hope as a cognitive, goal-directed phenomenon (Snyder, Harris, Anderson, Helleron, Irving, & Sigman et al., 1991). In their study, hope is defined as the perceived capability to derive pathways to desired goals, and motivates one via agency thinking and to use those pathways (Snyder, 1995; 2000; 2002). As can be seen from these definitions of hope, this theory was originally built almost solely on cognitions. However, later it has evolved to include roles for emotions. According to the improved version of this theory, hope reflects individuals' perceptions regarding their capacities to clearly conceptualize goals, develop specific strategies to reach those goals and initiate and sustain the motivation to use those strategies (Snyder & Lopez, 2002). Snyder's improved model focuses not only on expectancies but also on the motivation and planning that are necessary to attain goals. Snyder (1994; 1995; 2000; 2002) defines hope as expecting the best in the future and working to achieve it. In other words, hope is a thinking way, with feelings playing an important, contributory role.

According to Snyder, as aforementioned, hope has three components; goal, pathways and agency which proposed that hope, so defined, serves to drive the emotions and well-being of people. The goal is the cognitive component of hope, which provides the targets of mental action sequences that can be visual images and/or have verbal definitions. In other words, goals are any objects, experiences, or outcomes that we imagine and desire in our minds. In the hope theory of Snyder (2002), there are two types of desired goals, which are positive or approach goal outcome and forestalling of negative outcome. A positive goal may be planned for the first time; related to maintaining an already existing goal; or may demonstrate a wish to further a positive goal wherein one has already improved. On the

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other hand, forestalling of a negative goal includes stopping something before it happens and deterrence in order to delay the undesirable.

Pathways' thinking, which is another component of hope, entails the production of possible routes to reach this goal. Goals may be "unanswered calls" unless the individual generates usable routes to reach them. Therefore, pathways thinking generate planning stages in order to meet goals in the hope theory. Pathways capabilities are based, in part, on a previous history of successfully finding one or more avenues to one's goals. Furthermore, people's sense of being able to generate ways to our goals probably is enhanced by previous successes at coming up with new routes to goals when our original passageways have been blocked. In this aspect, Snyder (2002) stated that it is cumulatively ascending base on positive psychology history.

Snyder and colleagues indicated that agency thinking, which is the third component of hope theory, is the motivational component of hope and is defined as perceived capacity to use one's pathways to reach desired goals in the hope theory. Agency thinking provides motivation and energy to begin and continue, using a pathway through all stages of the goal pursuit (Snyder, 2002; Snyder, 1995). During blockages such as stressors, agency helps people to channel the requisite motivation to the best alternate pathway (Snyder, 2002; Snyder, 1995; Snyder et al., 1991). Accordingly, it was found that high-hope people internalize motivational self-talk agency phrases such as, 'I can do this' and 'I am not going to be stopped' (cited in Snyder, 2002; p 251).

Hopeful thinking needs both pathways and agency. There is always a relationship between pathways which produces possible routes and agency thinking which provide the essential energy, however, they are distinct constructs. More specifically, if there is no strategy (pathways) to be applied to goals, goal-directed motivation (agency) will be useless (Irving et al., 1998). On the other hand, if goal-directed motivation (agency) is not enough, active routing thoughts (pathways) will not be energized for goals (Snyder, 2002).

Snyder's Hope Theory (2000; 2002; 2005) begins with the assumption that human actions are goal directed but also expressly addresses the roles of barriers, stressors, and emotions. Because it is important to emphasize that hopeful thinking necessitates both the perceived capacity to envision workable routes and goal-directed energy. When encountering barriers that impede goal pursuits, people appraise such circumstances as stressful. Most people perceive that they can produce at least one principal route to their goals, but it is also is fairly common that people will perceive themselves as being able to think of alternate routes (Snyder,1994). Agentic thinking also is important when the initial routes are blocked; it provides the necessary motivation that must be channeled to the alternate pathways (Irving, Snyder & Crowson, 1998; Snyder, 1994).

In contrast to other emotion-based hope models, hope theory gives causative eminence to thoughts. That is, emotions follow from one's causal analyses of goal pursuits. Thus, emotions are a by-product of goal-directed thought. According to the postulates of hope theory, positive emotions result from perceptions of successful goal pursuit. Conversely, negative emotions typically reflect the perceived

lack of success under unimpeded, and especially impeded, circumstances; that is goal barriers may yield negative feelings. Thus, the perceptions regarding the success of goal pursuits causally drive subsequent positive and negative emotions (see Snyder, Sympson, Ybasco, Borders, Babyak, & Higgens, 1996). Furthermore, these emotions serve as reinforcing feedback. Given their histories of successfully dealing with stressors and attaining their desired goals, high-hopers generally have positive emotions, as well as zest and confidence (Snyder, Sympson, Michael & Cheavens, 2000).

Another point emphasized in hope theory is the comparison between high hope and low hope people. Hopeful adults have distinctive profiles (Snyder, 2000). Researchers indicate that adults who have high levels of hope have experienced as many setbacks as others in their lives, but have developed beliefs that they can adapt to challenges and cope with adversity. Mainly, the reactions of high hope persons are not the same as low hope people although barriers can produce negative emotional reactions in both. The full high hope person will have iterative pathway and agentic thought that is fluid and fast throughout the goal pursuit sequence; conversely the full low hope person will have iterative pathway and slow in the goal sequence. In this regard, high hope people are more skilled at creating a detailed and well-articulated primary route and possible alternative routes to goal attainment (Snyder, 2002; Snyder, 1995, Snyder, et al., 1991). They also find self-referential thoughts leading to motivation and to devote effort to reach the goal. On the contrary, low-hope people are unlikely to produce well-articulated roads or find essentials to pursue their goals (Onwuegbuzie & Daley, 1998), perceive little control over the events in their lives, and believe that good things will not happen to them. Moreover, low-hopers have

histories of not dealing successfully with stressors, along with negative emotions and affective flatness. Depending on their trait hope levels, people bring these emotional sets to their goal-related activities.

Specifically, persons who successfully pursue goals under unimpeded or impeded circumstances thereafter experience positive emotions; conversely, persons who are blocked by impeding situations experience negative emotions. Hence, the hope model also contains both feed forward and feedback emotion laden mechanisms that contribute to the individual's success in his or her pursuits. In other words, emotions follow cognitions and then feedback is collected to inform the connectedness of his or her goal directed thinking (Snyder et al., 1996). Thus, people reporting higher hope level focus on success, which, combined with the development of alternative pathways, may enable high hope people to persevere and retain their agency when encountering obstacles.
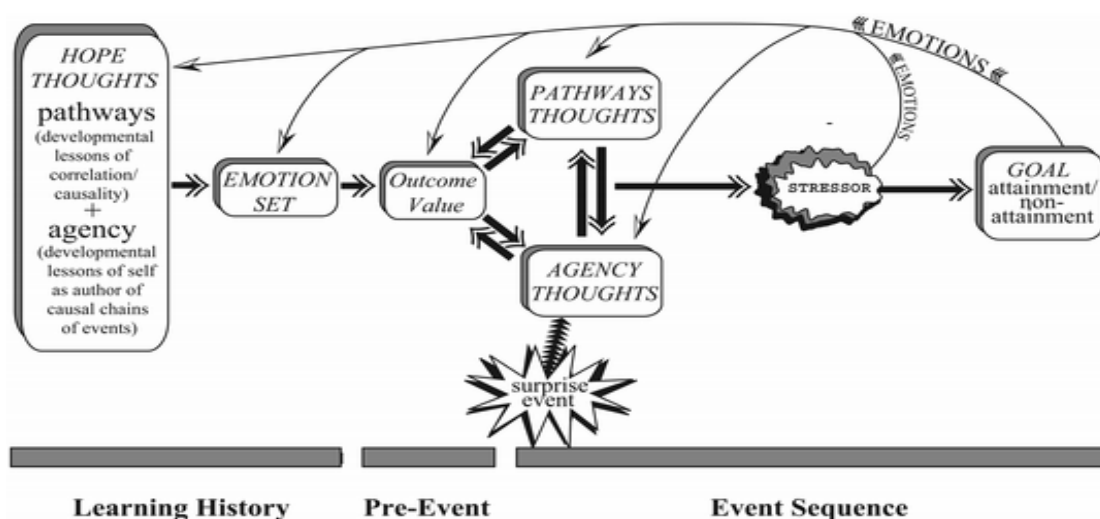
Figure 1. Schematic of Feed-Forward and Feed-Back Functions Involving Agentic and Pathways Goal-Directed Thoughts in Hope Theory (Snyder, 2000)

A flowchart showing the operation of hope theory is shown in Figure 1. Moving from left to right over time, the progression of goal-directed thinking can be seen. At the far left, there is the etiology of the pathways and agency thoughts. Together, the pathways and agency thoughts lead to the person's valuation of desired outcomes. Outcomes that warrant hope must have reasonably high importance to necessitate continued mental attention. The analysis of "outcome value" is theorized to transpire just prior to the actual event sequence. For any given goal that is of sufficient importance, the continued cognitive processing involves the thoughts of agency and pathways. Then, the pathways and agency thoughts should iterate throughout the event sequence and the combination of both types of thinking activates the person to either engage or disengage with the desired goal. After the goal engagement or disengagement phase is reached, there is a feedback process to influence the subsequent perceptions of pathways and agentic capabilities in general, as well as outcome value and situation specific pathways and agentic capabilities.

As hope is an emotion laden mechanism, there is a relatively strong negative relationship with hope and loneliness. Previous research has demonstrated that hope level decreases if the person feels lonely (Lekander, 2000; Petiet, 1983). Snyder indicated that, loneliness and frustration are signs of low-hope person (Snyder, 1999). Lonely people are found to perceive themselves in a negative and self-depreciating manner, believing that they are inferior, worthless, unattractive, unlovable, and socially incompetent individuals (Horowitz, French, & Anderson, 1982; Jones, Freemon, & Goswick, 1981; Jones & Moore, 1987; Jones, Sansone, & Helm, 1983). Similarly, low hope people are not confident and are self-

depreciating compared to high hope people, who are confident, energized and have elevated feelings of self-worth and life-satisfaction and low levels of depression. Thus, unlike high-hope people, low-hopers are extremely busy with how they can protect themselves psychologically. They manifest lack of confidence about themselves and compound matters, and spend much of their time ruminating and worrying about being stuck (Snyder, 1999). Their anxieties even further exacerbate their critical and extremely negative self-talk (Snyder, LaPointe, Crowson, & Early, 1998). In the midst of a problem, instead of thinking about how to find a pathway around an impediment, the low-hope person fantasizes about escaping rather than analyzing possibilities. Thus, persons with loneliness are unable to distance themselves from negative events or ask for assistance (Snyder et al., 1997).

On the other hand, high-hope individuals have an enhanced ability to take the perspectives of others. They appear to truly enjoy their interactions with others (Snyder, Hoza, et al., 1997), and they are interested in their goals and the goals of others around them. Not surprisingly, higher levels of hope are related to less loneliness (Sympson, 1999), and more perceived social support (Barnum Snyder, Rapoff, & Thompson, 1998).

People with lower hope level are reported to be very lonely and lacking friends with whom they can talk. Indeed, they have a fear of interpersonal closeness (Snyder, 1999). Loneliness is associated with a perceived lack of interpersonal intimacy and negatively related to willingness to self- disclosure (Chelune, Sultan, & Williams, 1980). There is widespread consensus that significant relationships with others serve to increase and maintain an individual's hope (e.g.,

Babits, 2001; Yeasting, & Jung, 2010; Miller, 1991). Hope grows when individuals are able to participate in meaningful interpersonal activities with significant others (Dufault & Martocchio, 1985), who typically are family, friends, and even coworkers. These significant relationships allow individuals to realize that they are loved, cared about, and important to others, regardless of their current situation (Demir & Ozdemir, 2010). In addition to establishing new relationships and improving existing relationships, mending or strengthening of a relationship that once was close is another creative way to fulfill interpersonal needs (Callan, 1989).

1.1.1. The Development of Hope

Snyder and colleagues did not conceptualized hope only as a cognitive, goal-directed phenomenon, which contains both feed forward and feedback emotion laden mechanisms, but also as a learned thinking pattern (Snyder et al., 1991). Snyder (2000) suggests that hope develops in a clearly defined way over the course of infancy, childhood and adolescence.

Hope is established in the infant to toddler stage. Both the development of pathways thinking and agentic thinking have three processes. Pathways thoughts are related to the sensing and perceiving of external stimuli, the learning of temporal linkages between events; and the forming of goals. Agentic thinking is made up of the perception of oneself as originating actions; self-recognition; and the forming of goals. It should also be noted that the formation of goals is common to both pathways and agentic thinking; also that pathways and agentic thinking, taken together, form the basis of overall hope.

For the newborn, senses must participate in some serious encoding of incoming information to enable the newborn to survive. In other words, each raw sensation must be encoded so as to have a particular meaning as exemplified by, a newborn coming to recognize the face of its mother among all those other faces peering at it (Barrera & Maurer, 1981). This exquisitely complicated sensation is supplanted by perception, which is an inherently cognitive event as the infant recognizes and organizes the input (Mussen, Conger, Kagan & Huston, 1990).

After that, infant immediately becomes enthralled by linkage lessons about a multitude of "this follows that" sequences (i.e., events that seem to be correlated in time with each other) (Ainsworth, 1989; Bowlby, 1969). In this process, young minds very quickly understand the chronology to the important proximal events in their lives. Such linkages pertain to the newborn's very survival because crucial positive and negative consequences are to be discerned.

Over the course of childhood, these lessons eventually become refined so that the child understands the process of causation (i.e., events are not just related in time, but one event elicits another event). Additionally, at approximately 1 year of age, the baby realizes that he or she is separate from other entities (including the caregiver). This process, called psychological birth, portends another important insight for the very young child- that he or she can cause such chains of events to happen. That is to say, the self is perceived as a causal instigator and these "lessons" contribute to a sense of personal agency.

This is similar to Bowlby's description of attachment behavior, which is characterized as instinctive, even though at the same time

described as "purposive" or "goal-directed". The child's attachment behavior has the "predictable outcome" of bringing him/her and his/her mother into closer proximity, whether through signals which attract his mother to him/her or through his/her own activity. The infant, throughout much of the first year of his/her life, does not develop the cognitive structures necessary for a plan; the infants' behavior is organized along the simpler lines of fixed-action systems and chains thereof. However, toward the end of the first year, his behavior becomes increasingly "goal-directed" and the infant can formulate simple plans. They may remain as integral components of the adult system, perhaps to come out only under special circumstances (Ainsworth & Bowlby, 1991).

Moreover, the acquisition of goal-directed hopeful thought is absolutely crucial for the child's survival and thriving. Attachment to the caregiver is crucial for learning goal-directed thought; moreover, goal-directed hopeful actions usually transpire in the context of other people. Goal-directed thinking almost inevitably arises in the context of other people who teach hope. As such, parents, caregivers, teachers and members in society in general are interested in teaching this hopeful thinking. Thus, a person's pathways and agency thinking are learned through interactions with their caretakers, peers and teachers over the course of childhood and later (Snyder, Cheavens, & Sympson, 1997).

Most people who lack hope were not taught to think in hopeful manner since hope develops in the context of a secure and supportive caregiver relationship in which children are taught to think hopefully (Shorey, Snyder, Yang, & Lewin, 2003; Snyder, 1994).Thus, there might be some newborns who do not receive the

necessary care and attention to learn hopeful thinking. On the other hand, there might be those children who do learn hopeful thought, only to have childhood events dampen those hopes. Some, children who are neglected, abused or who are exposed to ongoing interparental conflict associated with separation or divorce may fail to develop a hopeful disposition. Children who grow up in a particularly stressful home environment are more likely to become resilient and hopeful under certain circumstances (Mahoney, Pargament, Cole, Jewell, Maggar, & Tarakeshwar, 2005).

Snyder uses the term "coaching" to define the teaching and modeling role of parents to generate hopeful manner (Snyder et al., 1991). In Snyder's hope theory, coach typically helps in the formation of goals taught and in the causal thinking, which is essential to achieve those goals and is a source of inspiration and motivation (Snyder, 2002; Snyder, 1995; Snyder, et al., 1991). Growing children thus come to view themselves capable of attaining the desired goals. Even as an adult, individuals who report higher hope level continue to reflect their coach's hopeful thinking way (Snyder et al., 1997). Thus, the dynamics of hope and hopelessness within intimate relationships are complex and individual and family experiences of hope and hopelessness are embedded within historical contexts and wider social processes (Flaskas, 2007).

In this regard, Baumrind's (1991) research is relevant because it links family interactions to cognitive competence and agentic thinking through analyses of prototypic parenting styles. Baumrind and several other researchers also identified adaptive and maladaptive patterns of parental behavior that were proposed to result from parents' levels of demandingness and responsiveness

(Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1967; Sümer & Güngör, 1999). For example, children who are physically neglected never have any one who teaches them to think hopefully. Whereas neglect is a passive killer of hopeful thought, physical abuse is a more active force in decreasing hope. Since the caregiver who must be the source of nutrition and security becomes the source of fear for the child. Thus, the abused child, as attachment theory suggest, learns that interpersonal bonds cannot be trusted. Therefore, the abused child has lost a key aspect of hopeful thought, and she or he manifests deficits and delays in learning (Hoffman-Plotkin, & Twentyman, 1984; Wyatt & Powell, 1988).

In summary, young adults are concerned with developmental tasks of their age such as planning for their future educations, occupations, and families. There are, however, individual differences in hope, i.e. some people have low, whereas other people have high hope. Furthermore, people learn hopeful goal-directed thinking in the context of other people. Hence, many studies show that children who are raised in an environment that lacks boundaries, consistency and support are at risk for not learning hopeful thinking (e.g. Snyder et al., 1997). The boundaries and consistency represent a rule structure to determine when it is or is not appropriate to engage in goal-directed behaviors. The support reflects the love and respect that provide the necessary attachment whereby the child tries his or her goal-directed thinking and actions (Rieger, 1993). Generally, the proliferation of hope is blossoming from infant, transferring through childhood and adolescence to the adulthood. In the process of enjoying interactions with significant others, attachment patterns take shape and lead to learning goal-directed thought. These secure and loving interaction and attachment processes not only lead to

learning of hopeful or hopeless thinking but also the level of loneliness. The interaction with care givers, separation and attachment processes are important in the development of loneliness, which is a related concept of not only hope but also hopelessness, emptiness, worthlessness, failure and confrontation to loneliness. Even though loneliness causes such unpleasant experiences; it surrounds human experiences in a way that it is undesirable to disregard it (Perlman & Peplau, 1984).

1.2. The Conceptualization of Loneliness

Loneliness is a very subjective concept; "*a terrorizing pain, an agonizing and frightening experience that leaves a person vulnerable, shaken and often wounded*" (Rokach, 1990, p41). That is, it is a pervasive, depressing and debilitating condition that can affect one's whole life. It can make one feel as if s/he was the only person in the world; and s/he did not want to live any more. It can make people feel totally isolated and useless; that their life is without purpose. It can make people look for other things to fill the painful abyss in their life (Cacippo, Christakis, & Fowler, 2009).

Moreover, it is still a taboo, and it is almost an embarrassment to admit that you are or ever have been lonely. As well as being embarrassed by such a negative feeling, people are also scared by it because of how terrible it can make them feel. Most people will never admit being lonely for it they have survived such an ordeal. Therefore, it is an experience that they would rather not talk about (Rokach, 1990).

Loneliness exists within every age group; however, adolescents and young adults appear to be particularly vulnerable (Brennan

1982; Rubenstein & Shaver, 1982). A curve depicting the ratio of different age groups reporting loneliness displays a shallow `u' shape. And adolescents and young adults report loneliness to a somewhat higher extent than adults and young-old retirees (Andersson, 1982; Peplau, Bikson, Rook, loneliness were widespread and especially intense during adolescence. Davis (1990) and Euphemia (1988) suggested that loneliness was especially a painful experience during adulthood years.

Loneliness is far more prevalent in today's materialistic-competitive and individualistic society than it has been in previous generations (Killeen, 1999). Its relation with individualism and society is shown more definitively in an interesting study by Cacioppo, Christakis and Fowler (2009). Results indicated that loneliness occurs in clusters, extends up to 3 degrees of separation, is disproportionately represented at the periphery of social networks, and spreads through a contagious process. The spread of loneliness was found to be stronger than the spread of perceived social connections, stronger for friends than family members, and stronger for women than for men. The results advance understanding of the broad social forces that drive loneliness and suggest that efforts to reduce loneliness in society may benefit by aggressively targeting the people in the periphery to help repair their social networks and to create a protective barrier against loneliness that can keep the whole network from unraveling. They claim that what might appear to be an individualistic experience but is not only a function of the individual but is also a property of groups of people. People who are lonely tend to be linked to others who are lonely, an effect that is stronger for geographically proximal than distant friends, yet extends up to three degrees of separation within the social network

Although these various descriptions are presented, loneliness is a difficult concept to define that can easily be confused with other concepts commonly seen in our society. Aloneness is one such closely related concept with loneliness (de Jung Gierveld, Van Tilburg, & Dykstra, 2006; Weiss, 1984). Someone alone is obviously by himself/herself, and therefore s/he might or might not be lonely. Another confusing relationship is between loneliness and social isolation (; de Jung Gierveld, Van Tilburg, & Dykstra, 2006; Weiss, 1978). Social isolation is almost a compromiser concept between loneliness and aloneness, dependent on whether choice is involved. Loneliness indicates no choice, and aloneness indicates that there is an element of choice. Social isolation with choice is aloneness, while social isolation without choice is loneliness. Solitude is one another concept in the literature closely related to loneliness. Solitude has a more optimistic sense. It can be perceived as refreshing and calming, and can be regarded as respite. Rokach even states that it can be very useful in coping with loneliness. Solitude seems to indicate a total freedom of choice. Other related concepts with loneliness are estrangement and alienation. Estrangement gives the impression of being more severe and wretched than loneliness and that a person who is estranged is even further cut off from society. Alienation is also an experience of disconnectedness with oneself and with others. Rokach (2001) states that self-alienation is a feeling of inner void, a detachment from oneself, and an alienation from one's core and identity.

In summary, loneliness is forceful and agonizing parts of daily life even if it is not experienced equally by everyone. As stated above, there are certain words that people are replaced with loneliness, but they might actually have a different meaning. On the

other hand, loneliness separated with other concepts such as social isolation and aloneness and identified in a long process. Before the historical origin of loneliness, the two fundamental theories must be examined as the history of loneliness will be analyzed tied to these two theories.

Subheading theories of loneliness as stated by Perlman & Peplau (1984) and Terrell-Deutsch (1999). The first one is the Social Needs Theory. This theory claims that if an individual's interpersonal relationships do not satisfy the basic set of social needs, loneliness is experienced. The Social Needs Approach, thus, emphasizes the affective or feeling aspects of loneliness. It also proposes that sometimes people may experience loneliness without recognizing the true nature of their distress. That is, loneliness is a response to deficiency in relationships and results in yearning for sufficient relationship (Bowlby, 1973; Sullivan, 1953; Weiss, 1984).

The other one, Cognitive Processes Approach, in contrast to the Social Needs Theory, suggests that loneliness is a result of perceived relationships. In other words, loneliness is an unpleasant experience in which an individual perceives his or her own social network as insufficient; that is, there is a perceived discrepancy between the actual and ideal social network (Peplau & Perlman, 1984). Different from the Social Needs Theory, it emphasizes the cognitive and intellectual aspects of the experience of loneliness. People, thus, judge themselves against a variety of standards and when they observe a discrepancy between this standard and what they experience, loneliness will follow (Terrell-Deutsch, 1999)

One of the first followers of social needs perspective, Sullivan, (1953) described loneliness as the powerful response experienced

when the basic human need for interpersonal intimacy is not fulfilled. Sullivan's definition have not contain stress factor of loneliness experience. This is added by other researchers who indicate the importance of the presence of sufficient network. Young (1982) states that loneliness reflects an interpersonal deficit that exists as a result of fewer or less satisfying personal relationships than a person desires. It increases as the discrepancy between what individuals expect and what they actually experience in their relationship increases. He also adds that this personal expectation for intimacy and companionship are influenced by many factors such as past experiences, personal needs, and normative cultural prescriptions.

Williams (1983) combined the two aforementioned theories in his definition since he emphasized loneliness both as a phenomenon which involves the human need for intimacy in interpersonal relationships and also as resulting from the painful awareness of feeling apart from desired or wanted close relationships with others. Rook (1984) expanded the definition of loneliness more. He added emotional stress and feelings which loneliness contains to the definition of loneliness and defined loneliness as an enduring condition of emotional distress that arises when a person feels estranged from, misunderstood, or rejected by others and lacks appropriate social partners for desired activities that provide a sense of social integration and opportunities for emotional intimacy. Rook also observed that loneliness results from the interaction of personal factors and situational constraints.

The other approach, Cognitive Processes approach, is the discrepancy view of loneliness, which examines loneliness from the

"insider's perspective, focusing on how the lonely person perceives and evaluates her or his social life, not on how outside observers might assess it" (Peplau et al, 1982, p.137). The well-known theorists of Cognitive Processes Approach, Perlman and Peplau (1984) made an objective and clinical definition of loneliness. They suggest that loneliness is a result of two contributors: predisposing factors, making person vulnerable to loneliness and, precipitating events triggering loneliness. Predisposing factors are formed by personal characteristics, situations and cultural values such as individualism. Precipitating events, such as the break-up of love or moving to another city, change the person's social life significantly. According to Peplau and Perlman (1984), loneliness is not a chosen state; it is the state of unnoticed inability to do anything. Lonely person is not able to distinguish the reasons of what he does (Peplau & Perlman, 1984). Feelings such as anxiety, anger, boredom, sadness, and marginality are stated as parts of the network of loneliness, which make it an unsympathetic experience (Jones, Freemon, & Goswick, 1981).

Lastly, in line with Peplau and Perlman (1982), Larose, Guay and Boivin (2002) define loneliness as a subjective, distressing and unpleasant state, in which individuals perceive deficiencies in their social world. According to them loneliness refers to a negative psychological experience that has always been conceptually related to interpersonal experiences and interpersonal trust.

Weiss (1984) defines loneliness, similar not only with Sullivan in Social Needs Perspective Theory but also with Perlman and Peplau (1984) in a way combining the elements from the two theories. He stressed that loneliness is characterized by experiences of isolation and feelings of deprivation in relation to others, which coincide with

either qualitative or quantitative deficiencies in one's interpersonal network.

It is also argued that poor social skills predispose individuals to depression because ineffective social interactions do not generate positive reinforcement from the environment (Gerson & Perlman, 1979). As a result, lonely people will not value themselves and will act to avoid anticipated rejection (Jones, 1982). Conversely, it is possible that with a more self-focused interaction pattern, these individuals may not perceive or appreciate acts of genuine social acceptance and social reinforcement (Jones, 1982). In either case, attempts at interaction tend to decrease and become less effective (Jones, 1982), and a cycle of increased social isolation, loss of self-esteem and increased pessimism about social relations is sustained (Perlman & Peplau, 1984).

In conclusion, three important aspects are important in the definition of loneliness, no matter which of the two models- Social Needs Perspective or Cognitive Discrepancy Model- it is analyzed with. First, loneliness is a result of deficiency in a person's relationships. It is experienced when there is a mismatch between one's present social relationships and his/her needs and desires for social contact. Second, loneliness is a unique experience of the individual. People can be lonely within many other people or alone without being lonely. Third, loneliness has an encouraging power for the development of the individual although it is deterrent, unpleasant, and distressing (Peplau & Perlman, 1984, p. 15).

1.2.1. The Development of Loneliness

Not only the definitions but the causes of loneliness are also various. Many researchers emphasized many different causes of loneliness but most of the research studies indicate two groups of causes: situational or characterological.

Firstly, the situational causes of loneliness most frequently referred to are those that involve disruption in relationships and friendships with other people. The first scientific treatments of loneliness which accepted loneliness situational depicted loneliness as "chronic distress" without redeeming features (Weiss, 1984), perhaps resulting from poor social skills (Marangoni & Ickes, 1989) or a discrepancy between actual and desired social relationships (e g., Peplau & Perlman, 1982). The most extreme form of situational cause is loss and it is bereavement and it can lead to profound loneliness.

Situational causes of loneliness vary greatly in the literature. Some authors also refer to importance of marital status in relation to loneliness (Weiss, 1984, Carr & Schellenbach, 1993). Another personal situation that can initiate or result from loneliness is one's social environment. Other situational causes can be poverty and low income (Creecy et al., 1985, Sears et al., 1991), relocation (Killeen, 2002) and hospitalization (Acorn, 1995). As for demographic characteristics, having offspring, more years of education, and a higher number of siblings are also associated with lower levels of loneliness. Interestingly, these effects tend to be stronger for men than women (Distel, Mesa, Abdeeaoui, Derom, Willemsen, Cacioppo, Boomsma, 2010).

On the other hand, most of the literature looking at the charecterological causes of loneliness, is interested in structured and rooted personal characteristics of the lonely person, suggesting that s/he is self-possessed and self-centered, and does not often think about other people, but more about himself/herself. Researchers looking at the charecterological causes of loneliness concentrate on relating loneliness to other rather negative concepts such as lower self-esteem, shyness, anxiety, self-blame and self-devaluation. Similarly, it has been suggested that loneliness is associated with a perceived lack of interpersonal intimacy and inversely related to willingness to self-disclose (Chelune et al., 1980). In other words, lonely individuals have difficulty in appropriately revealing personal information in new relationships and nonstructured social situations. Also, it is suggested that a lonely individual's outlook veers towards negatively rather than looking at positive aspects of their lives (Chelune et al., 1980).

Various authors (e.g., Cassidy & Berlin, 1999; Hojat, 1982; Rokach, 2001) suggested that adolescent and adult loneliness may have some of its origins in the historical attachment relationship between the lonely person and his/her caregivers. Solomon (2000) suggested that, if a child is raised in a socially isolated family, the child's risk of becoming chronically lonely may significantly increase. That's because a socially detached family will not actively enhance the child's social growth by promoting and guiding acceptable behaviors or by modeling patterns of social interaction.

Other than parents' own characteristics, their parenting style is also important in the future loneliness of an individual. Parents teach their children how to think as well how to relate with other

people and their environment (Dominiquez & Carton, 1997). Snyder explains this with the term "coaching". He states that by coping with difficult challenges in a positive way and by persevering in the face of difficulties, parents coach their children by modeling hopeful behavior to them (Snyder, 2002).What is also important here is how they coach. For example, Jackson (2007) has found a strong relation between loneliness and parental care. Jackson and friends also indicated that individuals who have perceived their parents authoritative are rated as having lower loneliness (Jackson, Pratt, Hunaberg, & Pancer, 2005). Since authoritative parents demand high levels of performance in a loving atmosphere, they become affective reinforcing agents. Additionally, Snyder stated that adults who recalled their parents as autonomous are found as hopeful individuals (Shorey et al., 2002; Snyder, Feldman, Taylor, & Schroeder, 2000).

Self-efficacy of parents also found place in the literature of loneliness. Junttila, and Vauras (2009) found a relationship between the loneliness of parents and their children that was mediated by parents' self-efficacy in parenting and by the child's social competence. However, in that study, the parents' loneliness was treated as a combination of both parents' loneliness, so gender differences were not considered in both the parents and the children.

Besides how parents perceive themselves, how children perceive their parents might also be an important factor in adult loneliness. In a study by Hojat, (1996), the association between reported perception of maternal availability in childhood and a set of psychosocial measures in adulthood as well as loneliness was examined. Three groups based on the participants' retrospective

report of maternal availability before their fifth birthday (mothers mostly available, partly available and mostly unavailable) indicated that those with mostly unavailable mothers scored significantly higher on the intensity and chronicity of loneliness scale, reported more depression, scored lower on self-esteem, perceived themselves as less healthy, evaluated the same stressful events more negatively, and perceived both of their parents more negatively than those with most available mothers.

Moreover, a clear link between attachment and loneliness could be suggested. Weiss (1984) described loneliness as separation and distress without an object, and thus as a true lack at the level of close attachment relations with significant others. Bowlby also proposed that loneliness is a "proximity-promoting mechanism" (Peplau & Perlman, 1982, p5) with evolutionary origin and survival value for the human species. From this perspective, loneliness may be experienced as a drive, like hunger or thirst, which motivates individuals to actions which will satisfy a basic need for human contact. Weiss elaborates on this position in a description of the six essential provisions which are filled by our "inherent need for intimacy" (Peplau & Perlman, 1982, p3) and stated that an "attachment interaction" is one in which a person is threatened or distressed and seeks comfort and support from the other (Weiss, 1998). In this context he also differentiated between emotional and social loneliness. Weiss stated (1984) emotional isolation is the absence of a loved one whereas social isolation is the absence of a place in an accepting community or the lack of a recognized social role.

Weiss (1984) advanced the idea that relationships tend to be specialized, in that; one particular provision will be emphasized in a relationship. However, an excess in one provision cannot compensate for weaknesses in other areas (Cutrona, 1982). As a result, when relationships do not satisfy all of these provisions, the discomfort of loneliness will develop (Peplau & Perlman, 1982). This sensation is a motivational force which induces the individual to establish social connections, and can be reduced by the development of relationships which satisfy the unfulfilled social provisions (Weiss, 1984).

Weiss' definition creates a link between loneliness and attachment theory since attachment theory suggests that people with negative schemata towards themselves or negative schemata towards the world is lonelier than people who have positive schemas. Namely, it is argued that securely attached individuals tend to be less lonely because securely attached people reported more self-and-other disclosure, felt happier and felt that others were more responsive and understood them better, and reported more positive feelings and less neutral feelings in others. Compared to secures, anxious/preoccupied participants were more anxious and felt more rejected. Clearly, increased anxiety and feelings of rejection are consistent with the negative view of self that anxious/preoccupied people are presumed to have. Compared to secures, anxious/preoccupied participants also disclosed less and less is disclosed to them (Kafeetsios & Nezlek, 2002; 2006).

Not only children but also adolescents and young adults tend to value their parent's advice more than that of peers and to be more likely to share values with their parents than with peers. One study revealed that college students felt as close to their parents as fourth-

graders did (Hunter & Youniss, 1982). Another study revealed that adolescents are more likely to protest separation from their parents than from peers and more likely to use their parents as a secure base than to use their peers (Hazan & Dimond, 2000). Thus, within the attachment perspective, it is proposed that attachment to parents are not replaced sequentially by attachments to peers but, rather, relationships with parents and peers develop as different parts of behavioral systems from early infancy (Cassidy & Berlin, 1999).

Thus, adolescents' and adults' experiences of loneliness might be closely related to their patterns of attachment. A study investigating the relationship between subjective experience of loneliness and patterns of attachment in young adults' defined loneliness as the subjective feeling of intimate emotional attachment and the discrepancy between needing to belong and not belonging (Peplau & Perlman, 1982; Weiss, 1987). Another study suggests that attachment anxiety contributes to loneliness through low social self-efficacy, whereas attachment avoidance contributes to loneliness through comfort with disclosure. Securely attached freshmen experience a higher level of social competence and lower levels of distress during this transition period (Wei, Vogel, Ku, & Zakalik, 2005). Avoidant men and anxious/preoccupied women report more negative expectations about themselves and relationships (Carnelley, Pietromanco & Jaffe, 2005). Another study of Pietromanco and Carnelley (2005) found that dismissive-avoidants compared to fearful-avoidants had less satisfying interactions and felt their interaction partners had less positive emotions.

About adolescents' and adults' experiences of loneliness and their patterns of attachment, more cognitively focused research has

found that securely attached people have more clearly structured positive expectations about interactional scenarios and have easier access to positive expectations of relational interactions than avoidant people (Baldwin, Fehr, Keedian, Seidel, & Thompson, 1993). Similarly, another research study by Simpson, Roles and Nelligan (1992) stated that in an anxiety-provoking experimental setting, avoidant females were less likely than secure or ambivalent females to seek emotional support from their partner. Moreover, in this study it was found that avoidant subjects did not communicate their anxiety or seek support. As a consequence, they evoked less supportive behavior from their partners, which could then be interpreted as confirming expectations of nonsupport (Simpson, Rholes, & Nelligan, 1992), which is likely to result in loneliness. These results revealed that, attachment could be defined as the univariate difference of scores on a subject's history, which is closely related to the idea that individuals whose needs for support and closeness had been met would be less affected by loneliness as adults and more able to enjoy solitude.

Moreover, actual physical time spent alone was not related to subjective loneliness or attachment. This is to say, the emotional experience of being alone is not affected by the behavior. In a similar way, the actual number of separations is not related to subjective loneliness, either. Surprisingly, separation threat appears to influence a person's feelings of loneliness as much as the quality of attachment (Hecht & Baum, 1984).

Lastly, the distinction between overcoming loneliness and remaining chronically lonely may be partly explained by a person's expectations about or attributions to their situation and themselves.

One study which focuses on this issue demonstrates that many lonely individuals possess a pessimistic attributional style, which is commonly found among depressed individuals (Anderson, Horowitz, & French, 1983). Lonely subjects are more likely to "ascribe failure to characterological defects in themselves" (Anderson, Horowitz, & French, 1983, 127) and tend to "make more internal and stable attributions for failure and more external and unstable attributions for success" (Anderson, Horowitz, & French, 1983, 128). The significance of this finding is that attributional style is associated with expectancies, performance and motivation at a task (Anderson, Horowitz, & French, 1983). Based on this, being more inclined to adopt a pessimistic attributional style, lonely people can be adversely affected in their high performance during social situations or they may decide that their situation is irreversible and be less inclined to establish affiliations with others.

1.3. The Conceptualization of Attachment

During the last three decades, attachment theory has been one of the most influential theories of social-emotional development in modern psychology stimulating a great amount of research in the fields of developmental, clinical and social psychology. Its contribution rests in the fact that it has provided a broad and deep understanding of personality processes and human development and interactions in childhood and adulthood. Also, it has been shown that attachment behavior is a major component of the human behavioral equipment throughout life and that early experience plays a determinative role in the emergence and organization of secure-base behavior. In general, attachment theory provides insight into

observed behaviors, caregiving systems and the role of caregiving in an evolutionary context (Fertuck, 2001).

The origins of the attachment theory lie in the work of Bowlby, a psychoanalyst in the tradition of object relations theory, who not only opposed the view of interpersonal ties as secondary acquisitions which have developed on the basis of gratification of primary drives, but also urged an updating of psychoanalytic instinct theory to a view congruent with present-day biology (Ainsworth, 1969; Bowlby, 1969, 1977). Bowlby conceived the attachment system as an evolutionary mechanism developed for the survival of the species by helping offspring maintain in close proximity to a caregiver. The basic thesis is that an infant's attachment to his mother originates in a number of species-characteristic behavior systems, relatively independent of each other at first, which emerge at different times, become organized toward the mother as the chief object, and serve to bind child to mother and mother to child. Originally, he described five such behavioral systems contributing to attachment: sucking, clinging, following, crying, and smiling. In the course of development, these systems become integrated and focused on the mother and thus form the basis of what he termed "attachment behavior". The child's attachment behavior has the "predictable outcome" of bringing him/her and his/her mother into closer proximity, whether through signals which attract his mother to him/her or through his/her own activity (Ainsworth, 1969; Bowlby, 1969; 1977).

Bowlby characterizes attachment behavior as instinctive, even though at the same time "purposive" or "goal-directed". "The control system model" of Bowlby provides a basis for considering much complex, goal directed behavior. To be sure, the infant, throughout

much of the first year of life, does not develop the cognitive structures necessary for a plan and its behavior is organized along the simpler lines of fixed-action systems and chains thereof. However, toward the end of the first year, his behavior becomes increasingly "goal-directed" and the infant can formulate simple plans, as similar in development of hope. Elaborating on this view, Pribram states that, in ontogenetic development, the earlier and simpler systems are not lost although they are overridden by new patterns to make up the organization of mature adult behavior. They may remain as integral components of the adult system, perhaps to come out only under special circumstances, such as, in a situation of conflict (as cited in Ainsworth, 1969).

Bowlby and Ainsworth took a systemic look and they saw that infants were not helpless and dependent; on the contrary, they were active and competent explorers who used their mothers as a secure base to feel confident on which they explore all around their environment and try out all their new skills (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, Wall, & 1978; Waters, 2004). Strange Situation Test of Ainsworth (1969) proved a valuable tool for assessing infant attachment. Observations of this test which are consistent with Hazan and Diamond (2000) demonstrated that attachments have four defining features that are evident in the behaviors directed toward an attachment figure: seeking and maintaining physical proximity (proximity maintenance), seeking comfort or aid when needed (safe haven), experiencing distress on expected prolonged separations (separation distress), and relying on the attachment figure as a base of security from which to engage in exploratory and nonattachment activities (secure base). These features show that the infant is fully active in its attachment behavior. Furthermore, they

find that confidence comes from experience between caregiver next time (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, Wall, & 1978; Waters, 2004).

The child's model of the attachment relationship is viewed as organized around the history of the caregiver's responses to the infant's actions. If caregiver is giving a secure base and support, infant use the opportunity to examine relations. The caregiver is argued to serve as a physical and emotional safe haven, where the infant can turn to for support and comfort in times of distress; and a secure base from which the infant can explore and learn about the world and develop his/her own personality. Isabella, Belsky and von Eye (1989) found strong evidence for the importance of caregivers' contingent responding. What matters most in the long term is not only how, but also under what circumstances a caregiver responds. Most mothers interact frequently and positively with their infants, but what seems to determine infants' internal working models is whether and how the caregiver responds to distress. These internal working models or mental representations, incorporate both the cognitive and affective elements of early caregiving experiences, and are thought to guide behaviors and expectations within other social relationships (Rosenblum, Dayton, & Muzik, 2009). As aforementioned, this goal-directed and purposive system drives the infant to proximity seeking to the attachment figure, in other words, to perform attachment behavior (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970).

The attachment behavioral system is said to be activated when a physical, physiological, or psychological threat is perceived. Attachment behavioral system elicits separation protest in the infant when the attachment figure is not within comfortable reach. Therefore, the attachment system and the exploration system work

oppositely. When there is a perceived threat in the environment, the attachment system is activated and the infant stops exploratory behavior and seeks proximity. Once the attachment figure gives support and comfort to the infant, the attachment system seizes to be active, and the exploratory system becomes active. Hence the infant securely and freely explores the environment and engages in physical and cognitive activity (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970).

It was also observed that some infants were better at this kind of relationship with environment. They seemed more confident in the mother's availability and thus more confident to explore away and surer that mother will always be there for them if needed. Bowlby and Ainsworth called these infants *securely* attached. Others who lacked this confidence were called *insecurely* attached (Ainsworth & Bell, 1970; Waters, 2004). Thus, the obvious next step was finding the reason why some babies lack confidence in mother's availability and responsiveness. Ainsworth and Bell set forth the concept of maternal sensitivity to infant signals which are the infants' primary attachment strategy and he emphasized that cooperating with ongoing behavior; accessibility and acceptance are important aspects of infant care that significantly influence the development of infant-mother attachment patterns (1970). That is to say, mothers of securely attached infants were observed to be emotionally available in times of need and responsive to their children's primary attachment strategy, namely proximity seeking behavior; whereas mothers of avoidant infants tended to be emotionally rigid, as well as angry at and rejecting their infants' proximity seeking efforts. Hence, avoidant infants deactivate their attachment system in response to the unavailability of their attachment figures. On the other hand,

anxious infants tend to hyperactivate the attachment system to gain a more reliable supportive reaction from their inconsistent caregivers.

Thus, internalized development of the relationship between the caregiver and the child and bases of the attachment styles are represented by the "internal working models", which are conceptualized as a psychological imprint of a child's proximity seeking behavior and a stable template for later interpersonal expectations and behaviors. Bowlby (1977) distinguished between two kinds of working models: "If an individual is to draw up a plan to achieve a set goal, not only does he have some sort of working model of his environment, but he must have also some working knowledge of his own behavioral skills and potentialities". That is, the attachment system, once used repeatedly in relational contexts, includes representations of attachment figures' responses *(working models of others)* as well as representations of one's own efficacy and value, or the lack thereof *(working models of self)*. These working models organize a person's memory about an attachment figure of him- or herself during attempts to gain protection in times of need (Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985). According to Bowlby (1977) these two models usually develop within the individual in relation to each other, usually in a complementary fashion. Therefore, if a caregiver, who is mostly one of the parents, is not physically or emotionally available in times of need, the infant is forced to develop a secondary attachment strategy to ensure his/her survival, which leads to an insecure attachment and a *negative internal model of the world.* If the attachment figure constantly denies proximity seeking as a non-viable option and deactivates the attachment system, the infant tries to cope with problems on his/her own, which is what Bowlby called "compulsive self reliance". Consequently, this leads to the

development of high attachment avoidance, hence an *avoidant attachment style*- "I am alone to solve my problems" (Shaver & Mikulincer, 2002). On the other hand, if the attachment figure provides inconsistent care giving, the infant regards proximity seeking as a still viable option and employs a hyperactivation strategy whereby s/he intensifies the proximity seeking attempts in order to achieve the attachment figure's attention, which Bowlby called "protest". Consequently this leads to the development of a high attachment anxiety, hence an *anxious attachment style*- "I have to act in clingy ways in order to get attention and help" (Bowlby, 1978).

A series of studies using the Strange Situation test over two decades have also shown that these patterns of *secure, avoidant* and *anxious* attachment in Secure Situation are also evident in adult relationship (Waters, 2004). In other words, the blueprints of relation with environment based on the infant's negative or positive view of himself/herself and environment move to adulthood by replacing connection focus from parents to peers and partners.

1.3.1. Adult Attachment

Whilst initial theorizing of attachment theory focused on childhood, it was later applied to adult romantic relationships, particularly through the work of Shaver and Hazan (1994; 1989). Shaver and Hazan (1989) stated that there are several important similarities and differences between the attachments that occur in childhood and adulthood. Initially, there are six similarities between childhood and adult (and adolescent) attachments. First is that the quality of the attachment is dependent upon the reciprocation, sensitivity and responsiveness of the attachment figure/ caregiver. Second, securely attached individuals (infants/adults) are generally

happier and more adaptive than insecurely attached individuals. Third, the attachment mechanism of maintaining proximity to the attachment figure is displayed in both adult and infant attachments. Fourth, separation from an attachment figure causes extreme distress (separation distress), and the initiation of attachment behaviors in an attempt to regain contact with the attachment figure. Fifth, in both adults and infants, there is an "intense sensitivity" when displaying discoveries and achievements to the attachment figure for approval. Lastly, both attachments entail a certain degree of baby talk or motherese type communication.

Many studies reveal that perceived attachment attitudes mostly in childhood play a great role in determining the attachment dimension, molding of an individual's personality and moreover in the way that individual perceives intimate relationships (Britton & Fuendeling, 2005; Fox, Platz, & Bentley, 1995). Main realized that early experience does just shape later behavior. In general it might have powerful effects by shaping a person's beliefs and expectations. Thus, Main, Kaplan and Cassidy (1985) developed Adult Attachment Interview (AAI) to examine adults' ideas about their view of their relationship to each parent. At first, Main and friends (1985) measured the attachment security of 50 one-years-olds in the Strange Situation and saw the same subjects 20 years later in the Adult Attachment Interview. Results showed that 85% of babies who were secure in the Secure Situation were secure in Adult Attachment Interview 20 years later. The results of studies with AAI showed the same kinds of differences Ainswoth had seen in the Strange Situation (Lyons-Ruth, & Jacobvitz, 2008; Main, Hesse, & Kaplan, 2005; Waters, 2004). In a very similar interview, adults are asked not about their relationship with parents but with their spouse. It was found

that people who were secure with respect to their parents were much more likely than others to be secure with their partners (Waters, 2004).

The reason for this consistency in childhood and adulthood attachment styles might be found in several studies in the literature. Kerns (1994) proposes that the attachment style at one developmental stage helps to influence the resultant attachment styles at the next developmental stage. Her analysis of attachment theory suggests that working models provide a mechanism of continuity from early childhood through to early adulthood. Working models provide the continuity between infant and adult attachment systems by maintaining expectations derived during childhood of the attachment figure's behavior and one's capacity in social situations such as confidence, self-esteem, loneliness (Hojat & Crondall, 1987). In addition, each stage of development provides the foundation for the next stage. For example, having the advantages of a secure attachment would help a child develop secure attachments with peers during adolescence. Shaver, Collins, and Clark (1996) have also proposed that expectations associated with working models tend to become self-fulfilling over time; hence, being rejected can cause one to develop expectations of rejection and subsequently behave in ways that increase the likelihood of rejection. These mechanisms provide continuity from infant to adult attachment. Klohnen and Bera (1998) have analyzed longitudinal data of approximately 100 women from ages 21 to 52 and found not only consistent working models and also attachment styles during the 31 years of study. More recently, Judith Crowell and Everett Waters have adapted the Adult Attachment Interview for use with couples. They call this the Current relationship Interview. Taken together ties these studies,

(e.g. Ainsworth & Bell, 1970; Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985) preliminary findings showed that infant attachment affects relationship beliefs and attitudes in adulthood and these reach outside the family to affect behavior between romantic partners (Waters, 2004).

As well as the positive correlation between the attachment styles in childhood and adulthood, there might be another correlation between childhood attachment style and adulthood loneliness, which is explored in several studies. Paloutzian and Ellison (1982) produce evidence that childhood experience may predispose individuals to being lonely later in life. That is to say, parental care and secure attachment were negatively correlated with loneliness whereas ambivalent and avoidant attachment and self-criticism were positively correlated with loneliness. Similarly, Hojat (1987) highlighted the importance which early attachment experiences have on later years. He asserted that unsatisfactory attachment experiences are related to adulthood loneliness. Wiseman, Mayseless, and Sharabany, (2006) also state that Ambivalence attachment and self- criticism mediated, in part, the association between ambivalence attachment and loneliness, yet both ambivalence and self- criticism uniquely predicted loneliness.

There is also evidence in the literature that early attachment and modeling of appropriate social behavior are conceivably interrelated with other correlates of loneliness, such as, a poor self-concept, social anxiety, shyness and a distrust and dislike of others (Solano, Batten & Parish, 1982). Peplau, Miceli and Morasch, (1982) stated that children who are "deprived of secure attachment" with adult figures are more likely to maintain "models of the self and the

social world that are harmful to their self-esteem and to their later social adjustment". Similarly, according to Paloutzian and Ellison, (1982); the influence of modeling would suggest that one's early experiences with family and peers, including the degree of warmth, love and closeness, can influence how one learns to relate to others. In other words, positive experiences early in life, increasing feelings of intimacy and belonging have long-term effects by facilitating the same qualities in later adult relationships (Paloutzian & Ellison, 1982). For example, an important motive for inadequate self-disclosure is the lack of trust which lonely people feel toward other individuals (Solano, Batten, & Parish, 1982).

In summary, throughout childhood, adolescence, and even into adulthood, attachment relationships remain important in the elicitation and regulation of emotional states (Adam, Gunnar, & Taraka 2004; Kobak, 1999), goal attainment and social regulation. Research suggests that early attachment relationships are highly predictive of later relationships: secure infants are most likely to become secure adults, while insecure and disorganized relationships create distinct but predictable developmental pathways (i. e. Clegg & Sheard, 2002)

During infancy, primary caregivers, who are mostly parents, are likely to serve attachment functions. In later childhood, adolescence and adulthood, a wider variety of relationship partners can serve as attachment figures, including siblings, other relatives, familiar coworkers, teachers or coaches, close friends and romantic partners. According to Bowlby (1979), even a long-term romantic or pair- bond relationship (Hazan & Zeifman, 1999) is the prototype of attachment bonds in adulthood. However, insecure attachment

usually originates in difficult parent-child relationships and lower home identification would be expected.

Attachment theory grew out of observing the physical proximity of children to caregivers and how this was altered when children were neglected and mistreated; it was since broadened in focus to address mental constructs throughout development and degrees of psychopathology (Bowlby, 1977). Accordingly, de Minzi (2006) conducted a study to examine the relationship between parenting and attachment, self-competence, loneliness and depression in 8-12 year old children. The results indicated that when there is lack of perception of acceptance and trust from both of parents, children experience, feelings of loneliness.

Relationship with fathers is also one of the addresses of the attachment research. Colins and Allard (2004) found that when tired or ill, infants seek proximity to a primary care giver and are noticeably reassured and soothed in that person's presence. Moreover, in his study, 24 % of the studied infants directed more or stronger attachment behavior to their fathers than to their mothers. Sirvanlı-Özen (2003), previously studied adolescents coming from married and divorced families in terms of adult attachment styles and perceived parenting styles of adolescents. With respect to the perceived parenting styles, he stated that adolescents coming from divorced families perceived their fathers as the parent showing less affection and control in comparison with those from married families. However, perception of the mother made no significant difference from the viewpoint of marital status of parents.

On the other hand the study of Apostolidou (2009) contradicts with studies advocating that parenting styles determine the

attachment style. Apostolidou demonstrated that father care is significantly but positively correlated with the anxiety dimension in women. He stated that women who have positive schemata regarding their relationship with their father in childhood reported more anxiety in their intimate relationships. Moreover, DeLamater and McCorquodale (1979) reported that parents' behaviors toward their children have direct effect, typically from mild to moderate in strength, on their children's adjustments via attachment bond conducted based on relationship of infant with parents (Leung & Kwan, 1998; O'Connar & Dvorak, 2001).

1.4. The Conceptualization of Parenting Styles

The family is the first communication environment. Here individuals learn all kinds of natural and cultural reality and an atmosphere of confidence is created for the first time. It is where the first sharings take place, and the first support for our efforts to get to know ourselves is provided. It is our first door that opens to reality, the first setting on the stage of the world and the first place that we meet the actors.

Baumrind who is one of the pioneers of parenting style studies (1991) proposes parental styles for both mothers and fathers and links these family interactions to cognitive competence and agentic thinking through analyses of prototypic parenting styles: authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and neglecting-rejecting. Baumrind (1967) argued that a parent's key role in rearing a child is to socialize the child to confirm to the demands of others and at the same time to help the child to maintain a sense of personal integrity. She referred this parental attempt as "parental control" which is very similar with the "coaching" definition of Snyder (2000). On the other

hand, the term control does not mean being strict or using punishment; instead, it refers to the parental attempts to integrate the child into the family and society.

In 1983, Maccoby and Martin worked on Baumrind's model and built-up a more measurable model. They defined parenting style in two dimensions: Responsiveness (contingency of parental reinforcement) and demandingness (the number of types of demands made by parents). Later, Baumrind used these terms to explain her model. She described responsiveness as the actions of parents to foster the child's individuality, self-regulation, and self- assertion by being supportive and responsive to the child's demands and needs. Additionally, she described demandingness as the attempt of parents to make the child integrated into the family and society by supervision and disciplinary efforts (Baumrind, 1966; 1967). Moreover, Baumrind identified adaptive and maladaptive patterns of parental behavior that were proposed to result from parents' levels of demandingness and responsiveness (Baumrind, 1966; 1967; Sümer & Güngör, 1999).

Firstly, according to Baumrind, the optimal parent style, as it is high in control and high in warmth, is authoritative parenting. Authoritative parents construct a useful balance of demandingness and responsiveness. They allow the child to regulate his or her own activities as much as possible, avoid the exercise of control, and provide a lot of care and affection. They direct the child's activities but in a rational issue-oriented way. They encourage verbal and physical contact and share with the child the reasoning behind their policy. They set and monitor clear standards for their children's behavior. They exercise firm and negotiated relationship. They

control in a warm and loving environment. Those parents raise their children for recognized qualities and competencies and the children, in turn, show the highest levels of internalization of parental standards (Baumrind, 1991; Leman, 2005). Therefore, they exert firm control at points of parent-child divergence, but do not constrain the child. Authoritative parents affirm the child's qualities, but also set standards for future conduct.

In contrast, authoritarian parents are not responsive but they are highly demanding and directive. The authoritarian parent style is low in warmth and care, and high in control. Hence, authoritarian parents shape, control, and evaluate the child's behavior and attitudes in accordance with a set of standards that are formulated by a higher authority. They demand unquestioning obedience. They are more likely to resort to punitive discipline styles to control the behavior of their children and they give their child little room for negotiation. They strongly share values such as respect for authority, respect for work, and respect for the preservation of order and traditional structure. Furthermore, they do not encourage verbal and physical affection.

On the other hand, permissive style is high in warmth, care and affection, and low in control. Permissive parents are more responsive than demanding; they are lenient and allow their children to regulate their own behaviors (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1967; Sümer & Güngör, 1999). More precisely, permissive parents behave in an accepting and affirmative manner towards the child's impulsive, desires, and actions. They consult with the child and provide explanations for family rules. Those parents believe that any form of control or discipline inhibits the child's natural tendencies

and prospects of self- actualization. Thus, do not encourage the child to obey externally defined standards, and attempt to use reason rather than overt power to accomplish their ends (Kim & Chung, 2003).

Lastly, rejecting-neglecting parents are neither responsive nor demanding; they do not monitor structure or provide support, and may actively reject their children (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1967; Sümer & Güngör, 1999).

Many researchers (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994) offered an integrative model to understand the process of how the parenting style of the parent influences the development of child. They described three aspects of parenting: The goals toward which the socialization is directed, the parenting practices of parents to help their children to reach those goals and the parenting style within which socialization occurs.

In this integrative model, the first key concept is socializing. Socializing the child by helping her/him to acquire specific social skills and behaviors and to develop a sense of integrity is the main goal of parenting and to achieve this goal, parents display specific goal directed behaviors such as feeding, talking to, playing with or even spanking the child.

In this contextual model of parenting styles, a second key concept, socializing the child is a parenting goal, influence the parenting style. Various studies have pointed out the important role parenting practices of the parent on the development of social behavior and personality characteristics. For example, Junttila,

Vauras and Laakkonen (2007) revealed a significant and rather high correlation between the loneliness of school aged children and their mothers' and fathers' parenting styles. Not only loneliness but also hope is taught by parents who model hopeful behavior to their children by coping with difficult challenges in a positive way and by persevering in the face of difficulties. Parents are primary teachers in installing agency (motivational thinking) and pathways (routes to goals). Consequently, children acquire 'self-instigatory insights' which assist them to plan goal directed behavior and deal with obstacles that hinder the achievement of those goals. As children develop cognitively and move into adolescence and beyond, these self-instigatory insights improve. (Snyder, 2000)

A third key concept in this model, parenting style, was explained by Baumrind as a characteristic of the parent, and not a subset of parent-child relationship. She believed that children were not only influenced by their parents, but they have also an influence their parents and therefore contributed to their own development. Moreover, this relationship is affected by the social and cultural climate of both the parents and child. Therefore, while a specific parental manner might be perceived and conceptualized as responsive in one culture, it might be perceived as oppressive and demanding in another culture.

The same handicap is valid not only for the perception of parenting styles but also conceptualizing many social and psychological concepts such as attachment dimensions, hope and loneliness. The prevalence, development and correlated concepts can differ based on social and cultural climate. Hence, it is important to screen the native literature to understand and discuss the context.

1.5. Research on Relationship among Hope, Loneliness, Attachment and Parenting Styles in Turkey

It must not be forgotten that we cannot think of the concepts of hope independent from culture. To date, the vast majority of published and unpublished research studies examining Snyder's model of hope have been conducted predominantly on European-American college students, with little to no examination of possible racial/ethnic variations. Thus, despite interesting discussions regarding potential variations in hope between different racial/ethnic groups (e.g. Lopez de Silanes, Vishny, & Shleifer, 2000; Snyder, 1995), we know very little about hope in other cultures.

Due to the control of negative or avoided topics of cultural differences, Sunar (2002) presented supportive findings. According to him, Turkish culture has traditionally valued self-control and parents tend to encourage or restrict emotional and behavioral expression in children, in certain topics of discussion such as sexuality. Moreover, there are clear gender differences in the use and experience of authority and control. Daughters are kept under closer control and supervision than sons are, particularly by their mothers, while sons are to be controlled more likely than daughters in an authoritarian manner by both parents. Besides this, fathers are perceived as more authoritarian than mothers are, while mothers are perceived as more closely controlling than fathers are (2002). These results demonstrated that there is differential treatment of sons and daughters, as sons are given more autonomy while daughters are more closely supervised and controlled, especially due to premarital sexuality and there is a considerable anxiety about sexual matters of daughters (Sunar, 2002). Ataca, (1989; cited in Sunar, 2002) added

that this differential treatment takes place in many areas of family life, even in urban middle class families and males and females are separated both physically and symbolically. Moreover, maintenance of family honor requires considerable restriction of female behavior and due to this, compared to boys; girls are much more closely supervised and limited in their permissible activities, particularly in adolescence. Thus, parenting style of parents is changing depend on childrens gender.

The important role of parents in affecting various aspects of children's psychological functioning has also been documented in Turkish samples. For instance, it has been shown that the type of behaviors and the attitudes that the mother and father manifest affect the thought patterns (Aydın & Öztütüncü, 2001), and loneliness (Çiftçi-Uruk & Demir, 2003) of children. Akgün (2000) stated that, in the Turkish family structure, fathers are usually the authority figure and they have a formal relationship with their children. Mothers, as major caregivers, have an affectionate and warm relationship with their children and are usually more supportive than fathers. Sunar (2002), similarly, stated that, traditional roles for mothers and fathers can be described as mothers being highly involved in care and supervision of their children and fathers taking a more distant but authoreritarian role. Thus, fathers are set the standards froms afar and mothers mostly practicing them. Türkmen and Demirli (2011) similarly found in their study that perceived parenting styles of mother and loneliness predicted both dispositional and hope levels of individuals. On the other hand perceivedparenting of father failed to neither predict loneliness nor hope level.

Despite Türkmen and Demirli (2011) researches interested with hope in Turkey are mostly the correlates of hopes in academic settings such as academic self-efficacy (Atik, Çayırdağ, Demirli, Kayacan, & Çapa Aydın, 2008), better problem solving skills (Atik & Erkan, 2009), career decision making self-efficacy (Sarı, 2011), and career maturity (Kepir, 2011). Thus they are blind to the developmental predictive of hope.

1.6. Significance of the Study

In order to facilitate the development of interventions to instill hope in young people, it must be clearly understood how hope progress. In this regard, there has been strong theoretical but preliminary empirical support for the individual relationships between hope and its predictors and mental health sequence. There are, however, few published studies on the overall model for the hope (e.g. Shorey, Snyder, Yang, & Lewin, 2003).

Research indicates that patterns of interactions that parents adopt with their children influence the children's later development (e.g Snyder, 2000; Clegg & Sheard, 2002), as well as development of hope. Cause-and-effect schemas, which are well developed by the end of the first year, allow infants to indicate what their goals are. In the second year, infants learn that they can instigate goal-directed activities to follow pathways to desired goals. The idea of self as an agent evolves during this period. During the second year, one of the most important hope-related skills learned is the idea that pathways around barriers may be planned and actively followed. This process of encountering barriers, planning ways around them, and then actively executing these plans is central to the genesis of hope.

The security of the child's attachment to caregivers and the interpersonal context within which youngsters cope with adversity is critical. The fine balance of warmth and responsiveness as well as control and demandingness has consistently been shown to be the most beneficial type of parenting (Baumrind, 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983) to develop secure attachment. More generally, warm and supportive parenting has been related to proper social and cognitive development (Chao, 2001; Griffith, 2004) as well as social competence, peer acceptance, school achievement, and distinguished studentship, and negatively related to social difficulties (Chen, Dong, & Zhou, 1997). Specifically, young adults who report possessing secure working models of attachment with caregivers are more likely to develop a secure attachment in their adulthood (e.g. Collins & Read, 1990; Hazan & Shaver, 1994, Mikulincher, 2005). Securely attached individuals report having more satisfying romantic and social relationships with others, in which they were easily able to trust and feel close to others, and experience more positive and less negative emotions in the relationship. They also report being better able to maintain high levels of trust and commitment over time (Fraley, Davis, & Shaver, 1997).

Parenting styles and attachment dimensions, as stated, determines the cognitive schemata's of adulthood as well as relationship schemata. It is theoriezed that hope is inculcated in children through interactions with their caretakers, peers and teachers (Snyder, Cheavens & Sympson, 1997). As such, the goal of connecting with other people is fundamental, because the seeking of one's goals almost always occurs within the context of social commerce. Hence both loneliness and hope may be predicted by perceived parenting styles and attachment dimensions of individuals.

Even if there are quite a number of studies examining the relation between attachment and loneliness (e.g. Hecht & Baum, 1984), there are few studies trying to understand developmental facilities of hope and even hope theory and stressing the developmental schemata and importance of coaching of parents during childhood in development of hopeful thinking. Snyder et al. (Snyder, Hoza et al., 1997) indicated that high-hope as compared with low-hope individuals who are especially invested in making contact with other people. They also stated that the degree to which an individual is concerned with the perceptions that others form of him/her is an important measure of the motivation. Researchers also have found that higher levels of hope are related to more perceived social support (Barnum et al., 1998) and less loneliness (Sympson, 1999)

Shorey and friends (2004) indicated in the most comprehensive study in literature aiming to understand the role of attachment on development of hope that children who are securely attached to their parents or caregivers and are provided with sufficient social support to cope with adversity develop resilience and hope. Children who develop a hopeful disposition typically have parents who serve as hopeful role models and who coach them in developing and executing plans to circumvent barriers to valued goals. These children have secure attachment to their parents who provide them with a warm and structured family environment in which rules are consistently and predictably applied and conflict is managed in a predictable and fair way.

Findings of the present study may also help reserchers and counselors gain greater insight into parent-child interactions and understand influences of parent-child interactions on relationship

patterns as well as hope in the adulthood. Moreover, the previous studies are mostly conducted in western societies and therefore, culturally-bounded effects of parenting, loneliness experience and hope is unseen. Even there is a change in paternalistic, collectivist culture of Turkey it is still different with individualistic, urbanized cultural form of Western societies. Thus, it is important to understand the differences and similarities of developmental patterns of hope in Turkish university students.

1.7. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the present study is to examine the causes of hope in a Turkish sample by making use of the broad framework of the developmental theory of hope. The present study addressed this issue by empirically testing Snyder's (1994) proposition that hope develops in the context of secure attachments to supportive caregivers in childhood. Thus, it is proposed that securely attached individuals who did not experience loneliness when encountered with stressors develop as high-hope individuals.

Specifically, a model based on developmental model of hope was tested in order to see a set of relationships among the factors associated with dispositional hope and state hope and to what extent a combination of these variables account for individuals' experience of hope. As reviewed in detail in the previous sections, the proposed antecedents of hope in this study were loneliness, anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment, perceived parenting dimensions of mother and perceived parenting dimensions of father. Figure 1.1 presents the proposed causal model of the present study.
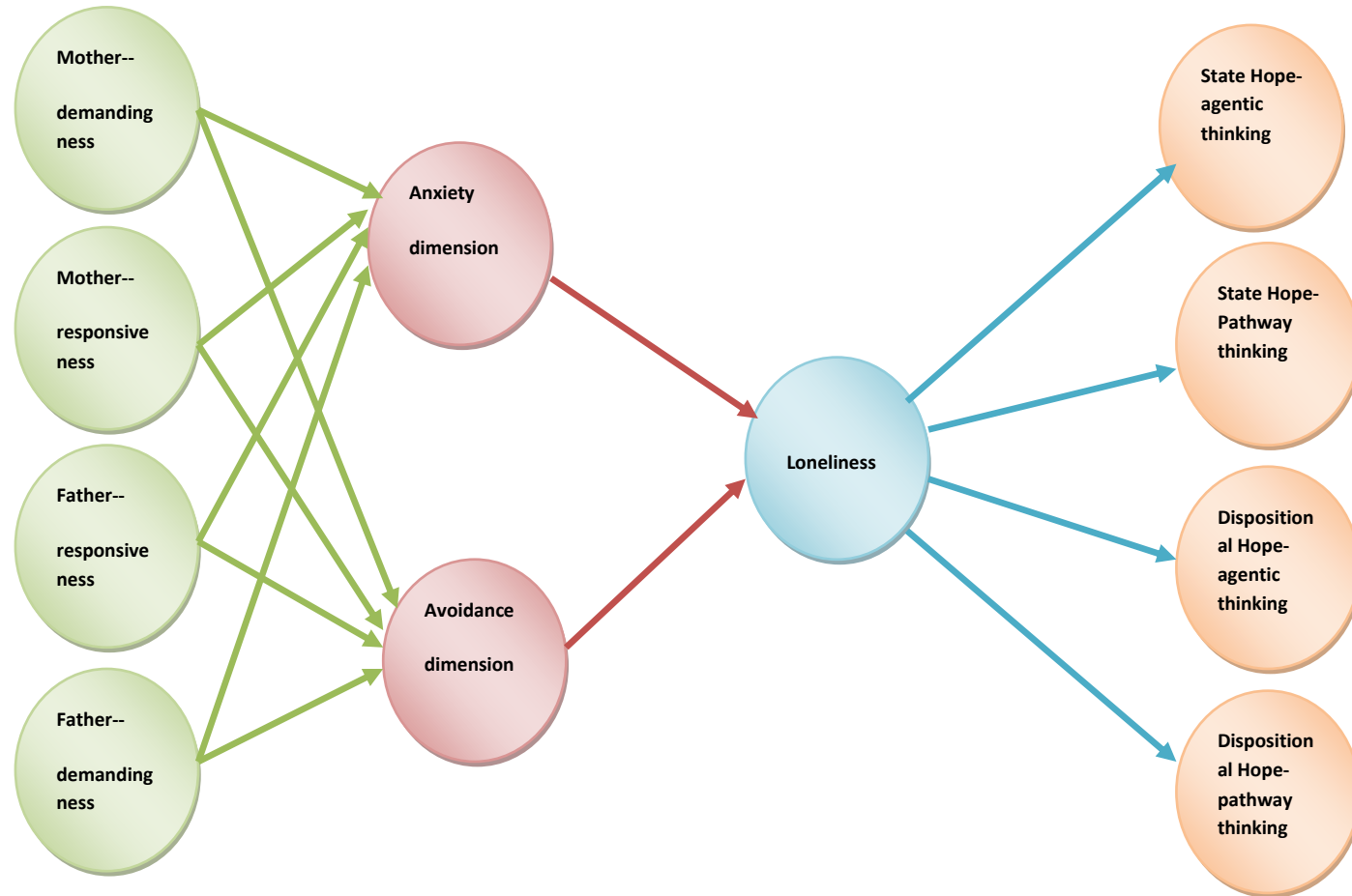
Figure 2. The Proposed Model of Hope

The model that was tested in the present study combined the independent constructs of perceived parenting style responsiveness and demandingness dimensions' of mother and father; and the dependent construct of hope with factors of agentic thinking dimension of state hope, pathway thinking dimensions of state hope, agentic thinking dimension of dispositional hope and pathway thinking dimension of dispositional hope; having attachment dimensions of anxiety and avoidance with loneliness as mediators. According to the present model, perceived parenting style dimensions directly predict the attachment dimensions; attachment dimensions predict the loneliness and loneliness predict the state hope and dispositional hope constructs. The strength of the paths displayed in Figure 1.1 were determined and tested in order to see whether the propositions of model operated in a similar direction for the present Turkish sample.

1.8. Research Questions

Given that the purpose of the present study is to investigate the relationships among aforementioned study variables, based on the proposed causal model depicted previously, the following research questions were sought to be answered:

1. To what extent is dispositional hope predicted from loneliness, attachment dimensions, and perceived parenting dimensions of mother and father?

2. To what extent is state hope predicted from loneliness, attachment dimensions, and perceived parenting dimensions of mother and father?

3. To what extent is loneliness predicted from attachment dimensions and perceived parenting dimensions of mother and father?

4. To what extent is attachment dimensions predicted from perceived parenting dimensions of mother and father?

1.9. Definitions of Terms

Hope: A goal-directed thinking way. Goal determines the targets of mental action sequences. The other components of hope theory, which are pathway and agency, are types of thought that enable a person to achieve his or her goals (Snyder, 2002).

State Hope: Hope of an individual, in the "here and now" frame, for a specific goal situation (Snyder et al., 1996).

Dispositional Hope: A cognitive set that is based on reciprocally derived sense of agency and pathways (Snyder et al., 1991, p.571).

Parenting Styles: Parenting styles refer to the styles of interaction between children and their parents. Parenting style is composed of two important dimensions: Parental demandingness and parental responsiveness (Darling, 1999).

Attachment Dimensions: These are cognitive representations acquired early in life. The terms attachment, attachment style, attachment orientation, and attachment status are used interchangeably (Ainsworth, 1989).

Loneliness: It is defined as the psychological state that results from discrepancies between one's desire and one's actual relationships. It is the unpleasant experience that occur when a

person's network of social relations is deficient in some important way, either quantitatively or qualitatively (Peplau & Perlman, 1982).

1.10. Limitations of the Study

In the light of this study, possible limitations should be considered. The scope of the study is limited to the data collected from undergraduate level of students namely; freshmen, and senior grades, enrolled in the Ankara University Faculty of Educational Sciences. When the students' various hope levels are considered, generalization of findings to students who are enrolled in the sophomore, junior and graduate programs is limited. Moreover, the extent to which the results of the study are generalizable to other university students is not clear since even the university that the sample was drawn from represents a heterogeneous population.

Second limitation of the study might be owing to the self-report nature of the data collection. As in the present study, hope levels could not be assessed by multiple way of evaluation including observation of the actual academic goals, family, peer and instructor ratings regarding students' hope tendencies. Thus, levels of hope are limited with the students' self-reporting.

Another limitation might be related to the study variables used in the present study. In the present study, retrospective components associated with hope which are perceived parenting and attachment dimensions is limited with the remembering the past life events.

CHAPTER II

METHOD

This chapter involves description of the methodological procedures of the study. First, the demographic information about participants, and the procedures related to sampling are presented. Then, data collection instruments of the study are given together with their psychometric properties and reliability and validity processes. Finally, procedures for data collection, and methods for data analysis are presented.

2.1. Participants

The data for the present study was collected from undergraduate students enrolled in Ankara University (AU) Faculty of Educational Sciences (FES) during spring semester of 2011-2012 academic year. In order to get a representative sample, convenient random sampling procedure was used for the selection of the participants. To achieve this, first the number of students enrolled in ESF in 2011-2012 academic year was obtained from ESF Student Affairs Office. The total number of students enrolled in ESF was approximately 1200. Nearly 600 of this total were junior and senior students, who were proposed to represent the ESF population for this study. However, the researcher was able to collect the data from a total of 560 students. After employing the missing value analysis which is explained in the results section, 550 participants remained; thus, the sample size of the present study was accepted as 550.

In the present study 378 (68.7 %) of the volunteered participants were female and 172 (31.3 %) of the participants were male students. The ages of the participants changed between 17 and 31 ($\underline{M}$ = 20.30, $\underline{SD}$ = 2.16). With respect to grade level of participants, 66.4 % of them ($\underline{n}$= 365) were senior, and 33.5 % of them ($\underline{n}$ = 194) junior. In terms of the distribution of participants by department, 71 (12.9%) students were from Secondary Level Social Science Fields Education, 50 (9.1%) students were from Special Education, 66 (12.0 %) students were from Department of Religious Studies and Ethics Education, 118 (21.5 %) students were from Guidance and Psychological Counselling, 63 (11.5 %) students were from Computer Education and Instructional Technologies, 69 (12.5 %) students were from Primary School Education and 111 (20.2 %) students were from Primary School Education.

Of the 549 participants, 198 (36.0 %) reported living in dormitory, 178 (32.2 %) of them live with a friend at a flat, 130 (23.6 %) of students reported they live with their family, 27 (4.5 %) live with their relatives, and 16 (2.4 %) live alone.

487 (88.5 %) of 541 participants noted that their parents are married and living together, 27 (4.9 %) reported that their father is dead, 17 (3.1 %) stated their parents are divorced, 10 (1.8 %) of participants stated that their mothers are dead.

172 (31.3 %) of participants are 3 siblings, 159 (28.9 %) of participants are two siblings, 82 (14.9 %) are four siblings, 41 (7.5 %) of participants are five siblings, 65 (7.2 %) are six or more siblings.

265 (53.6 %) of participants noted that their mothers and 201 (36.5 %) said that their fathers are primary school graduate. 77 (14.0 %) of participants' mothers and 92 (16.7 %) of participants' fathers

are secondary school graduate, 73 (13.3 %) of their mothers and 120 (21.8%) of their fathers are high school graduate, 29 (5.3 %) of their mothers and 30 (5.5 %) of their fathers are university graduate. On the other hand, 56 (10.2 %) of their mothers and 12 (2.2 %) of their fathers are illiterate.

2.2. Data Collection Instruments

In this study, a demographic form that aims to get information about gender, age, education, romantic and perceived general relationships of the participants was prepared by the researcher (see Appendix A). This form was administered at the beginning of the study and the rest of the measures were administered afterwards. The other instruments were Turkish form of Dispositional Hope Scale (see Appendix B), Turkish form of State Hope Scale (see Appendix C), The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory (see Appendix D), UCLA Loneliness Scale (see Appendix E), and The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory (see Appendix F).

2.2.1. Demographic Information Form

Demographic Information Form was prepared by researcher in order to gather information about the participants including their gender, age, number of the siblings, and education level of the parents, Moreover, their self-consideration in relation with family, romantic relationships, and social relationships are also asked.

2.2.2. Dispositional Hope Scale (DHS)

The original Dispositional Hope Scale (DHS) developed by Snyder et al. (1991) was used to assess students' dispositional hope levels. The DHS is a 12-item scale. Items e 2, 9, 10, and 12 were

measuring Agency (e. g. "I energetically pursue my goals."), items 1, 4, 7, 8 were measuring Pathways (e. g. "I can think of many ways to get out of a jam."), and the rest four items, which are 3, 5, 6, 11, are filler items (e.g. "I feel tired most of the time."). Each participant is asked to read each item and select a response option that best describes how much s/h agrees with each statement, 1 indicating that s/he totally disagrees) and 4 s/he totally agrees. The Cronbach alpha coefficients ranged from .71 to .76 for the overall scale, from .71 to .76 for the agency subscale, and from .63 to .80 for the pathways subscale (Snyder et al., 1996).

The DHS was translated into Turkish by Akman and Korkut (1993). For the overall scale, an internal consistency coefficient of .65 was obtained, and the retest correlation coefficient was .66 in a four-week interval. The factor analysis for the Turkish form of DHS indicated that Turkish form of DHS had a single factor structure that explained 26.23, 17.43, and 16.47 per cent of total variance in three separate factor analytic studies conducted with separate Turkish university student samples (Akman & Korkut, 1993). Later, Denizli (2004) also reported a one-factor solution for the Turkish DHS named pathways thinking, with an eigenvalue of 2.47 that explained the 31% of the total variance. On the other hand, Kemer (2006) conducted a separate factor analysis to obtain further evidence whether the construct validity differs from the original form in her sample. Results of the factor analysis yielded two factors with Eigenvalues with 3.45 for factor one and 1.49 for factor two, respectively. This two-factor solution approximately explained the 50 % of the total variance. Cronbach alpha coefficients were reported as .51 for overall scale, .72 for Pathways subscale and .66 for Agency subscale.

2.2.2.1. Reliability and Validity of Turkish Version of Dispositional Hope Scale for the Present Study

To examine the construct validity and the factor structure of the scale, the items of DHS were subjected to exploratory factor analysis with maximum likelihood with Varimax rotation. The KMO value is .85 and the Bartlett test of sphericity is significant. The analysis revealed two factors. The factors explained 57.07 % of the variance, providing the best item loadings. The first factor explained 44.19 % and the second explained 12.87 % of the total variance. Eigenvalues associated with factors were 3.53 and 1.03. Factor loadings and communality values of each item are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1.

Factor Loadings and Communalities of Dispositional Hope Scale (DHS)

Item Number	Factor Loadings	Factor Loadings	Communality
dsp0001	**.78**	.24	.66
dsp0004	**.52**	.19	.31
dsp0007	**.71**	.30	.59
dsp0008	**.41**	**.45**	.37
dsp0002	.43	**.47**	.41
dsp0009	.24	**.44**	.25
dsp0010	.17	**.66**	.46
dsp0012	.22	**.64**	.45

Cronbach alpha reliability was also calculated in the research sample for the DHS. The results showed that Cronbach alpha coefficient was .67 for overall scale, .75 for Pathways subscale and .68 for Agency subscale.

2.2.2.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Turkish Version of Dispositional Hope Scale (DHS) for the Present Study

In order to determine the competency of the model tested in CFA, many fit indexes are used (Sümer, 2000; Şimşek, 2007). Goodness of fit index might be defined as the measurement indicating how well a specific model produces the covariance matrix between indicator variables. (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, Tatham, 2006). For the CFA in this study, Chi-Square Goodness of Fit Test (x2), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Normed Fit Index (NFI), Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI), Root Mean Square Error of Approximation goodness of fit indexes (RMSEA) are analysed.

Chi-Square Goodness of Fit Test (x^2) is a measurement that is used to compare observed and anticipated covariance matrixes (Hair et al, 2006). That the value of x^2 is high means that the model is not fit (Child, 2006). However, rather than this, what shows the goodness of fit of the model is the rate of chi square value to degree of freedom (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007). Tabachnick and Fidel (2007) are claim that this value should be below 2. However, Kline (2005), states that in large samples a x^2/sd rate below 3 corresponds to perfect fitness and below 5 means moderate fitness.

Normed Fit Index (NFI) evaluates the anticipated model by comparing the chi-square value of the model with the chi-square value of the Independent Model (Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007). Non-

Normed Fit Index (NNFI) is also similar to NFI, but it produces a value by judging the complicatedness of the model. .90 and above is accepted as "good fit".

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) generates a residual error in anticipating each covariance. In most acceptable models, RMSEA is below 0.10.

CFA applied to the Turkish Version of Dispositional Hope Scale (DHS). Overall, the analysis indicated that the data did adequately fit the scale, suggesting a high adjustment between the scale and the data in terms of chi-square (x^2) statistics. Chi-square (x^2) is a badness of fit measure in the sense that while a small chi-square corresponds to good fit and a large chi-square to bad fit; a zero chi-square corresponds to almost perfect fit (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The results showed that the value of x^2 was 46.17, p<.05, which indicated a good fit. Besides the x^2 values, its ratio to degrees of freedom was also calculated. The value of this ratio was $x^2/df = 46.17/17 = 2.72$, which implied an "adequate fit" given that generally values less than 5 are expected to be adequate, according to Kline (1998). Kline (2005), states that in large samples a x^2/sd rate below 3 corresponds to perfect fit and below 5 means moderate fit.

Other important goodness of fit statistics that were calculated and their values are as follows: RMSEA = .06, CFI = .97, NFI = .96, NNFI = 96. RMSEA confirmed the adequacy of the model fit since in order to provide a good fit, the value of RMSEA should ideally be less than .08 (Kline, 1998; Sümer, 2000; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007).

When the regression weights of the item paths are analysed individually, it is seen that all item paths are significant. Even item 8

have loaded on both factors as found in expletory factor analysis; the value of item 8 is still higher for agentic thinking subscale. Therefore, it was decided that the scale be analysed in its original form without omitting any item.

2.2.3. State Hope Scale (SHS)

The original State Hope Scale which was used to track levels of hopeful thinking toward specific, present, goal-related situations was developed by Snyder et al. (1996). The SHS is a 6-item scale with three items measuring Agency (e. g. "At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my goals."), and three items measuring Pathways (e. g. "If I should find myself in a jam, I could think of many ways to get out of it.") at a given moment of time. Respondents indicate the degree to which each statement applies to them at the present moment on a 1 (definitely disagree) to 5 (definitely agree) scale. Therefore, scores can range from 6 to 24, with higher scores indicating higher levels of hopeful thinking. Subscale scores are computed by adding the three even numbered items for Agency and the three odd numbered items for Pathways. The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the overall form of SHS is .88, and the Cronbach alpha coefficient for Agency subscale is .86 and Pathway subscale is .59 (Snyder et al., 1996).

Adaptation study of the SHS was carried out by Denizli (2004). Two factors were found consistent with the original form of SHS. Reliability studies of the Turkish form of the SHS revealed that internal consistency coefficients was .48 for overall scale, .58 for pathways thinking and .66 for agentic thinking subscales (Denizli, 2004).

2.2.3.1. Reliability and Validity of Turkish Version of State Hope Scale for the Present Study

To examine the construct validity and the factor structure of the scale, the items of SHS were subjected to exploratory factor analysis with maximum likelihood with Varimax rotation. The KMO value is .83 and the Bartlett test of sphericity is significant. The initial analysis revealed only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than unity, explaining 48% of the variance. When the factors were restricted to 2, they explained 65.21 % of the variance, providing the best item loadings. The first factor explained 50.84 %; the second explained 14.67 % of the total variance. Eigenvalues associated with factors were 3.05 and .88. Even the second eigenvalue is lower than 1.0. The factor is accepted because it is far distant from the rest of the factor loadings; for example the third eigenvalue is .60. The scree plot also displays two factors. Factor loadings and communality values of each item are in Table 2 below.

Table 2.

Factor Loadings and Communalities of State Hope Scale (SHS)

Item Number	Factor Loadings	Factor Loadings	Communality
state1	**.57**	.15	.35
state3	**.64**	.23	.46
state5	**.64**	.33	.51
state2	.45	**.50**	.45
state4	.43	**.48**	.41
state6	.20	**.91**	.87

In order to provide evidence for the reliability of the scale, the internal consistency estimate for the SHS was computed using alpha. It was revealed that the SHS had internal consistency with $a = .69$ for factor 1, namely pathway thinking dimension and $a = .75$ for factor 2, which is agentic thinking dimension. The results showed that Cronbach alpha coefficient was .81 for overall scale

2.2.3.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Turkish Version of State Hope Scale (SHS) for the Present Study

CFA applied to the Turkish Version of State Hope Scale (SHS). The analysis indicated that the data did adequately fit the scale, suggesting a high adjustment between the scale and the data in terms of chi-square (x^2) statistics. Chi-square (x^2) is a badness of fit measure in the sense that while a small chi-square corresponds to good fit and a large chi-square to bad fit; a zero chi-square corresponds to almost perfect fit (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The results showed that the value of x^2 was 12.64, p<.05, which indicated almost perfect fit. Besides the x^2 values, its ratio to degrees of freedom was also calculated. The value of this ratio was x^2/df = 12.64/7 = 1.8, which implied an "perfect fit" given that generally values less than 5 are expected to be adequate, according to Kline (1998). Kline (2005), states that in large samples an x^2/sd rate below 3 corresponds to perfect fit and below 5 means moderate fit.

Other important goodness of fit statistics that were calculated and their values are as follows: RMSEA = .04, CFI = .99, NFI = .98, NNFI =98. RMSEA confirmed the adequacy of the model fit since in order to provide a perfect fit, the value of RMSEA should ideally be

less than .08 (Kline, 1998; Sümer, 2000; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007).

When the regression weights and factor score weights of the items are analysed individually, it is seen that all item paths are significantly loaded on factors. Therefore, it was decided that the scale will be analysed in its original form without omitting any item.

2.2.4. University of California Los Angeles (UCLA) Loneliness Scale

The UCLA Loneliness Scale has 20 items. The scale asks subjects to indicate how often they feel the way described in each of the statements. Statements are then evaluated on a 4-point scale, ranging from 'Never' (=1) to 'Often' (=4). For example, item 4 reads, "I do not feel alone." The total scores range from 20 to 80, with higher scores indicating greater loneliness.

Reported alpha for the UCLA was .94; test-retest reliability over two months was .73; concurrent validity of the scale with the Beck Depression Inventory was (r = .62); with the Costello-Comrey Anxiety was (r = .32) and Depression was (r = .55) (Russell, Peplau, & Cutrona, 1980).

When the Turkish version of the UCLA (Demir, 1989) was used, the results of Demir's (1989) reliability and validity study were as follows. The test-re-test reliability over 5 weeks was found as .94. The alpha coefficient obtained was .96. Concurrent validity was demonstrated with a lonely versus nonlonely persons' self-report of behaviour and feelings. Correlation between the UCLA Loneliness Scale and the Beck Depression Inventory was found to be .77. The

UCLA Loneliness Scale and Social Introversion Sub-scale of the Multiscore Depression Inventory were highly correlated .82.

> 2.2.4.1. Reliability and Validity of Turkish Version of University of California Los Angeles (UCLA) Loneliness Scale

Using the present study sample, reliability evidence as well as the factor structure of the scale was obtained.

In order to examine the factor structure, the items of the scale were subjected to exploratory factor analysis by using maximum likelihood with Varimax rotation. The KMO value is .91 and the Bartlett test of sphericity is significant. The analysis revealed only one factor with an eigenvalue greater than unity, and thus indicated that the scale assesses only one dimension. The scree plot also supported this finding. The acquired one factor accounted for 36.35 % of the variance in participants' responses. The eigenvalue associated with the factor was 7.27. Thus, results showed the uni-dimensionality of the scale, which is a consistent result with the original UCLA Loneliness scale. Factor loadings and communality values of each item are presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3.

Factor Loadins and Communalities of UCLA Loneliness Scale Items

Item Number	Factor Loadings	Communality
ucla1	**.59**	.35
ucla2	**.53**	.29
ucla3	**.52**	.27

Table 3 (continued)

ucla4	**.11**	.01
ucla5	**.57**	.32
ucla6	**.54**	.29
ucla7	**.58**	.33
ucla8	**.58**	.34
ucla9	**.53**	.29
ucla10	**.60**	.36
ucla11	**.60**	.36
ucla12	**.58**	.34
ucla13	**.54**	.29
ucla14	**.70**	.49
ucla15	**.47**	.22
ucla16	**.65**	.42
ucla17	**.63**	.39
ucla18	**.65**	.42
ucla19	**.63**	.40
ucla20	**.68**	.46

In order to provide evidence for the reliability of the scale, the internal consistency estimate for the UCLA Loneliness Scale was computed using Cronbach alpha. It was revealed that the UCLA Loneliness Scale had internal consistency a =.90 for the scale.

2.2.4.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Turkish Version of University of California Los Angeles (UCLA) Loneliness Scale for the Present Study

CFA applied to the Turkish Version of University of California Los Angeles (UCLA) Loneliness Scale. The analysis indicated that the data did adequately fit the scale, suggesting a high adjustment between the scale and the data in terms of chi-square (x^2) statistics. Chi-square (x2) is a badness of fit measure in the sense that while a small chi-square corresponds to good fit and a large chi-square to bad fit; a zero chi-square corresponds to almost perfect fit (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The results showed that the value of x^2 was 621.02, p<.05, which indicated almost perfect fit. Besides the x^2 values, its ratio to degrees of freedom was also calculated. The value of this ratio was x^2/df =621.02/166 = 3.7, which implied an "moderate fit" given that generally values less than 5 are expected to be adequate, according to Kline (1998). Kline (2005), states that in large samples a x^2/sd rate below 3 corresponds to perfect fit and below 5 means moderate fit.

Other important goodness of fit statistics that were calculated and their values are as follows: RMSEA = .07, CFI = .88, NFI = .84, NNFI =86. RMSEA confirmed the adequacy of the model fit since in order to provide a perfect fit, the value of RMSEA should ideally be less than .08 (Kline, 1998; Sümer, 2000; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007).

When the regression weights of the item paths are analysed individually, it is seen that item 4 is not significant (R = 0.10, p= .04). Also factor loading of the item is acceptable but low (…=.10) (Kline,

1998; Sümer, 2000; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007).

The analysis was repeated excluding 4th, item, whose factor loadings was low both in exploratory and confirmative factor analysis. The results showed that the value of x^2 was 583.49, p<.05, which indicated an inadequate fit. Besides the x^2 values, its ratio to degrees of freedom was also calculated. The value of this ratio was x^2/df = 583.49/148 = 3.9 which implied an "adequate fit", given that generally values less than 5 are expected to be adequate (Kline, 1998). The other important goodness of fit statistics that were calculated and their values are as follows: RMSEA = .07, CFI = .88, NFI = .85, NNFI = 86. After the analyses made, it was decided that the scale be analysed in its original form except omitting 4th item which is showing low values both on EFA and CFA even a meaningful improvement was not observed in the fitness of the model after excluding the item mentioned.

2.2.5. Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Inventory (ECR-R)

The Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire was developed by Fraley, Waller, and Brennan (2000). ECR-R is a 36- item 7-point Likert type self-report measure of adult attachment. More specifically, it measures adult attachment within the context of romantic relationships. 18-item subscales measure anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment. Coded items are reversed. Mean of the items with odd numbers and mean of the items with even numbers give the anxiety and avoidance scores, respectively. The anxiety subscales measures one's self reported degree of anxiety in romantic adult relationships, whereas avoidance assesses the extent

of avoidance of intimacy in such relationships.

The ECR-R differs from the majority of measures of attachment in that it does not specify attachment types. It rather places individuals' attachment orientations on a continuum of these two dimensions. The security of attachment is conceptually placed at lower level of these two dimensions. The scores on these two dimensions can be converted to place respondents into three or four categories.

Fraley et al. (2000) used the item response theory analysis of self-report measures of adult attachment in revising the ECR. The item response theory models are designed to represent relations between an individual's item response and an underlying latent trait (Fraley et al., 2000). Thus, they obtained median Beta 1 values of −1.67 and −1.86 for Anxiety and Avoidance respectively. The items with low Beta 1 values also tended to have low discrimination values. The correlation between alpha and Beta 1 was .59 for Anxiety and .68 for Avoidance. Therefore, Fraley et al. (2000) selected items with highest discrimination values and proposed 18 items for each of the two factors. Thirteen of anxiety (72 %) and 7 of avoidance (39 %) scale items were from the original ECR. Due to this overlap of the items, they refer to the new instrument as Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised (ECR-R).

Finally, Fraley et al. (2000) examined reliability coefficients of the ECR-R in comparison with the Adult Attachment Scale-AAS, (Collins & Read, 1990); the Relationship Style Questionnaire-RSQ, (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994); and the Experiences in Close Relationships-ECR, (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998). The ECR-R

had higher test re-test reliability coefficients ranging from .93 to .95 then the other measures.

Selçuk, Günaydın, Sümer, and Uysal (2005) adopted the ECR- R into Turkish. In this study, the items are loaded in two factors as was done in the original study. The internal consistencies of attachment avoidance and anxiety subscales were found to be satisfactory (.90 and .86, respectively). Selçuk et al. (2005) also found that the ECR- R Turkish version has high test- retest reliability. Coefficients were .81 for avoidance subscale and .82 for anxiety subscale.

2.2.5.1. Reliability and Validity of Turkish Version of Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Inventory (ECR-R)

To examine the construct validity and the factor structure of the scale, the items of ECR-R were subjected to exploratory factor analysis with maximum likelihood, and Oblamin rotation. The KMO value was found .90 and the Bartlett test of sphericity was significant. The factors explained 34.58 % of the variance, providing the best item loadings. The first factor explained 23.54 %, and the second factor explained 11.03 % of the total variance. Eigenvalues associated with factors were 7.53 and 3.53. Factor loadings and communality values of each item are given in Table 4.below.

Table 4.

Factor Loadings and Communalities of ECR-R Items

Item number	Factor 1 (ANX)	Factor 2 (AVO)	Communality
ecr0001	**.34**	.03	.13
ecr0003	**.67**	.09	.49

Table 4 (continued)

ecr0005	**.69**	.17	.56
ecr0007	**.62**	.24	.52
ecr0009	**.06**	**-.04**	.00
ecr0011	**.50**	.07	.27
ecr0013	**.57**	.20	.42
ecr0015	**.62**	.23	.51
ecr0017	**.08**	**.25**	.08
ecr0019	**.61**	.00	.37
ecr0021	**.16**	**.25**	.11
ecr0023	**.65**	-.13	.39
ecr0025	**.58**	-.02	.34
ecr0027	**.54**	-.16	.27
ecr0029	**.61**	.01	.38
ecr0031	**.25**	-.00	.06
ecr0033	**.59**	-.04	.34
ecr0035	**.55**	-.10	.28
ecr0002	**.31**	**.15**	.14
ecr0004	.07	**.39**	.18
ecr0006	**.44**	**.35**	.40
ecr0008	-.06	**.67**	.43
ecr0010	**.42**	**.32**	.34
ecr0012	.25	**.38**	.26
ecr0014	.18	**.48**	.31
ecr0016	-.24	**.81**	.61
ecr0018	-.17	**.81**	.61
ecr0020	.09	**.33**	.13
ecr0022	.11	**.31**	.13

Table 4 (continued)

ecr0024	.01	**.51**	.26
ecr0026	.07	**.39**	.17
ecr0028	.29	**.32**	.23
ecr0030	-.01	**.54**	.29
ecr0032	-.17	**.55**	.29
ecr0034	-.08	**.38**	.13
ecr0036	.14	**.38**	.19

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

As Table 4 indicates, the loadings of some items were not consistent with the expectancy. The values of items 2, 17 and 21 were higher for avoidance subscale instead of anxiety subscale. The factor loading of item 10 was higher for anxiety subscale instead of avoidance subscale. On the other hand, the value of item 10 was very low in both subscales. Because of the problems mentioned in these items, a reliability factor analysis was also decided to be made for the scale.

In order to provide evidence for the reliability of the scale, the internal consistency estimate for the ECR-R was computed using Cronbach alpha. It was revealed that the ECR-R had good internal consistency a =.87 for factor 1; namely anxiety dimension and a =.85 for factor 2, which is avoidance dimension. The results are consistent with the findings of Selçuk et al. (2005). The results showed that Cronbach alpha coefficient was .89 for overall scale.

2.2.5.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Turkish Version of Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Inventory (ECR-R)

CFA applied to the Turkish Version of Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Inventory (ECR-R). Overall, the analysis indicated that the data did not adequately fit the scale, suggesting a high adjustment between the scale and the data in terms of chi-square (x^2) statistics. Chi-square (x^2) is a badness of fit measure in the sense that while a small chi-square corresponds to good fit and a large chi-square to bad fit; a zero chi-square corresponds to almost perfect fit (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The results showed that the value of x^2 was 2716.07, p<.05, which indicated an inadequate fit. Besides the x^2 values, its ratio to degrees of freedom was also calculated. The value of this ratio was x^2/df = 2716.07/584 = 4.65, which implied an "adequate fit" given that generally values less than 5 are expected to be adequate, according to Kline (1998). Kline (2005), states that in large samples a x^2/sd rate below 3 corresponds to perfect fit and below 5 means moderate fit.

Other important goodness of fit statistics that were calculated and their values are as follows: RMSEA = .08, CFI = .70, NFI = .65, NNFI = 68. RMSEA confirmed the adequacy of the model fit since in order to provide a good fit, the value of RMSEA should ideally be less than .08 (Kline, 1998; Sümer, 2000; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007).

When the regression weights of the item paths are analysed individually, it is seen that item 9 is not significant (R = 0.16, p= .06). Item 17 (R = .61; p = .00) and item 21 (R = .90; p = .00) are significant

but have low values. Standardized lambda-x Estimates are found as $\lambda = .00$ for item 9 and item 17, $\lambda = .01$ for item 21.

The analysis was repeated excluding 9th, 17th and 21th items, whose factor loadings were low both in exploratory and confirmative factor analysis. The results showed that the value of x^2 was 2213.40, $p < .05$, which indicated an inadequate fit. Besides the x^2 values, its ratio to degrees of freedom was also calculated. The value of this ratio was $x^2/df = 2213.40/485 = 4.56$ which implied an "adequate fit", given that generally values less than 5 are expected to be adequate (Kline, 1998). The other important goodness of fit statistics that were calculated and their values are as follows: RMSEA = .08, CFI = .74, NFI = .69, NNFI = 71. After the analyses made, it was decided that the scale be analysed after omitting items 9,17,and 21 which display low factor values both in EFA and CFA even a meaningful improvement was not observed in the fitness of the model after excluding the items mentioned.

2.2.6. The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory (CRSI)

The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory was developed by Sümer and Güngör (1999) to measure the perceived parenting styles. The Measure of Child Rearing Styles is a 22-item 5-point Likert type self-report measure of child rearing style of mother and father separately on the same items. More specifically, it measures the two fundamental dimensions of child rearing styles. 11-item subscales measure acceptance/ involvement and strict control/ supervision dimensions. Parenting styles (authoritative, neglectful, authoritarian, permissive/ indulgent) are formed by crossing perceived parental acceptance/ involvement and strict control dimensions of parenting. The Cronbach alpha coefficients are .94 for

the acceptance/ involvement dimension and .70 for the strict control for father. Also, Cronbach alpha coefficients are .80 for the acceptance/involvement dimension and .94 for the strict control for mother.

2.2.6.1. Reliability and Validity of Turkish Version of the Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory (CRSI) - Mother Form

To examine the construct validity and the factor structure of the scale, the items of CRSI- Mother were subjected to exploratory factor analysis with maximum likelihood and Oblamin rotation. The KMO value is .89 and the Bartlett test of sphericity is significant. The initial analysis revealed four factors with an eigenvalue greater than unity, explaining 48 % of the variance. When the factors were restricted to the 2, factors explained 45.29 % of the variance, providing the best item loadings. The first factor explained 29.52 %. The second explained 15.77 % of the total variance. Eigenvalues associated with factors were 6.50 and 3.47. Factor loadings and communality values of each item are in Table 5 below.

Table 5.

Factor Loadings and Communalities of CRSI-Mother Items

Item number	Factor 1	Factor 2	Communality
Mother1	-.12	**.68**	.48
Mother 3	.09	**.61**	.38
Mother 5	-.05	**.78**	.61
Mother 7	-.10	**.76**	.59
Mother 9	-.17	**.56**	.36
Mother 11	-.39	**.49**	.39

Table 5 (continued)

Mother 13	-.38	**.58**	.48
Mother 15	-.09	**.63**	.41
Mother 17	-.24	**.26**	.13
Mother 19	.01	**.58**	.34
Mother 21	-.50	**.53**	.53
Mother 2	**.65**	-.00	.42
Mother 4	**.64**	-.15	.43
Mother 6	**.67**	-.09	.46
Mother 8	**.66**	-.21	.49
Mother 10	**.62**	-.12	.40
Mother 12	**.58**	-.00	.34
Mother 14	**.51**	-.21	.31
Mother 16	**.47**	-.06	.23
Mother 18	**.64**	-.02	.41
Mother 20	**.40**	.31	.26
Mother 22	**.61**	-.15	.39

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

In order to provide evidence for the reliability of the scale, the internal consistency estimate for the CRSI- Mother was computed using Cronbach alpha. It was revealed that the CRSI- Mother had good internal consistency a =.86 for factor 1; namely love/ acceptance dimension and a =.85 for factor 2 which is control dimension. The results showed that Cronbach alpha coefficient was .69 for overall scale.

2.2.6.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Turkish Version of the Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory (CRSI) - Mother Form

CFA applied to the Turkish Version of the Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory (CRSI) - Mother Form. The analysis indicated that the data did adequately fit the scale, suggesting a high adjustment between the scale and the data in terms of chi-square (x^2) statistics. Chi-square (x^2) is a badness of fit measure in the sense that while a small chi-square corresponds to good fit and a large chi-square to bad fit; a zero chi-square corresponds to almost perfect fit (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The results showed that the value of x^2 was 851.28, p<.05, which indicated almost perfect fit. Besides the x^2 values, its ratio to degrees of freedom was also calculated. The value of this ratio was x^2/df =851.28/204 = 4.17, which implied an "moderate fit" given that generally values less than 5 are expected to be adequate, according to Kline (1998). Kline (2005), states that in large samples a x^2/sd rate below 3 corresponds to perfect fit and below 5 means moderate fit.

Other important goodness of fit statistics that were calculated and their values are as follows: RMSEA = .08, CFI = .85, NFI = .81, NNFI =82. RMSEA confirmed the adequacy of the model fit since in order to provide a perfect fit, the value of RMSEA should ideally be less than .08 (Kline, 1998; Sümer, 2000; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007).

When the regression weights and factor score weights of the items are analysed individually, it is seen that all item paths are significantly loaded on factors. Therefore, it was decided that the scale will be analysed in its original form without omitting any item.

2.2.6.3. Reliability and Validity of Turkish Version of The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory (CRSI)-Father Form

To examine the construct validity and the factor structure of the scale, the items of CRSI- Father were subjected to exploratory factor analysis with maximum likelihood and Oblamin rotation. The KMO value is .91 and the Bartlett test of sphericity is significant. The factors were restricted to 2. The factors explained 50.38 % of the variance providing the best item loadings. The first factor explained 29.91 %. The second explained 20.47 % of the total variance. Eigenvalues associated with factors were 6.58 and 4.50. Factor loadings and communality values of each item are in Table 6 below.

Table 6.

Factor Loadings and Communalities of CRSI-Father Items

Item number	Factor 1	Factor 2	Communality
Father 1	**.74**	-.06	.55
Father 3	**.70**	.09	.53
Father 5	**.79**	.00	.65
Father 7	**.80**	-.08	.64
Father 9	**.64**	-.18	.42
Father 11	**.61**	-.31	.42
Father 13	**.57**	-.40	.42
Father 15	**.65**	-.09	.42
Father 17	**.49**	-.24	.21

Table 6 (continued)

Father 19	**.68**	.05	.48
Father 21	**.57**	-.48	.48
Father 2	-.02	**.73**	.54
Father 4	-.20	**.70**	.50
Father 6	-.11	**.72**	.52
Father 8	-.35	**.64**	.49
Father 10	-.26	**.66**	.47
Father 12	-.10	**.70**	.48
Father 14	-.11	**.58**	.34
Father 16	-.01	**.57**	.33
Father 18	-.08	**.64**	.42
Father 20	.16	**.48**	.29
Father 22	-.16	**.67**	.45

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

In order to provide evidence for the reliability of the scale, the internal consistency estimate for the CRSI- Father was computed using Cronbach alpha. It was revealed that the CRSI- Father had good internal consistency a =.89 for factor 1 which is love/ acceptance dimension and a =.88 for factor 2 which is control dimension. The results showed that Cronbach alpha coefficient was .78 for overall scale.

2.2.6.4. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of Turkish Version of The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory (CRSI)- Father Form

CFA applied to the Turkish Version of The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory (CRSI)- Father Form. Overall, the analysis indicated that the data did not adequately fit the scale, suggesting a high adjustment between the scale and the data in terms of chi-square (x^2) statistics. Chi-square (x^2) is a badness of fit measure in the sense that while a small chi-square corresponds to good fit and a large chi-square to bad fit; a zero chi-square corresponds to almost perfect fit (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The results showed that the value of x^2 was 785.02, p<.05, which indicated an adequate fit. Besides the x^2 values, its ratio to degrees of freedom was also calculated. The value of this ratio was $x^2/df = 785.02/202 = 3.89$, which implied an "adequate fit" given that generally values less than 5 are expected to be adequate, according to Kline (1998). Kline (2005), states that in large samples a x^2/sd rate below 3 corresponds to perfect fit and below 5 means moderate fit.

Other important goodness of fit statistics that were calculated and their values are as follows: RMSEA = .08, CFI = .88, NFI = .85, NNFI = 87. RMSEA confirmed the adequacy of the model fit since in order to provide a good fit, the value of RMSEA should ideally be less than .08 (Kline, 1998; Sümer, 2000; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007).

When the regression weights and factor loadings of the item paths are analysed individually, it is seen that all items are significant and have factor loadings over $\lambda = 01$. After the analyses made, it was decided that the scale be analysed in its original form

without omitting items as both factor weights and regression weights are appropriate.

2.3. Summary of Measurement Models

A two-stage analysis with Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (EFA and CFA) was performed on the items of the scales quantifying the both dependent and independent variables to formulate the hypothetical constructs served as confirmed latent variables in the structural models. Both EFA and CFA analyses were conducted by following the standard procedures. Factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed for each variable (dispositional hope, state hope, loneliness, attachment and child rearing styles for mother and father saperately). Items with cross loadings (loaded significantly more than one factor) were omitted from the factor structure to capture reliable latent variables (MacCallum & Austin, 2000).

Based on the factorial structures resulted from EFA, a series first order confirmatory factor analyses were carried out in row to investigate how well the indicators define the latent variable used in the further analyses. As a result item 4 of UCLA loneliness scale and items 9, 17, and 21 of ECR-R are omitted form the analysis

2.4. Data Collection Procedure

Initially, the necessary permission was taken from Middle East Technical University Ethics Committee. Data were collected by the researcher in a 6 week period during the 2011-2012 academic year spring semester. 600 booklets including demographics form and other measures of the study were given to each participant during regular classroom hours. The questionnaire was completed by volunteered students at the end of the regular class hours. The

students were told that they were free not to fill out the questionnaires and participate in the study. To ensure confidentiality and anonymity, the participants were not asked for any identifying information.

Although detailed instructions with regard to the scales were included in the questionnaire booklets, in order to answer any questions that would arise, the researcher was also present in each classroom where the data was collected to explain the instructions of the booklet. The questionnaires were administered in the following order: Demographics Information Form, The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory (CRSI), Experiences in Close Relationships-Revised Inventory (ECR-R), University of California Los Angeles (UCLA) Loneliness Scale, Dispositional Hope Scale (DHS), and State Hope Scale (SHS). It took the participants about 30 minutes to complete the questionnaire. After completion of the questionnaires, the participants were thanked for their participation.

2.5. Data Analysis

In the present study the main purpose is to examine the role of parenting styles, attachment dimensions and loneliness in predicting and explaining hope. Therefore the theoretical relationships among dependent, independent and mediating variables were investigated through path analysis by using AMOS 16.0 software program.

Structural Equation Analysis was used as the main analysis since the purpose of the study was "to test the plausibility of putative causal relationships between one variable and another in non-experimental conditions" (Jöreskog & Sorbom, 1996, p. 158). Several direct and indirect paths between hope and proposed variables were tested.

Consistent with the proposed theoretical model of the study, dispositional hope and state hope were endogenous variables where loneliness and attachment dimensions were intervening causal (mediator) variables; and parenting styles are exogenous variables.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

3.1. Preliminary Analyses

    3.1.1. Missing Value Analysis

Missing Value Analysis was conducted to find the patterns of missing data. Findings of univariate statistics indicate that missing value of all major variables more than 5 % was deleted. Among 560 participants, 550 subjects were left for analyses after this deletion. In order to prevent subject loss, cases with missing data less than 5% were replaced with the mean of the given variable. Separate variance t-tests performed to highlight the patterns of missing data. Results show no systematic relationship between missingness of variables. Analyses provide evidence that data are missing randomly.

    3.1.2. Test of Normality and Descriptive Statistics

Given that the statistical analyses that were employed in the current investigation rely on assumptions that variables have normal distributions, data were first assessed to determine the degree of distribution normality by using SPSS 15. More specifically, outliers were examined and indices of skewness and kurtosis for study variables were computed; outliers were detected and 40 cases were withdrawn. Data sets with absolute values of univariate skew indexes greater than 3.0 seem to be described as "extremely" skewed (Kline

1998) which means the data set is not appropriate for maximum likelihood estimation method. Even if the outliers were withdrawn, some of the study variables did not manifest normal distribution since none of the values deviated from 0 extremely. Table 7 displays the distribution values of variables.

Table 7.

Indices of Normality for Study Variables

Variable	Skewness	Kurtosis
Parenting Styles		
Father-Control	.48	.03
Mother-Control	.40	-.30
Father- Acceptance	-.52	.01
Mother- Acceptance	-.25	-.26
Attachment Dimensions		
Anxiety	-.11	-.38
Avoidance	-.20	-.00
Loneliness	1.26	1.03
Hope Dimensions		
Dispositional H-Pathway	-.92	.96
Dispositional H-Agency	-.51	.09
State H- Pathway	-.89	.46
State H-Agency	-.71	.26

As for the descriptive statistics, the means and standard deviations of the variables for the total sample were computed. These statistics are presented in Table 8 below.

Table 8.

Means and Standard Deviations for Study Variables

	M	SD
Hope Dimensions		
State H-Agency	9.05	2.01
State H-Pathway	10.06	1.73
Dispositional H-Agency	12.56	2.23
Dispositional H-Pathway	13.54	2.17
Parental styles		
Father-Control	28.50	9.28
Mother-Control	28.07	8.11
Father-Acceptance	37.58	8.84
Mother-Acceptance	42.87	7.15
Attachment Dimensions		
Avoidance	3.43	.94
Anxiety	3.92	1.00
Loneliness	63.61	7.75

3.1.3. Cluster Analysis of Parenting Dimensions

The cluster analysis was conducted in order to group the parenting styles of participants separately for mother and father depending on acceptance and control dimensions as offered in Baumrind's model (1965) and developed by Maccoby and Martin (1983). The analysis was run on 504 cases, each responding to items on The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory (CRSI), on two dimensions: acceptance/warmth and control. K-means clustering is used in the present study since it is suitable when the researcher already have hypotheses the number of clusters in cases or variables. Parenting styles (authoritative, neglectful, authoritarian, permissive/

indulgent) were constructed by crossing perceived parental acceptance/ involvement and strict control dimensions of parenting.

K-means cluster analysis produced four clusters, between which the variables were significantly different in the mean separately for mother and father. The first cluster, which is named as authoritarian parenting was predominant and characterized by both high values on love/acceptance and demandingness/control dimensions. On the other hand, the third cluster, which is named as rejecting parenting is characterized by low values for both love/acceptance and demandingness/control dimensions. The second cluster, which is named as permissive parenting is characterized by low control/demandingness dimension but high love/acceptance dimension. On the contrary, fourth cluster, which is named as authoritative parenting is characterized by low values on love/acceptance dimension but high values on control/demandingness dimension.

3.1.3.1. Parenting Categories for Mothers

The findings given in Table 9 below showed four significant categories depending on control/demandingness dimension ($F_{(3,500)}$ = 286.53; p =.00) and acceptance/responsiveness dimension ($F_{(3,500)}$ = 479.66; p = .00) of mother parenting. Authoritarian category consists of 88 (17.46 %) participants with M = 3.21 for acceptance/responsiveness dimension and M = 3.63 for control/demandingness dimension while authoritative category consists of 162 (32.14 %) participants with M = 4.24 for acceptance/responsiveness dimension and M = 2.83 for control/demandingness dimension. Moreover, permissive category consists of 154 (30.5 %) participants with M = 4.35 for

acceptance/responsiveness dimension and *M* = 1.82 for control/demandingness dimension while rejecting-neglecting category consists of 100 (19.84 %) participants with *M* = 3.25 for acceptance/responsiveness dimension and *M* = 2.28 for control/demandingness dimension.

Table 9.

Parenting categories for mother depending on mean scores

	Cluster			
	1 (Authoritarian)	2 (permissive)	3 (Rejecting-neglecting)	4 (authoritative)
MOTHER-acceptance	3.21	4.35	3.25	4.24
MOTHER-control	3.63	1.82	2.28	2.83

3.1.3.2. Parenting Categories for Fathers

The findings given in Table 10 below showed four significant categories depending on control/demandingness dimension (F (3,500) = 331.95; p = .00) and acceptance/responsiveness dimension (F (3,500) = 340.79; p = .00) of father parenting. Authoritarian category consists of 126 (25 %) participants with M = 2.41 for acceptance/responsiveness dimension and M = 3.83 for control/demandingness dimension while authoritative category consists of 60 (11.90 %) participants with M = 2.72 for acceptance/responsiveness dimension and M = 2.11 for control/demandingness dimension. Moreover, permissive category consists of 185 (36.71 %) participants with M = 4.12 for acceptance/responsiveness dimension and M = 2.03 for

control/demandingness dimension while rejecting-neglecting category consists of 133 (26.39 %) participants with M = 3.55 for acceptance/responsiveness dimension and M = 3.27 for control/demandingness dimension.

Table 10.

Parenting categories for father depending on means

	Cluster			
	1 (Authoritarian)	2 (permissive)	3 (Rejecting-neglecting)	4 (authoritative)
FATHER-acceptance	2.41	4.12	3.55	2.72
FATHER-control	3.83	2.03	3.27	2.11

3.1.4. Cluster Analysis of Attachment Dimensions

The cluster analysis was conducted in order to categorize the attachment dimensions depending on attachment theory. Anxiety attachment, avoidant attachment and secure attachment categories depending on mean scores are calculated for anxiety dimension $F_{(2, 501)}$ = 456.83; p =.00 and avoidance dimension $F_{(2,501)}$ = 338.83; p = .00. The results are given in Table 11 below.

Table 11.

Attachment categories of participants depend on ECR-R Scores

	Cluster		
	1 (Secure)	2 (Avoidant)	3 (Anxıety)
ATT-anxiety	1.83	2.61	6.17
ATT-avoidance	1.06	5.44	2.33

Results show that 172 (34.13 %) participants are in secure attachment category with M = 1.83 for anxiety dimension and M = 1.06 for avoidance dimension. On the other hand, 164 (32.54 %) participants are found in avoidance attachment category with M = 2.61 for anxiety dimension and M = 5.44 for avoidance dimension while 168 (33.3 %) participants found in anxiety attachment category with M = 6.17 for anxiety dimension and M = 2.33 for avoidance dimension.

3.1.5. Correlation Matrix of the Study Variables

In some studies sample correlation matrix or sample covariance matrix was provided whereas in some others the authors did not illustrate correlation or covariance matrix of their sample. However, McDonald and Ho (2002) suggested that availability of correlation matrix should be the general rule for the researchers as it can be informative to the reader. The correlation matrix showing the correlations among the research variables of the entire sample is presented in Table 12 below.

Table 12.

Intercorrelations among Study Variables for the Entire Sample

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1.UCLASUM	1												
2.STATESUM	-.39(**)	1											
3. DISPOSITIONLSUM	-.39(**)	.66(**)	1										
4.ANXIETY	.29(**)	-.26(**)	-.24(**)	1									
5.AVOIDANCE	.27(**)	-.31(**)	-.29(**)	.42(**)	1								
6.STTPTHWY	-.39(**)	.92(**)	.61(**)	-.27(**)	-.27(**)	1							
7.STTAGNTC	-.32(**)	.78(**)	.55(**)	-.20(**)	-.29(**)	.55(**)	1						
8.DSPSTNLAGNTC	-.30(**)	.50(**)	.88(**)	-.17(**)	-.23(**)	.41(**)	.52(**)	1					
9.DSPSTNLPTHWY	-.37(**)	.65(**)	.81(**)	-.25(**)	-.27(**)	.67(**)	.41(**)	.44(**)	1				
10.MTHRCNTRL	.27(**)	-.19(**)	-.11(**)	.29(**)	.09(*)	-.20(**)	-.12(**)	-.05	-.16(**)	1			
11.MTHRACCP	-.32(**)	.21(**)	.17(**)	-.13(**)	-.10(*)	.18(**)	.21(**)	.13(**)	.17(**)	-.33(**)	1		
12.FTHRACCP	-.26(**)	.20 (**)	.17(**)	-.17(**)	-.09(*)	.18(**)	.16(**)	.15(**)	.14(**)	-.14(**)	.42(**)	1	
13.FTHRCNTRL	.17(**)	-.09(*)	-.08	.19(**)	.05	-.09(*)	-.07	-.05	-.10(*)	.53(**)	-.16(**)	-.25(**)	1

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
Note. UCLASUM. UCLA Loneliness Scale. STATESUM. Turkish form of State Hope Scale. DISPOSITIONLSUM. Turkish form of Dispositional Hope Scale. ANXIETY. AVOIDANCE. STTPTHWY. STTAGNTC. DSPSTNLAGNTC. DSPSTNLPTHWY. MTHRCNTRL. The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory –Mother's control subscale MTHRACCP. The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory- Mother's acceptance subscale FTHRACCP. The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory Father's acceptance subscale FTHRCNTRL. The Measure of Child Rearing Styles Inventory- Mother's control subscale

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The correlation matrix helps to determine whether the relationship among the predictors, mediators and criterion variables conformed to expectations as well as to assess the presence of multicollinearity. As can be seen in the correlation matrices in Table 12 above, several patterns emerged. The correlations among major study variables were fairly high and significant. None of the partial correlation coefficients exceeded .50 except State and Dispositional hope variables, which are also not close to 1.00. Mostly significant and theoretically expected associations between the dependent variables and other study variables were encountered. The significant correlations among the variables except correlations among subscales were small to moderate in magnitude ranging from .10 to .70.

Inconsistent with expectations, state hope and dispositional hope dimensions are not related with father dimensions of parenting style, except dispositional hope pathway dimension and father parenting control dimension even if the correlation is very low. On the other hand, state hope dimensions and dispositional hope agentic thinking dimension are negatively related with mother parenting dimensions. However, no significant relationship was obtained between control dimension of perceived mother parenting style and agentic thinking dimension of dispositional hope. These results also indicated that there is moderate negative relationship between dimensions of hope and dimensions of attachment: avoidance and anxiety. Moreover, there is negative correlation between hope dimensions and loneliness.

In terms of relationships between mediators and the exogenous variables, the results revealed that while anxiety dimension of attachment is negatively related with parenting style dimensions of father; it is positively associated with the parenting

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style dimensions of mother In addition, avoidance dimension of attachment is positively associated with control dimension of mother parenting style and negatively associated with acceptance dimensions of both mother and father parenting style. On the other hand, avoidance dimension is not related with control dimension of father parenting style. Lastly, high loneliness is associated with high avoidance and high anxiety.

3.2. Structural Equation Modeling for Model Testing

In order to test the partially mediated model depicted in Figure 2, (see pp. 70) two separate recursive models were tested using AMOS 16.0 with maximum likelihood estimation. Structural equation modeling examines the whole model simultaneously by assessing both direct and indirect effects between the observable and latent variables.

As the model implies, whether the model accounted for the direct effect of loneliness on state hope and dispositional hope dimensions; direct effects of avoidance attachment and anxiety attachment on loneliness; and the direct effect of perceived parental style dimensions on attachment dimensions; the indirect effects of; perceived parenting style of mother, perceived parenting style of father on loneliness; indirect effects of perceived parenting style dimensions and attachment dimensions on state hope agentic thinking, state hope pathway thinking and dispositional hope agentic thinking, and dispositional hope pathway thinking were tested. This model is partially mediated since it includes direct paths from exogenous variables to the dependent variable, the mediated paths through the mediators.

The first path analysis was conducted with loneliness and attachment dimensions as mediators between hope and perceived parental styles. First, the proposed model was tested to see how well the data fitted the model that represented the aforementioned theory. Then, in order to simplify the hypothesized model, a revised model, after the insignificant paths were eliminated, was created, which was consequently tested by a second path analysis.

The path model summarized in Figure 2 (see pp. 70) was fit using AMOS 16.0. A set of criteria and standards for model fit were calculated to see if the proposed model fits the data. Specifically, chi-square (x^2), the ratio of chi-square to its degrees of freedom (x^2/df), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the comparative fit index (CFI), the normed fit index (NFI) and non-normed fit index (NNFI) were used as the criteria for model fit.

Due to the nature of x^2 statistics which incline to increase when the sample size increases especially over 200 cases (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996), the normed chi square adjusted according to degrees of freedom is a well-defined rule of thumb. The ratio between x^2/df should be 1 and 3 or less than 3 for a good fitting model (Carmines & McIver, 1981; Kline 1998). Klem (2000) suggested more flexible criteria for the ratio of x^2 to df, which the ratio value of less than 5 is considered as a satisfactory indicative for a good fit.

RMSEA which is based on the analysis of residuals was developed by Steiger (1990). RMSEA with smaller values indicating better fit to the data. It assesses the amount of model misfit, and values under .05 are considered to be indicative of very good fitting models (Fan & Wang, 1998). RMSEA is sensitive to the misspecification of the factor loadings; if both indices did indicate

good fit, the latent variables and measurement model would be considered well- specified (Linden et al., 2006). Similarly, Browne and Cudeck (1993) suggested that a value for the RMSEA of .05 or lower would indicate a good fit of the model and a value of about .08 or lower would indicate a reasonable error of approximation.

The comparative fit index (CFI, Bentler, 1990) compares the hypothesized model against an independence model and is ranged between 0 and 1. Values above .90 are generally indicators of good fitting models. Traditionally, values of .90 or greater are interpreted as evidence of models that "perfect fit".

The NFI developed by Bentler and Bonett (1980) assesses the estimated model by comparing the x^2 value of the model to the x^2 value of the independence model (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). That is to say, NFI reflects the proportion by which the researcher's model improves fit compared to the null model (random variables (Bentler & Bonett, 1980). NFI has a fit index between 0 and 1 range. High values (usually greater that .90) are valued as perfectly fitting model.

After assessing goodness-of-fit, individual paths were tested for significance. That is, for tests of the proposed relationships of variables, the emphasis was moved from model-data fit to inspection of specific parameter estimates and decomposition of the total effects for exogenous variables into direct and indirect effects. The model was tested using Maximum Likelihood estimation method. In addition to the goodness of fit statistics, the significance of the hypothesized paths in the model was taken into account regarding t-test results. The result indicated that all direct path coefficients from predictor variables to the criterion variables were not significant in the path diagram except five paths.

3.2.1. Results of the Fit Statistics

The aforementioned fit statistics obtained from the model are summarized in Table 13 below.

Table 13.

Summary of Goodness of Fit Statistics for the Proposed Model (N=504)

x^2	df	x^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	NNFI
11098.13	5624	1.97	.04	.77	.63	.77

Note. RMSE: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CFI: Comparative Fit Index; NFI: Bentler-Bonett Normed-Fit Index; NNFI: Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index

Overall, the analysis indicated that the data did not adequately fit the model, suggesting a high adjustment between the model and the data in terms of chi-square (x^2) statistics. Chi-square (x^2) is a badness of fit measure in the sense that while a small chi-square corresponds to good fit and a large chi-square to bad fit; a zero chi-square corresponds to almost perfect fit (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993). The results showed that the value of x^2 was 11098.13, p<.05, which indicated an adequate fit. Besides the x^2 values, its ratio to degrees of freedom was also calculated. The value of this ratio was x^2/df= 11098.13/5624 = 1.97 which implied a good fit given that generally values less than 5 are expected to be "adequate fit" and values less than 3 are expected to be "good fit" (Kline, 1998).

The other important goodness of fit statistics that were calculated and their values are as follows: RMSEA = .04, CFI = .77, NFI = .63, NNFI = .77. RMSEA confirmed the adequacy of the model

fit, since in order to provide a good fit, ideally the value of RMSEA should be less than .08 (Kline, 1998; Sümer, 2000; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006; Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007). In addition, NFI, which indicates the proportion in the improvement of the overall fit of the researcher's model relative to a null model shows that the present model is 63 % better than the null model estimated with the same sample data. Besides, CFI, which is interpreted in the same way as the NFI but may be less affected by sample size displays that the present model is 77 % better than the null model estimated with the same sample data. Lastly, NNFI equals to .77, showing the relative overall fit of the model is 77 % better than the null model estimated with the same sample data.

In general, some parts of the model "good fit" but some other parts of the model are "moderate fit" the data. Specifically, x^2/df and RMSEA values display very good fit but CFI, NFI and NNFI values are lower than .90, which are not favourable and indicate "moderate fit".

There are also some other reservations that should be taken into consideration. First, the values of fit indexes indicate only the overall or average fit of a model. Thus, it is possible that some parts of the model may poorly fit the data even if the value of the index seems favourable. Second, fit indexes do not indicate whether the results are theoretically meaningful. Moreover, there is no single answer to the question about what is good fit. Considering that the model fit is a multifaceted concept, it can be said that the model in question is "acceptable" in terms of x^2/df and RMSEA but not "good" fitted in terms of CFI, NFI and NNFI (Kline, 1998; Sümer, 2000; Hair et al., 2006; Tabachnick & Fidel, 2007).

3.2.2. Results of Individual Paths

In this section, the results of the individual paths and their significance are given separately. Most of the paths were significant except a few. The path model, with the beta weights (standard coefficients), which express the rate of the effect for each significant path is depicted in Figure 3 below with significant paths in bold arrows and non-significant paths in black.
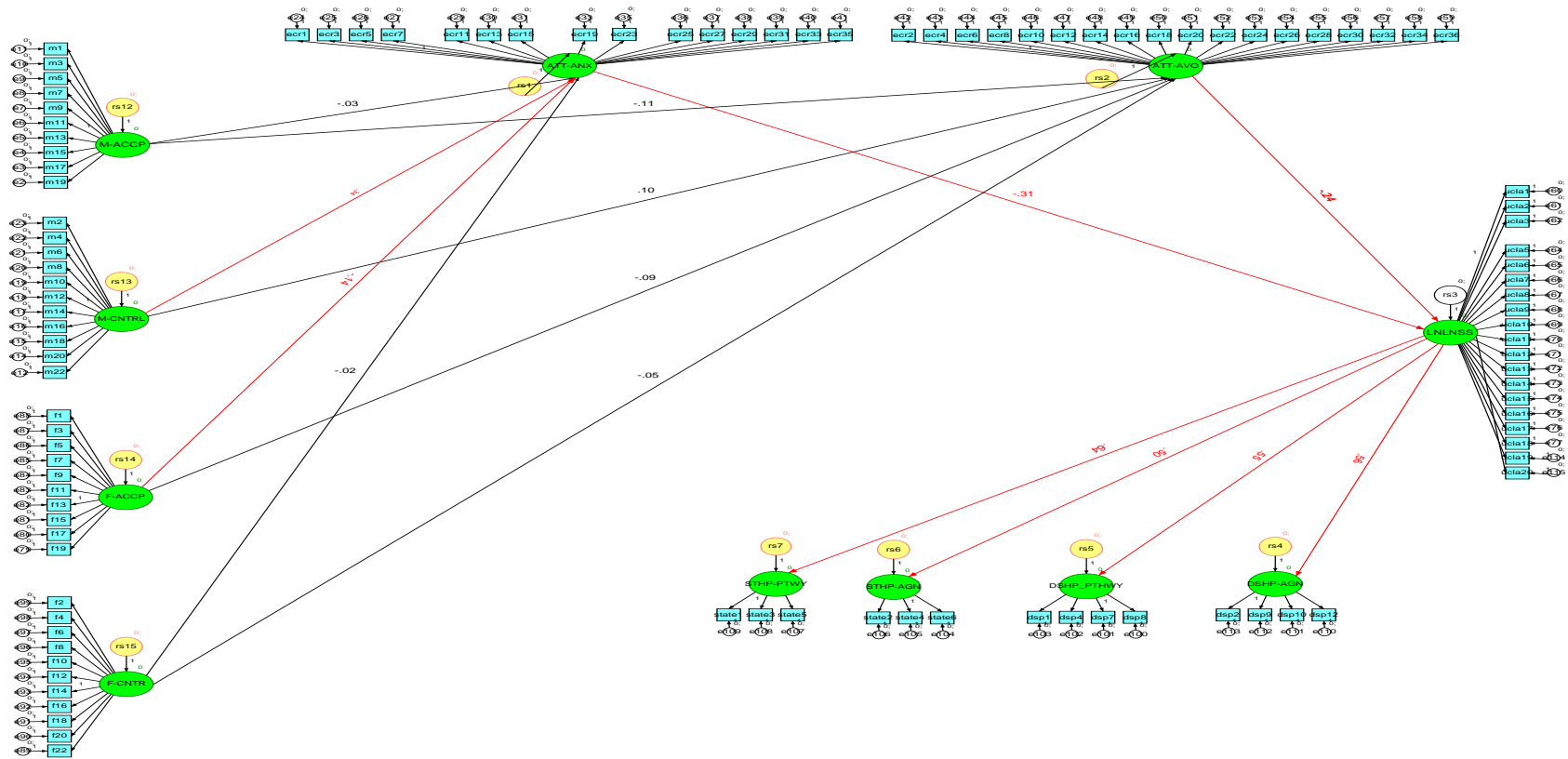
Figure 3. Path Coefficients for the Proposed Causal Model

In the figure above, the arrows are used to show the direction of causation and the number above the arrows are beta weights which show the strength of the causation. Path coefficients can be interpreted as standardized beta weights, each of which is estimated after all other paths' effects have been controlled for. Table 14 below summarizes the results of path analysis among the model's variables with direct effects of the causal variables.

Table 14.

Path Weights, Standard Errors, t, and p Values for Direct Paths for the Proposed Model

Path		Weight	SE	t	p
ATT-ANX	<---M-ACCP	-.04	.06	-.59	Ns
ATT-AVD	<---M-ACCP	-.13	.07	-1.68	Ns
ATT-ANX	<---M-CNTR	.33	.07	4.19	.01
ATT-AVD	<---M-CNTR	.09	.07	1.16	Ns
ATT-ANX	<---F-ACCP	-.13	.05	-2.63	.01
ATT-AVD	<---F-ACCP	-.09	.05	-1.60	Ns
ATT-ANX	<---F-CNTR	-.01	.05	-.25	Ns
ATT-AVD	<---F-CNTR	-.04	.06	-.71	Ns
LONELNSS	<---ATT-AVD	.14	.04	3.48	.01
LONELNSS	<---ATT-ANX	.19	.04	4.85	.01
STHP-PTHWY	<---LONELNSS	-.76	.09	-8.75	.01
STHP-AGN	<---LONELNSS	-.75	.09	-8.05	.01
DSHP_PTHWY	<---LONELNSS	-.74	.08	-9.05	.01
DSHP-AGN	<---LONELNSS	-.58	.08	-7.11	.01

Note. Ns= Non-significant

As can be seen in the regressions given in Table 15 below, loneliness explained 63 % of state pathway thinking dimension, and 50 % of state agentic thinking. Moreover, loneliness explained the 55 % of dispositional pathway thinking and 56 % of dispositional agentic thinking.

Table 15.

Squared Multiple Correlation Coefficients for the Proposed Causal Model

Path			R^2
ATT-ANX	<---	M-ACCP	-.03
ATT-AVD	<---	M-ACCP	-.11
ATT-ANX	<---	M-CNTR	.34
ATT-AVD	<---	M-CNTR	.10
ATT-ANX	<---	F-ACCP	-.14
ATT-AVD	<---	F-ACCP	-.10
ATT-ANX	<---	F-CNTR	-.01
ATT-AVD	<---	F-CNTR	-.05
LONELNSS	<---	ATT-AVD	.23
LONELNSS	<---	ATT-ANX	-,33
STHP-PTHWY	<---	LONELNSS	-.63
STHP-AGN	<---	LONELNSS	-.50
DSHP_PTHWY	<---	LONELNSS	-.55
DSHP-AGN	<---	LONELNSS	-.56

On the other hand, loneliness is predicted by avoidance and anxiety attachment. Avoidance attachment explained 23 % and anxiety attachment explained the 33 % of the variance.

Finally, love/acceptance dimension of perceived maternal parenting explained 11 % of avoidance attachment and Control dimension of perceived maternal parenting explained the 34 % of anxiety attachment. On the other hand, love/acceptance dimension of perceived parental parenting explained 14 % of anxiety and 11 % of avoidance but control dimension of perceived parental parenting does not predict any variable.

3.3. The Revised Model

Based on the findings of the first model presented in the previous section, the paths that were found to be non-significant were trimmed and a revised model was formed. The paths which were deleted were paths from perceived parenting style of fathers control dimension to anxiety attachment and avoidance attachment, the path from perceived parenting style of mother love dimension to avoidance attachment, paths from perceived parenting style of mother love dimension to anxiety and avoidance attachment, and the path from perceived parenting style of mother control dimension to avoidance attachment. Path coefficients for the paths of the revised model are presented in Figure 4 below.
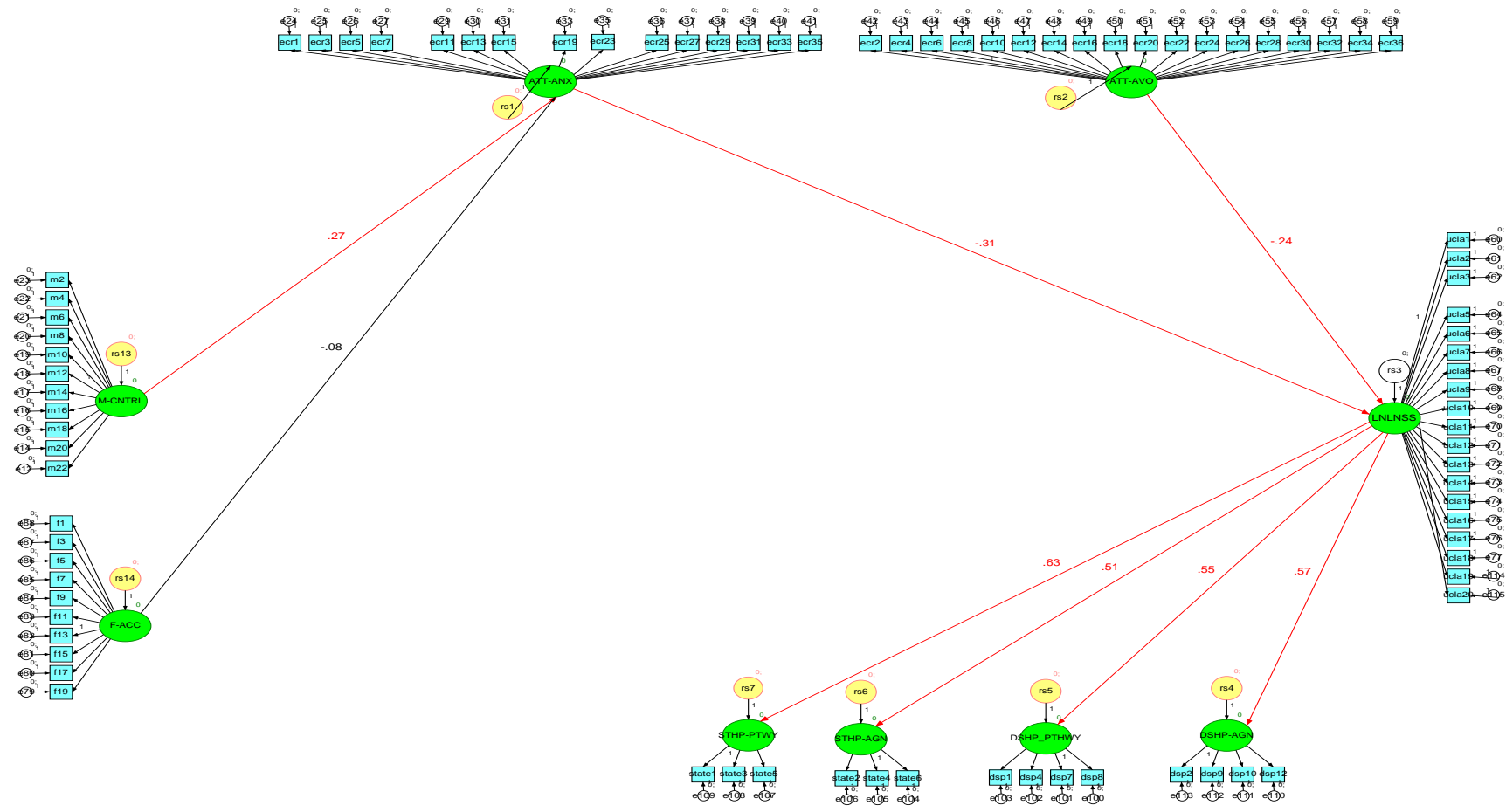
Figure 4. Path Coefficients for the Revised Causal Model

The same fit statistics, namely, chi-square, the ratio of chi-square to its degrees of freedom, root mean square error of approximation, comparative fit index, Bentler-Bonett Normed-Fit index, and Bentler-Bonett non-normed fit index were calculated for the revised model as well. The summary of these fit statistics is displayed in Table 16 below.

Table 16.

Summary of Goodness of Fit Statistics for the Proposed Model (N = 504)

x^2	*df*	x^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	NFI	NNFI
7000.55	3609	1.94	.04	.81	.68	.81

Note. RMSE: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; CFI: Comparative Fit Index; NFI: Bentler-Bonett Normed-Fit Index; NNFI: Bentler-Bonett Non-Normed Fit Index

Table 16 suggests that the fit indices of the revised model were almost the same as the ones of the proposed model. As Table 16 suggests, the results showed that the value of x^2 = 7000.55, p<.05. The ratio of x^2 to degrees of freedom was x^2/df = 7000.55/3609 = 1.94, which indicated a good fit. The value of RMSEA = .04, p<.05, which displays a "perfect" fit. On the other hand, CFI =.81; NFI = .68; NNFI = .81 are lower than the .90 and indicate a "moderate" fit –even if they are slightly higher than the values of model 1-. As a result, it can be said that both of the models display "acceptable" fit in terms of indices reported in the study.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

4.1. Discussion

The purpose of the present study was to examine the predictors of hope within a developmental framework in Turkish university students. Specifically, the current study investigated developmental and emotional predictors of hope; and how a combination of these variables operated to lead to the experience of hope in Turkish university students. Using a broad developmental framework, a meditational model was tested in which perceived parenting styles were proposed to interact with attachment dimensions and loneliness to predicted hope. The proposed model was tested by using SEM analysis and as the results summarized in the previous section revealed, several patterns emerged. This section is devoted to a general discussion regarding the findings obtained from the present study.

4.1.1. Discussion Regarding the Relationships among Endogenous Variables

According to the findings, first, it was found that loneliness is a significant direct predictor of both state hope and dispositional hope dimensions. As expected, high loneliness resulted in decreased hope. In other words, as loneliness level decreases, pathway and

agentic thinking increase for both state hope and dispositional hope. In addition, it was found that loneliness was predicted by attachment dimensions. Thus, the effect of attachment was found to be mediated by loneliness.

Another important tenet of hope theory is that hope is associated with greater psychological functioning. The finding of the present study regarding the role of loneliness in hope is congruent with Snyder's indication. Snyder (1999) indicated that loneliness is forewarn the low-hope person because lonely people are found to perceive themselves in a negative and self-depreciating manner. Consistent with this view, several studies have shown that hope in adults is negatively associated with a host of negative affective conditions, including depressive symptoms (Chang, 2003; Chang & De Simone, 2003).

Moreover, Snyder found that low-hope people have a fear of interpersonal closeness (Snyder et al., 1999) while, on the other hand, high-hopers are interested in their own goals, but also they see the goals of other people as important (Snyder, 2005). Thus, consistent with Snyder's (1994; 2002) theory, recent findings indicated that hope is a variable associated with important indices of behaviour and psychological functioning in adults as well as loneliness (e.g. Türkmen & Demirli, 2011).

4.1.2. Discussion Regarding the Relationships among Parenting Styles and Attachment Dimensions

Another finding obtained from the study regards the role of parenting styles and attachment dimensions. Different from most of the literature (de Minzi, 2006; DeLamater & McCorquodale, 1979; Sirvanlı-Özen, 2003), parenting styles do not significantly predict

attachment dimensions except control dimension of parenting style of mother and acceptance dimension of parenting style of father. These dimensions predicted anxiety attachment significantly.

Moreover, authoritative parenting style was the most frequent parenting style of mother, followed by permissive, neglecting and lastly authoritarian styles. The most frequent parenting style of father was permissive style, followed by neglecting, authoritarian and lastly authoritative parenting styles.

Parenting style labels which provide an important framework for a constellation of parenting behaviours and childrearing goals have been primarily characterized as consisting of varies combinations of warmth, demandingness, and autonomy granting. However, although the styles are conceptually built on these three dimensions, only two dimensions, which are warmth and demandingness are typically measured. The results of this study showed that, for both mother and father, permissive parenting is widespread while authoritative parenting of mother is more frequent than that of father. Moreover, participants indicated that they perceive nearly a quarter of their parents are showing neglected style of parenting. The proportions of parenting styles are different from foreign literature (Baumrind, 1991; Leman, 2005). It is assumed that this difference is because of people's perceptions about their parents child-rearing practices, which are also depend on cultural values.

Even if there are cultural differences, contemporary and classic works maintain that parents in all cultures are the primary agents of socialization, responsible for the transmission of cultural values and norms required for the attainment of cultural standards (Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Coplan, Hastings, Lagace-Seguin, &

Moulton, 2009). Moreover, there is a considerable agreement in the literature that Baumrind's parenting styles describe the range of parent child-rearing that is associated with differences in developmental outcomes in countries (Baumrind, 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983). On the other hand, there is a disagreement with respect to the applicability of Baumrind's parenting models to cultures that are described as individualistic or collectivist. Rudy and Grusec (2001) explain that in cultures described as collectivist in orientation, authoritarian parents who may be restrictive or demand obedience without question or democratic give and take may not be rejecting and lacking in warmth and unlikely to attribute negative disposition to children for their misbehaviour. Present study is conducted in neither collectivist nor individual culture. In spite of the shift toward more individual culture collectivist cultural values such as traditional family relations, close group ties, accountability, loyalty and interdependence (Okman-Fişek, 1982) remain highly valued. Moreover, authoritarian family structure and collectivism remained principle characteristics of Turkish society rather than independence and individualism. Intergenerational interdependence is important in traditional families autonomy is often perceived as a threat to family bond and continuity. Most families are structurally nuclear, but many function as an extended family by interacting as a large net of kin, such as grandparents, aunts, uncles and cousins. Extended family structures pose advantages and well as disadvantages which will discussed in terms of barriers to effective counseling

Although there is a substantial body of literature addressing parenting styles, there are significant limitations when attempting to understand parenting in Turkish families. The first of these limitations is that the vast majority of studies base their findings on

parenting styles that were conceptualized using majority White, middle class Western families' values, cultural norms, and parental expectancies (Sorkhabi, 2005). Inferences made regarding child outcomes are based on parenting styles which may or may not apply to all segments of more collectivist or transition cultures (Sorkhabi, 2005) as Turkish culture. Until the 1950s, Turkish families were exited as extended and complex goups of related members and included grandparents, aunts, uncles, and their children. Since the 1950's this extended family structure has been slowly changing as the result of industrialization, urbanization and immigration (Mocan-Aydın, 2000). This change to a more western style and nuclear pattern has been most evident in the west of Turkey while in the east and southeast the traditional extended family patterns are more common.

Another limitation of the parenting styles literature is the difference in the relation of parenting styles with attachments of participants. The findings of the present study revealed that perceived parenting of mother is more effective on attachment dimensions than perceived parenting of father. More generally, the control dimension of mother moderately and father very slightly predict the anxiety dimension of attachment. On the other hand, neither mother nor father is predicting the avoidance dimension of attachment.

Even though the attachment theory states that early attachment relationships with caregivers help form cognitive frameworks called internal working models that affect individuals' expectations for security and support in future relationships (Bowlby, 1969; Klohnen & John, 1998), as children venture into the world, such as when transitioning to university, Goldberg, 2000; Kenny and

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Rice (1995) assert that children still rely on family for support, but social and romantic relationships become more salient. However, the findings of the present study does not support that perceived parenting meanly relationship with caregivers determine the attachments of young adults. Moreover, present study also does not support literature indicating that relationships with parents predict future cognitive frameworks and relationship patterns.

4.1.3. Discussion Regarding the Relationships among Attachment Dimensions and Loneliness

The relationship between attachment dimensions and loneliness was also of great interest for the present study. Besides psychological distress factors, attachment anxiety and avoidance are also shown to be positively related to interpersonal difficulties (e.g., Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Horowitz, Rosenberg, & Bartholomew, 1993), and increased feelings of loneliness (e.g., Hecht & Baum, 1984; Kobak & Sceery, 1988; Shaver & Hazan, 1989; Wei, Vogel, Ku, & Zakalik, 2005). Consistent with the literature, the results of the present study also showed that anxiety attachment and avoidance attachment predict loneliness positively. In other words, more anxiety or avoidant attached people feel more loneliness than securely attached ones.

Trust, which is part of basic mental representations, promotes self-disclosure, development of intimacy and open communication (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). The attachment system develops on the basis of repeated interactions with caregiver. With these interactions, infants learn what to expect, and they adjust their behaviour accordingly. Moreover, in adulthood a relationship is satisfying to the extent that it meets basic needs, such as trust. At any age,

attachment quality turns in large part to find an answer to the "Can I trust my partner to be available and responsive to my needs?" question. These expectations developed in childhood form the basis of mental representations which are model of self and model of others that can be used to forecast caregiver availability in childhood other relationships in adulthood (Hazan & Shaver, 1994). On the other hand, the study of Neal and Frick-Horbury (2001) which was examined the effects of parenting styles on a person's perception of their own relationship qualities and their perception of how other people relate them interpersonally stated that while 92% of those participants that are securely attached have authoritative parents, only 70% of the total number of authoritative participants are securely attached. Moreover, it is stated that attachment is the decisive factor in formulating the internal working model and although parenting styles seem to parallel attachment styles, they, in fact, do not. This finding is similar with present study which indicates very low correlation among parenting styles and attachment dimensions.

Mental representations developed in childhood are model of self and model of others (Hazan & Shaver, 1994) which are also characterizes the attachment dimensions. Model of self reflects the degree to which individuals feel a sense of self-worth and competence in relationships, and model of others reflects the degree to which individuals feel that relationships with others are positive experiences and actively seek them out (Bartholomew, 1990). Given that an individual's attachment style is related to positive or negative expectations for future relationships, discrepancies between what is expected and what is experienced in relationships may lead to greater loneliness. Consistent with present study's findings, studies using

unidimensional measures of loneliness have consistently shown that attachment security in adulthood is associated with lower levels of loneliness (e.g., Kafetsios & Sideridis, 2006; Larose, Guay, & Boivin, 2002).

4.1.4. General Discussion

As a general discussion, it can be argued that the present study highlighted important aspects of hope as experienced by Turkish university students. Within a developmental framework, several predictors of hope as well as their structural relationships were revealed. The present study also showed that both traits and feelings play important roles in the development and experience of hope.

The current findings support previous theoretical propositions that a secure attachment to a development of lower levels of loneliness contributes to a person's hopeful goal directed thinking (Snyder, 1994; Shorey, 2003). Shorey et al. (2003) employed structural equation modelling to examine the relationship between parenting, adult attachment, hope, and mental health. The latent construct of adult attachment, as measured by the anxiety, avoidance, and security subscales of the Attachment Style Questionnaire fully mediated the relationship between mothers' and fathers' parenting styles and the latent variable of hope, as measured by The Hope Scale (Snyder, 1995) which has subscales of agency and pathways. Hope, similar with present study, partially mediated the relationship between adult attachments. Moreover, Jankowski and Sandage (2011) stated that adult attachment have a mediating effect on the relationship between meditative prayer and interpersonal forgiveness.

On the other hand, findings do not fully support the previous propositions that securely attached adults are predicted by supportive and responsive parent facilitates. However our findings the contentions that the development of secure attachment and of hope begins with mothers (Bowlby, 1982; Snyder, 1994). In this regard, our data suggest that fathers do not have influence primarily through attachment of individuals. Although a significant effect was found between fathers' parenting and hope, the small size of this effect precludes from speculating about the nature of this relationship. Because of the moderate relationship between mothers' parenting and attachment, it can be concluded that parenting exerts its influence in loneliness and hope primarily through attachment processes.

In addition, as noted before, the extent to which the combination of various developmental variables predicts hope has been a neglected area since few attempts have been made to achieve this (e.g. Shorey et al., 2002). The findings of this study partially filled this gap by revealing not only the relation of loneliness with hope, but also the developmental relation of parenting styles, attachment dimensions and loneliness.

4.2. Implications of the Findings and Recommendations for Further Research

4.2.1. Implications

Findings from the present study can provide valuable information regarding the acknowledged links between hope and several predictors. The information can especially be useful in terms of counselling practices, in that counselors and other practitioners

may use this research to guide their work with low-hope university students.

Many findings state that hope is related to better psychological adjustment (e.g. Shorey et al., 2002). Snyder (2002) proposed that hope theory might be applicable on a larger scale to reduce risk and inoculate segments of society against despair. As such, the finding that there are variables such as attachment and loneliness mediating the relationships between parenting and hope outcomes should be very encouraging for counsellors who are striving to develop interventions at-risk youth. On this issue, the present model suggests a tripartite approach that targets parenting, attachment styles and loneliness.

Interventions could be developed, guided by Baumrind's (1991) conceptualizing of parenting as reflecting dimensions of demandingness and responsiveness, for parents who are sufficiently motivated to improve their parenting skills for the sake of their children. In this regard, especially for fathers, positive movement along either of the two dimensions should result in benefits for children.

Unfortunately, because of the nature of fatherhood, children who need help the most are least likely to have fathers who are able or willing to provide it. Therefore, community or school based interventions should be developed to reach young people directly. After parenting, therefore, the next logical target for intervention would be the young person's attachment style. In this regard, research indicates that attachment styles can be reconfigured through relationships with significant others in adulthood (Travis, Bliwise, Binder, & Horne- Moyer, 2001).

Although interventions aimed at building more secure styles may share common processes, those with anxious versus avoidant styles may benefit differentially from similar treatments. Those with anxious styles may have negative models of self and others, and may crave close interpersonal contact but cannot build any. Those with avoidant styles may have negative models of others but positive models of themselves, and may avoid closeness with others either out of a self-assured disavowal of personal need or out of fear of rejection (Bartholomew & Horowits, 1991). As such, anxiously attached youth may benefit from consistency, responsiveness and firm boundaries as well as by learning ways to tolerate and contain their own stress. For avoidant youth, demonstrating warmth and empathy and reinforcing behavior that promotes social interaction may be crucial.

At the individual level, although attachment style may not be changeable, clinicians can work with those who have insecure attachment styles to change the cognitive manifestations of these styles by increasing self-efficacy beliefs and redirecting maladaptive cognitions about relationships with others. Universities also can contribute to this by establishing programs to decrease loneliness levels of students (Bernardon, Babb, Hakim-Larson, & Gragg, 2011).

To reduce loneliness levels, professionals working with families can educate them on the importance of family interactions, such as fostering family traditions (e.g., Bland & Darlington, 2002), and the importance of maintaining a supportive family environment. Moreover, campus outreach programs may need to encourage both face-to-face student interactions through social gatherings, as well as make use of online social networking, which is emerging as a way for students to engage in informal interactions (e.g., Madge, Meek, Wellens, & Hooley, 2009).

The point of delivery for assessment and intervention would most likely be a school guidance counsellor or school psychologist. In addition, providing at-risk youth with stable, supportive, and responsive adult relationships could ameliorate negative outcomes. Moreover, in contrast to attachment interventions, which are more individually tailored and clinically oriented, hope interventions easily lend themselves to group applications in the school classroom or in the local community center (Cheavens et al., 2001; Snyder, Lopez, Shorey, Rand, & Feldman, 2003; Snyder & Shorey, 2002). These interventions all share a focus on developing goals, instilling the belief that those goals can be achieved (agency), and teaching specific strategies by which goals can be met (pathways).

Although students who have the lowest levels of hope are most at risk and are likely to benefit the most from hope interventions, all students could benefit and rise their levels of hope by participating in targeted hope programs at school. Yet, because they are more likely to be lonely and insecurely attached, it is suggested that low-hope students will benefit most from positive school interactions that are part of these programs.

4.2.2. Recommendations

Considering the lack of systemic studies, hope research in Turkey is unfortunately a neglected topic in need of urgent attention and effort in terms of thorough investigation. It is believed that the present study is a preliminary one with an attempt to investigate hope within a broad theoretical framework. Based on the present study, following are some recommendations for future research.

This study was an attempt to test some developmental concepts of hope. There is no doubt that factors that may influence

development of hope of individuals are not restricted to the ones that have been conceptualized and investigated in the present study. The flexibility of the developmental approach provides researchers with the opportunity to examine many situational and dispositional factors, which may account for the differences in the development and experience of hope. Although the variances of hope, loneliness, attachment dimensions and perceived parenting were not small, the rest could be explained by several other factors such as perceived social support (Bernardon, Babb, Hakim-Larson, & Gragg, 2011), shyness, and positive and negative affect (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988), or social factors such as interaction with peers. For example, Larose and colleagues (2002) found that less emotional support seeking was associated with higher levels of loneliness, independent of attachment style differences. Therefore, future studies may include these variables to understand their role in hope and related variables. This can also be achieved by discriminating other concepts such as optimism, self-efficacy, self-esteem and problem solving nested with hope.

Furthermore, assessment with regard to hope and its varying forms is a critical but a controversial issue. The debates and problems around measurement of hope arise from the conceptual difficulties given that it is not very clear what components exactly constitute hope and to what extent hope and other similar constructs coincide or separate. In the present study, both a measure assessing the overall level of dispositional hope and another measure assessing the short-term hope were used. However, the extent to which these factors are related to the dimensions of hope such as false goal, stress level and optimism cannot be ascertained from the findings of this study.

Besides, the present study was a non-experimental study in which all assessments were based on self-report measures and no manipulations were made. It is actually very difficult to test all aspects of hope with non-experimental studies. Moreover, the present study assessed the parental attitudes in terms of two aforementioned dimensions. On the other hand, these two dimensions of parental dimensions are usually used to identify different parenting styles by crossing.

Another recommendation could be with regard to the sample; in that the participants of the present study consisted of undergraduate university students from a competitive city university, and thus findings can be generalized only to the similar populations. In the future, the experience of hope and its predictors should be examined in varying populations such as different age and SES populations from different segments of the society so that comparisons and contrasts can be made between various samples.

Moreover, in order to see the effectiveness of implications, studies suggesting hope intervention programs need to be conducted as well as the ones in which these programs are actually implemented with the samples these programs are designed for. However, these studies should be based on several empirical research findings given that it is not recommended that an intervention model is borrowed and applied in their cultural contexts without any modifications. Thus, it is necessary for researchers in our culture to conduct more research with regard to hope in terms of theoretical and developmental perspectives that may display different aspects of hope.

Lastly, it is believed that not only hope but also parenting, attachment and loneliness research necessitates an effort to work with various disciplines as well as different perspectives from counseling psychology. It would be the most effective when concepts and methods from social, development, and clinical psychology are borrowed and used in an integrated fashion. Moreover, considering the interpersonal, social and culturally bounded nature of concepts; methods and notions of sociology, and cultural anthropology may be of relevance and importance to the topic.

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APPENDICES

A. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET (in Turkish)

Sevgili Öğrenci;

Üniversite öğrencilerinin umut ve yalnızlık düzeylerini etkileyen bazı değişkenlerin araştırıldığı bu çalışmada, bilgi edinmeyi amaçlayan kişisel bilgi formu ve ölçekler yer almaktadır. **Sorulara eksiksiz ve içten yanıtlar vermeniz araştırmanın amacına ulaşabilmesini sağlayacaktır.** Araştırmada sonuçlara gruplar halinde bakılacağından, kimliğinizle ilgili herhangi bir bilgi gerekmemektedir. Araştırmada elde edilen bilgiler tamamen gizli kalacaktır. **Katkılarınızdan dolayı şimdiden teşekkür ederim.**

Arş. Gör. Aylin DEMİRLİ

KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU

1. Cinsiyetiniz : ( ) Kadın ( ) Erkek   **2. Yaşınız:**………………..

3. Bölümünüz:…………………………….… **4. Sınıfınız:** ( )1 ( )2 ( )3 ( )4

5. Tahmini Genel Not Ortalamanız (rakam olarak): …………………..

6. Şu anda yaşadığınız yer: ( ) Ailem ( ) Akraba Yanı

( ) Evde- Tek Başına   ( ) Evde- Arkadaşla   ( ) Yurt

7. Anne-babanız birliktelik durumu:

( ) Beraber   ( ) Annemi Kaybettim ( ) Annem Yeniden Evlendi

( ) Evli-Ayrı Yaşıyor ( ) Babamı Kaybettim ( ) Babam Yeniden Evlendi

( ) Boşandı   ( ) Diğer…………………..

8. Kaç kardeşsiniz? ....

9. Anne ve babanızın eğitim durumu: *(tek seçenek işaretleyiniz)*

Anne:

( ) Okuma yazma bilmiyor

( ) İlkokul mezunu

( ) Ortaokul mezunu

( ) Lise mezunu

( ) Yüksekokul mezunu

( ) Üniversite mezunu

Baba:

( ) Okuma yazma bilmiyor

( ) İlkokul mezunu

( ) Ortaokul mezunu

( ) Lise mezunu

( ) Yüksekokul mezunu

( ) Üniversite mezunu

10. Sevgiliniz oldu mu?   ( ) Hiç Olmadı   (................) Tane Oldu.

11. En uzun ilişkiniz ne kadar sürdü?........................... **En kısa ilişkiniz ne kadar sürdü?**......................................

12. Sosyal ilişkilerinizde kendinizi nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?

( ) Çok Kötü   ( ) Kötü   ( ) Orta   ( ) İyi   ( ) Çok İyi

13. Karşı cinsle olan romantik ilişkilerinizde kendinizi nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?

( ) Çok Kötü   ( ) Kötü   ( ) Orta   ( ) İyi   ( ) Çok İyi

14. Okulda veya çalıştığınız yerde öğretmenlerinizle veya amirlerinizle olan ilişkilerde kendinizi nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?

( ) Çok Kötü   ( ) Kötü   ( ) Orta   ( ) İyi   ( ) Çok İyi

15. Ailenizle olan ilişkilerde kendinizi nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?

( ) Çok Kötü   ( ) Kötü   ( ) Orta   ( ) İyi   ( ) Çok İyi

B. DISPOSITIONAL HOPE SCALE (DHS) (in Turkish)

Aşağıda verilen ifadelerle ilgili, **genel olarak**, sizi **en iyi tanımlayan** rakamı daire içine alınız.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Sıkıntılı bir durumdan kurtulmak için pek çok yol düşünebilirim.	1	2	3	4
2. Enerjik bir biçimde amaçlarıma ulaşmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4
3. Çoğu zaman kendimi yorgun hissederim.	1	2	3	4
4. Herhangi bir problemin birçok çözüm yolu vardır.	1	2	3	4
5. Tartışmalarda kolayca yenik düşerim.	1	2	3	4
6. Sağlığım için endişeliyim.	1	2	3	4
7. Benim için çok önemli şeylere ulaşmak için pek çok yol düşünebilirim.	1	2	3	4
8. Başkalarının pes ettiği durumlarda bile, sorunu çözecek bir yol bulabileceğimi bilirim.	1	2	3	4
9. Geçmiş yaşantılarım beni geleceğe en iyi biçimde hazırladı.	1	2	3	4
10. Hayatta oldukça başarılı olmuşumdur.	1	2	3	4
11. Genellikle endişelenecek bir şeyler bulurum.	1	2	3	4
12. Kendim için koyduğum hedeflere ulaşırım.	1	2	3	4

C. STATE HOPE SCALE (SHS) (in Turkish)

Kendinizi **şu anda** nasıl hissettiğinizi **en iyi tanımlayan** rakamı daire içine alınız. Lütfen **şu andaki** yaşamınıza odaklanınız.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Kendimi bir çıkmazda bulursam, kurtulmak için çeşitli yöntemler düşünebilirim.	1	2	3	4
2. Şu anda, hevesle hedeflerime ulaşmaya çalışıyorum.	1	2	3	4
3. Şu anda karşılaştığım sorunlardan kurtulmanın pek çok yolu var.	1	2	3	4
4. Şu anda kendimi oldukça başarılı görüyorum.	1	2	3	4
5. Şu andaki hedeflerime ulaşmak için pek çok yol düşünebilirim.	1	2	3	4
6. Şu anda kendi belirlediğim hedeflerime ulaşıyorum.	1	2	3	4

D.   EXPERIENCES   IN   CLOSE   RELATIONSHIPS   INVENTORY-
REVİSED (in Turkish)

Aşağıdaki maddeler romantik ilişkilerinizde hissettiğiniz duygularla ilgilidir. Bu araştırmada sizin ilişkinizde **yalnızca şu anda değil, genel olarak neler olduğuyla ya da neler yaşadığınızla ilgilenmekteyiz.** Maddelerde sözü geçen "birlikte olduğum kişi" ifadesi ile romantik ilişkide bulunduğunuz kişi kastedilmektedir. Eğer hâlihazırda bir romantik ilişki içerisinde değilseniz, aşağıdaki maddeleri bir ilişki içinde olduğunuzu varsayarak cevaplandırınız. Her bir maddenin ilişkilerinizdeki duygu ve düşüncelerinizi ne oranda yansıttığını karşılarındaki 7 Aralıklı ölçek üzerinde, ilgili rakam üzerine çarpı (X) koyarak gösteriniz.

	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Genelde Katılmıyorum	Kısmen Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım/ Fikrim Yok	Kısmen Katılıyorum	Genelde Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Birlikte olduğum kişinin sevgisini kaybetmekten korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Gerçekte ne hissettiğimi birlikte olduğum kişiye göstermemeyi tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Sıklıkla, birlikte olduğum kişinin artık benimle olmak istemeyeceği korkusuna kapılırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Özel duygu ve düşüncelerimi birlikte olduğum kişiyle paylaşmak konusunda kendimi rahat hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Sıklıkla, birlikte olduğum kişinin beni gerçekten sevmediği kaygısına kapılırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere güvenip inanmak konusunda kendimi rahat bırakmakta zorlanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

7. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilerin beni, benim onları önemsediğim kadar önemsemeyeceklerinden endişe duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere yakın olma konusunda çok rahatımdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Sıklıkla, birlikte olduğum kişinin bana duyduğu hislerin benim ona duyduğum hisler kadar güçlü olmasını isterim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere açılma konusunda kendimi rahat hissetmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.İlişkilerimi kafama çok takarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere fazla yakın olmamayı tercih ederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.Benden uzakta olduğunda, birlikte olduğum kişinin başka birine ilgi duyabileceği korkusuna kapılırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişi benimle çok yakın olmak istediğinde rahatsızlık duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere duygularımı gösterdiğimde, onların benim için aynı şeyleri hissetmeyeceğinden korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.Birlikte olduğum kişiyle kolayca yakınlaşabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.Birlikte olduğum kişinin beni terk edeceğinden pek endişe duymam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.Birlikte olduğum kişiyle yakınlaşmak bana zor gelmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişi kendimden şüphe etmeme neden olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.Genellikle, birlikte olduğum kişiyle sorunlarımı ve kaygılarımı tartışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.Terk edilmekten pek korkmam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

22.Zor zamanlarımda, romantik ilişkide olduğum kişiden yardım istemek bana iyi gelir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.Birlikte olduğum kişinin, bana benim istediğim kadar yakınlaşmak istemediğini düşünürüm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.Birlikte olduğum kişiye hemen hemen her şeyi anlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişiler bazen bana olan duygularını sebepsiz yere değiştirirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26.Başımdan geçenleri birlikte olduğum kişiyle konuşurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27.Çok yakın olma arzum bazen insanları korkutup uzaklaştırır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28.Birlikte olduğum kişiler benimle çok yakınlaştığında gergin hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29.Romantik ilişkide olduğum bir kişi beni yakından tanıdıkça, "gerçek ben "den hoşlanmayacağından korkarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30.Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere güvenip inanma konusunda rahatımdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31.Birlikte olduğum kişiden ihtiyaç duyduğum şefkat ve desteği görememek beni öfkelendirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32.Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişiye güvenip inanmak benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33.Başka insanlara denk olamamaktan endişe duyarım	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34.Birlikte olduğum kişiye şefkat göstermek benim için kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35.Birlikte olduğum kişi beni sadece kızgın olduğumda önemser.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36.Birlikte olduğum kişi beni ve ihtiyaçlarımı gerçekten anlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

E. UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA LOS ANGLES (UCLA) LONELİNESS SCALE (in Turkish)

Aşağıda çeşitli duygu ve düşünceleri içeren ifadeler verilmektedir. Sizden istenilen her ifade de tanımlanan duygu ve düşünceyi **ne sıklıkta hissettiğinizi ve düşündüğünüzü** her biri için tek bir rakamı daire içine alarak belirtmenizdir.

	Ben bu durumu **HİÇ** yaşamam	Ben bu durumu **BAZEN** Yaşarım	Ben bu durumu **SIK SIK** Yaşarım
1. Kendimi çevremdeki insanlarla uyum içinde hissediyorum.	1	3	4
2. Arkadaşım yok.	1	3	4
3. Başvurabileceğim hiç kimsem yok.	1	3	4
4. Kendimi tek başınaymışım gibi hissetmiyorum.	1	3	4
5. Kendimi bir arkadaş grubunun bir parçası olarak hissediyorum.	1	3	4
6. Çevremdeki insanlarla birçok ortak yönüm var.	1	3	4
7. Artık hiç kimseyle samimi değilim.	1	3	4
8. İlgilerim ve fikirlerim çevremdekilerce paylaşılmıyor.	1	3	4
9. Dışa dönük bir insanım.	1	3	4

10. Kendimi yakın hissettiğim insanlar var.	1	3	4
11. Kendimi grubun dışına itilmiş hissediyorum.	1	3	4
12. Sosyal ilişkilerim yüzeyseldir.	1	3	4
13. Hiç kimse gerçekten beni iyi tanımıyor.	1	3	4
14. Kendimi diğer insanlardan soyutlanmış hissediyorum.	1	3	4
15. İstediğim zaman arkadaş bulabilirim.	1	3	4
16. Beni gerçekten anlayan insanlar var.	1	3	4
17. Bu derece içime kapanmış olmaktan dolayı mutsuzum.	1	3	4
18. Çevremde insanlar var ama benimle değiller.	1	3	4
19. Konuşabileceğim insanlar var.	1	3	4
20. Derdimi anlatabileceğim insanlar var.	1	3	4

F. THE MEASURE OF CHILD REARING STYLES INVENTORY (in Turkish)

BÖLÜM I

Aşağıda, anneniz ile olan ilişkileriniz hakkında cümleler verilmiştir. Sizden istenen, **çocukluğunuzu ve genel olarak annenizle ilişkinizi düşünerek** her bir cümlenin **sizin için** ne derece doğru olduğunu ilgili yeri işaretleyerek belirtmenizdir. Hiçbir maddenin doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. Önemli olan her cümle ile ilgili olarak kendi durumunuzu doğru bir şekilde yansıtmanızdır. Annenizi kaybetmişseniz yetişmenizde en çok katkısı olan kişiyi göz önüne alınız.

	A N N E M				
	Hiç Doğru Değil	Doğru Değil	Kısmen Doğru	Doğru	Çok Doğru
1. Benimle sık sık rahatlatıcı bir şekilde konuşurdu	1	2	3	4	5
2. Her davranışımı sıkı sıkıya kontrol etmek isterdi	1	2	3	4	5
3. Nasıl davranacağım ya da ne yapacağım konusunda bana hep yararlı fikirler vermiştir	1	2	3	4	5
4. Onun istediği hayatı yaşamam konusunda hep ısrarlı olmuştur	1	2	3	4	5
5. Sorunlarım olduğunda onları daha açık bir şekilde görmemde hep yardımcı olmuştur	1	2	3	4	5
6. Arkadaşlarımla ilişkilerime çok karışırdı	1	2	3	4	5
7. Sorunlarımı çözmemde destek olurdu	1	2	3	4	5
8. Onunkinden farklı bir görüşe sahip olmama genellikle tahammül edememiştir	1	2	3	4	5

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9. Sevgi ve yakınlığına her zaman güvenmişimdir	1	2	3	4	5
10.Kurallarına aykırı davrandığımda beni kolaylıkla affetmezdi	1	2	3	4	5
11.Hiçbir zaman fazla yakın bir ilişkimiz olmadı	1	2	3	4	5
12. Ne zaman, ne yapmam gerektiği konusunda talimat verirdi	1	2	3	4	5
13.Bir problemim olduğunda ona anlatmaktansa, kendime saklamayı tercih ederdim	1	2	3	4	5
14. Geç saatlere kadar oturmama izin vermezdi	1	2	3	4	5
15. Onunla birbirimize çok bağlıydık	1	2	3	4	5
16. Arkadaşlarımla geç saate kadar dışarıda kalmama izin vermezdi	1	2	3	4	5
17. Onun düşüncelerine ters gelen bir şey yaptığımda suçlamazdı	1	2	3	4	5
18. Boş zamanlarımı nasıl değerlendireceğime karışırdı	1	2	3	4	5
19. Bir sorunum olduğunda bunu hemen anlardı	1	2	3	4	5
20. Hangi saatte hangi arkadaşımla buluşacağımı bilmek isterdi	1	2	3	4	5
21. Hiçbir zaman benim ne hissettiğimle veya ne düşündüğümle gerçekten ilgilenmedi	1	2	3	4	5
22. Arkadaşlarımla dışarı çıkmama nadiren izin verirdi	1	2	3	4	5

Aşağıda, babanızla olan ilişkileriniz hakkında cümleler verilmiştir. Sizden istenen, **çocukluğunuzu ve genel olarak babanızla ilişkinizi düşünerek** her bir cümlenin **sizin için** ne derece doğru olduğunu ilgili yeri işaretleyerek belirtmenizdir. Hiçbir maddenin doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. Önemli olan her cümle ile ilgili olarak kendi durumunuzu doğru bir şekilde yansıtmanızdır. Babanızı kaybetmişseniz yetişmenizde en çok katkısı olan kişiyi göz önüne alınız.

	BABAM				
	Hiç Doğru Değil	Doğru Değil	Kısmen Doğru	Doğru	Çok Doğru
12. Benimle sık sık rahatlatıcı bir şekilde konuşurdu	1	2	3	4	5
13. Her davranışımı sıkı sıkıya kontrol etmek isterdi	1	2	3	4	5
14. Nasıl davranacağım ya da ne yapacağım konusunda bana hep yararlı fikirler vermiştir	1	2	3	4	5
15. Onun istediği hayatı yaşamam konusunda hep ısrarlı olmuştur	1	2	3	4	5
16. Sorunlarım olduğunda onları daha açık bir şekilde görmemde hep yardımcı olmuştur	1	2	3	4	5
17. Arkadaşlarımla ilişkilerime çok karışırdı	1	2	3	4	5
18. Sorunlarımı çözmemde destek olurdu	1	2	3	4	5
19. Onunkinden farklı bir görüşe sahip olmama genellikle tahammül edememiştir	1	2	3	4	5
20. Sevgi ve yakınlığına her zaman	1	2	3	4	5

güvenmişimdir					
21.Kurallarına aykırı davrandığımda beni kolaylıkla affetmezdi	1	2	3	4	5
22.Hiçbir zaman fazla yakın bir ilişkimiz olmadı	1	2	3	4	5
12. Ne zaman, ne yapmam gerektiği konusunda talimat verirdi	1	2	3	4	5
14.Bir problemim olduğunda ona anlatmaktansa, kendime saklamayı tercih ederdim	1	2	3	4	5
14. Geç saatlere kadar oturmama izin vermezdi	1	2	3	4	5
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16. Arkadaşlarımla geç saate kadar dışarıda kalmama izin vermezdi	1	2	3	4	5
17. Onun düşüncelerine ters gelen bir şey yaptığımda suçlamazdı	1	2	3	4	5
18. Boş zamanlarımı nasıl değerlendireceğime karışırdı	1	2	3	4	5
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20. Hangi saatte hangi arkadaşımla buluşacağımı bilmek isterdi	1	2	3	4	5
21. Hiçbir zaman benim ne hissettiğimle veya ne düşündüğümle gerçekten ilgilenmedi	1	2	3	4	5
22. Arkadaşlarımla dışarı çıkmama nadiren izin verirdi	1	2	3	4	5

TURKISH SUMMARY

TÜRKÇE ÖZET

ALGILANAN ANABABA TUTUMLARI, BAĞLANMA BOYUTLARI, YALNIZLIK VE UMUDUN YAPISAL İLİŞKİLERİ

Umut; istemek, istekleri gerçekleştirmek için yeni yollar bulmak ve vazgeçmemektir. Bu nedenle yaşamda karşılaşılan güçlüklerle baş etmede, olumsuz koşulları iyileştirmede ve hayalleri gerçek kılmada umutlu olmak çok önemlidir (Fromm, 1968). Giderek karmaşıklaşan modern dünyada da umudun varlığı her zamankinden daha çok önem kazanmaktadır. Her an verilecek kararlar, girilecek sınavlar, gün geçtikçe sertleşen rekabet, belirsiz iş koşulları bireylerin doğru hedefler belirlemesinin, bu hedeflere ulaşmak için gereken motivasyonu korumasının ve karşılaştıkları güçlükler karşısında yeni yollar bulmasının, yani umudun önemini daha da artırmaktadır. Öyle ki, umut düzeyindeki eksikliğin bireyleri intihara, toplumları yok oluşa sürükleyebilecek kadar güçlü olduğu öne sürülmektedir (Frankl, 1975).

Umut düzeyinin düşüklüğünün yalnızlık (Lekander, 2000), düşük özgüven, depresyon, intihar gibi pek çok olumsuz psikolojik durumla ilişkisi ortaya konmuştur. Yüksek bir umut düzeyi ise, çözülmesi en zor sorunların çözüme kavuşturulmasını sağlayabilir. Akademik başarının artması, spor ve sınav gibi rekabet gerektiren durumlarla veya iş başvurusu gibi zor yaşam koşullarıyla baş etmede daha dirençli ve esnek olabilme özelliği umut düzeyinin yüksekliği ile doğrudan ilişkilidir. Aynı zamanda umut düzeyi potansiyel olarak psikolojik sağlamlığın faktörlerinden de birini oluşturur (Kashdan,

Rose, ve Fincham, 2002). Çünkü umutlu olmak birçok stresli durumda stresli durumun etkisini azaltacak bir tampon görevi görür (Barnum, Snyder, Rapoff, Mani, ve Thompson, 1998; Taylor ve Armor, 1996). Ayrıca umutlu olmak yüksek öz saygı (Curry ve ark.,1997) gibi bir çok olumlu değişkenle de ilişkilidir.

Önceleri salt duygusal bir boyut olarak ele alınan umut, son yıllarda duygusal boyuta bilişsel boyutun da eklenmesi ile iki boyutlu bir kavram olarak ele alınmaya başlanmıştır (Averill, Catlin, ve Chon, 1990; Snyder, Harris, Anderson, Helleron, Irving, ve Sigman ve ark., 1991). Duygusal boyut, hedefi elde etmeyi isteme ve hedefi elde etmek için kendisinde güç hissetme olarak tanımlanabilir; yani, umut döngüsel bir duygudur ve buna ilişkin geçmiş deneyimlerimiz, bugün ve gelecekte hedefi elde etme sürecinde etkili olur (Snyder, 1994; 1995; 2000; 2002).

İkinci boyut ise hedefi elde edebilme için yollar bulabilme becerisi olarak tanımlanan, bilişsel özellikler gösteren boyuttur (Snyder, 2002). İki boyut bir arada ele alındığında; umut, kişinin bir amaca ulaşması için gerekli duygusal motivasyonu sağlayıp kişiyi harekete geçiren ve amaca yönelik uygun yollar bulmasını sağlayan bilişsel bir yetenek olarak tanımlanır (Snyder ve ark., 1991).

Bu yetenek bireyin doğumundan itibaren edindiği deneyimlerle biçimlenir. Önceki yaşantılarına bağlı olarak, kişinin hedefe ulaşabilmek için yollar bulabileceğini görmüş olması, yeni hedeflerle karşılaştığında sonuca ulaşmak için istek duymasını ve yeni yollar bulabileceğine yönelik bir güven duygusunu taşımasını sağlamaktadır (Onwuegbuzie ve Daley, 1998; Snyder ve ark., 1996; Snyder, 2000; 2002). Snyder (2000), ilk yıllardan itibaren hedef belirleme, hedefe ulaşma ve sonunda doyum sağlama deneyiminin yetişkinlikte umudun oluşumunda önemli bir etmen olduğunu

vurgulamaktadır. Ona göre, çocuğun ebeveynleri ile olan deneyimleri umuda ilişkin şemaların oluşumunda önemlidir (Shorey, Snyder, Yang, ve Lewin, 2003). Pek çok farklı çalışma da çocuklarda kendini değerlendirme ve amaç belirleme gibi bilişsel süreçlerin gelişmesinde ebeveyn tutum ve davranışlarının önemini vurgulamaktadır (Snyder, Cheavens, ve Sympson, 1997; Shorey, Snyder, Yang, ve Lewin, 2003; Snyder, 1994).

Sınırların belirsiz olduğu, tutarlılığın ve destek mekanizmalarının yeterli olmadığı aile atmosferi çocukların büyüme sürecinde umutlu düşünmeyi öğrenme konusunda engel oluşturmaktadır. (e.g. Snyder ve ark., 1997). Dahası, anne ve baba tarafından gösterilen aşırı korumacı ve kısıtlayıcı tutumlar çocukların düşünce biçimlerini etkilemekte, güvensiz bağlanmanın yanı sıra yalnızlık (Jackson, 2007; Jackson, Pratt, Hunaberg, ve Pancer, 2005; Türkmen ve Demirli, 2011) ve umutsuzluk (Mahoney, Pargament, Cole, Jewell, Maggar, ve Tarakeshwar, 2005) gibi sorunlara yol açmaktadır. Kısacası bireyin umut düzeyi de gelişim sürecinde anne baba tutumları ile ilişkili olan bağlanma biçimleri ve yalnızlık ile doğrudan ilişkilidir. Nitekim, bağlanma süreciyle ilgilenen pek çok kuramcı, yetişkinlikte insan ilişkilerine yönelik beklentilerin ve diğer insanlarla kurulan ilişkilerin özelliklerini belirlemede kişinin yaşamının erken dönemlerinde anne babasıyla kurduğu bağlanma ilişkisinin son derece belirleyici olduğunu ifade eder (Bowlby, 1958; Dominiquez ve Carton, 1997; Waters, Crowell, Elliott, Corcoran, ve Treboux, 2002). Bowlby'de (1977), ilk yaşlarda oluşan bağlanma biçimlerinin içsel çalışan modeller aracılığıyla pek fazla değişime uğramadan yaşamın daha sonraki dönemlerine aktarıldığını ileri sürmüştür. Bu nedenle anne babaların doğumdan itibaren çocukları ile olan ilişkileri ve onlara nasıl davrandığı önemlidir (Snyder, Cheavens, ve Sympson, 1997; Sezer, 2010).

Bağlanma, bebek ile anne babası arasında olumlu, sağlıklı ve güçlü duygusal bağ kurulması; beraberinde bebeğin kendisini güvende hissetmesi anlamını taşımaktadır (Kesebir, Kavzoğlu, ve Üstündağ, 2011). Çocukluk döneminde bağlanma örüntülerindeki sürekliliğin çocuğa bakan kişinin tutum ve davranışları ile ilişkilidir. Çocuğa bakan kişinin tutum ve davranışlarındaki süreklilik çocuğun bağlanma örüntülerindeki sürekliliği belirlemektedir (George ve Solomon, 1999; Zimmermann ve Becker-Stoll, 2002).

Yaşamın erken dönemlerinde belirlenmeye başlayan ve süreklilik gösterdiği düşünülen bağlanma kişinin diğer insanlarla ilişki kurma biçimini şekillendirmesi açısından önemlidir (Ainsworth ve Bowlby, 1991). Anne babası ile sağlıklı ve doyurucu ilişkileri olan kişiler, aile dışındaki kişilerle de istendik ilişkilerini daha kolay geliştirebilmektedir (Baumrind, 1966; Baumrind, 1967; Sümer ve Güngör, 1999; Waters, 2004). Dahası, kişinin başka bir kişi ile yakın bir ilişki kurup kurmadığı (Rieger, 1993) ve bu ilişkinin destekleyici ve koruyucu özellikler taşıyıp taşımadığı, hayatının her döneminde ve yakın ilişkilerde gözlemlenebilir. (Bretherton, 1992; Kesebir, Kavzoğlu, ve Üstündağ, 2011; Peplau ve Perlman, 1982).

Bowlby (1973) ve Sullivan (1953), yalnızlığın yakın ilişkilerdeki niceliksel veya niteliksel yokluğa bir tepki olduğunu vurgulamaktadır. Dahası, yalnızlığın gelişimsel bağlamda ortaya çıktığını ve gelişimin farklı aşamalarındaki sosyal ilişkilerin o dönemin ihtiyaçlarını karşılayamaması ile ilgili olduğunu ifade etmişlerdir. Weiss (1984) de, Bowlby ve Sullivan ile benzer biçimde yalnızlığı, bağlanma objesinden ayrılmanın getirdiği stres ve sonucunda diğer kişilerle kurulan yakın bağlanma ilişkilerinin düzeyinin istendik düzeyde olmayışı olarak tanımlamıştır. Dolayısıyla yaşamın erken dönemindeki yaşantı

deneyimleri kişinin gelecekte içinde olacağı ilişki kurma biçimlerini ve yalnızlık düzeyini belirlemede önemlidir.

Bu anlamda, bağlanma boyutunun güvenli mi güvensiz mi olduğu önem kazanır. Güvenli bağlanma biçimine sahip kişiler aile ve arkadaşlarıyla daha uyumlu, kendilerine ve başkalarına daha çok güvenen ve daha az sosyal problemler yaşayan kişilerdir (Kafeetsios ve Nezlek, 2002; 2006; Shaver ve Mikulincer, 2005). Güvensiz bağlanma biçimine sahip olanlar ise başkalarıyla yakınlaşmaktan rahatsızlık duyan, onlara tamamen güvenmekte oldukça zorlanan, sosyal hayata daha az uyum sağlayan, duygularını çok fazla kontrol edemeyen ve strese karşı daha duyarlı kişilerdir (Kesebir, Kavzoğlu, ve Üstündağ, 2011; Shaver ve Mikulincer, 2005).

Güvensiz bağlanma biçimine sahip kişilerin özellikleri yüksek düzeyde yalnızlık deneyimleyen kişilerde de görülmektedir. Yüksek yalnızlık düzeyindeki kişiler; ilişkilerde yaşanan sorunlar ve kendinin ya da diğerlerinin zayıflıklarına odaklanmanın yanı sıra birliktelik duygusunu da daha az yaşarlar (Tiikkainen ve Heikkinen, 2005) ve kendilerini umutsuz hissederler. İşler istedikleri gibi gitmediğinde yeniden harekete geçmekten kaçınırlar ve muhtemel olumsuz sonuçlardan sürekli endişe duyarlar ve problemle yüzleşmek yerine problemden kaçmayı tercih ederler (Girgin, 2009). Dolayısıyla yalnızlık; en önemli özelliği problemleri çözme motivasyonunu yitirmemek ve alternatif yollar bulabilmek olarak özetlenebilecek olan umudun düzeyinin düşük olmasını beraberinde getirir.

Bütün bunlar bir arada ele alındığında ana baba ile olan etkileşim ile doğuştan itibaren şekillenmeye başlayan bağlanma boyutunun yetişkinliğe de taşındığı; içerdiği bilişsel şemalar vasıtası ile yalnızlık durumunun yaşanıp yaşanmamasında (Vauras ve Laakkonen, 2007) etkili olduğu ileri sürülmektedir. Kişinin kendine

ve/veya dış dünyaya güven duymaması, istendik yakınlıklara ve nitelikli ilişkilere sahip olmaması sonucunda kişi hem uygun amaçlar belirlemekte ve bu amaçlara ulaşma motivasyonuna sahip olup olmakta yetersiz kalmaktadır. Dahası, sosyal ilişkilerini de etkin kullanabileceği alternatif çözüm yolları denemede de belirgin zorluklar yaşayabilmektedir.

Yukarıda ele alınan tüm kavramlar -ana baba tutumları, bağlanma, yalnızlık ve umut- içinde bulundukları toplumsal yapı bağlamında şekil almaktadırlar. Oysa mevcut araştırmaların çoğu Avrupa ve Amerikan kültür içerisinde yer alan kişilerle yapılmıştır. Özellikle Snyder' in kavramsallaştırdığı haliyle "umut" farklı sosyal ve etnik toplumlarda nasıl gelişiyor sorusu yanıt beklemektedir. Türkiye'de de ebeveyn davranış ve tutumlarının çocukların psikososyal yaşantılarındaki önemi düşünüldüğünde, anne-baba tutumlarının bağlanma boyutlarını oluşturan şemalar yoluyla yalnızlık ve umut üzerindeki rolünün incelenmesi oldukça önemli görülmektedir. Bu sebeple, bu çalışmada, ebeveyn tutumları, bağlanma boyutları, yalnızlık ve umut eksenindeki ilişkiler irdelenecektir.

Çalışmanın Amacı

Bu çalışmanın amacı üniversite öğrencilerinde umut üzerinde etkili olan değişkenleri araştırmaktır. Bu amaçla, umut modeli geliştirilmiş ve bu model içeriğindeki sosyal ve gelişimsel faktörlerin birbiriyle olan yapısal ilişkilerini; ayrıca bu değişkenlerin birbiriyle etkileşerek umudu ne ölçüde yordadığını incelemek üzere geliştirilen model test edilmiştir. (Figür 1).

Modelde, algılanana ana baba tutumları ile bağlanma boyutları retrospektif değişkenler olarak yer almış ve umudun

başlatıcıları olarak önerilmiştir. Yalnızlık ise sosyal bağlama ilişkin bir değişken olarak modele eklenmiştir. Bu değişkenlerden algılanan ana baba tutumları bağımsız değişken bağlanma boyutları ile yalnızlık hem bağımlı hem de bağımsız değişkenler olarak belirlenmiştir. Yani ara değişken rolü üstlenmişlerdir.

Bu bağlamda araştırmada yanıt aranan sorular şunlardır:

1. Genel umut; ana-baba tutumları, bağlanma boyutları ve yalnızlık tarafından ne ölçüde yordanmaktadır?

2. Durumluk umut ana-baba tutumları, bağlanma boyutları ve yalnızlık tarafından ne ölçüde yordanmaktadır?

3. Yalnızlık bağlanma boyutları ve ana-baba tutumları tarafından ne ölçüde yordanmaktadır?

4. Bağlanma boyutları ana-baba tutumları tarafından ne ölçüde yordanmaktadır?

Yöntem

Bu çalışmaya Ankara Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesinin Sınıf Öğretmenliği, Sosyal Bilgiler Öğretmenliği Bölümü, Özel Eğitim Bölümü, Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgisi Öğretmenliği Bölümü, Bilgisayar ve Öğretim Teknolojileri Eğitimi Bölümü ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık ve Rehberlik Bölümü 1. ve 3. Sınıf 550 (378 kadın 172 erkek) lisans öğrencisi katılmıştır.

Veriler araştırmacı tarafından 2011-2012 öğretim yılı bahar döneminde 5 haftalık bir sürede toplanmıştır. Öğretim elemanlarının izni alındıktan sonra tüm ölçme araçları öğrencilere ders saatlerinde dağıtılmış ve gerekli açıklamalar tüm öğrencilere standart biçimde yapılmıştır. Tüm öğrenciler çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılmıştır.

Araştırmada veri toplamak amacıyla 7 ölçek kullanılmıştır. Bunlar, Demografik Bilgi Formu, Genel Umut Ölçeği, Durumluk Umut Ölçeği, Yakın İlişkilerde Yaşantılar Envanteri-Yenilenmiş, Çocuk Yetiştirme Stilleri Envanteri, UCLA Yalnızlık Ölçeğidir.

Tüm ölçeklerin Açımlayıcı Faktör Analizleri yapılmış, ölçeklerin örneklem grubunda istenilen faktör yapısını gösterip göstermediği incelenmiştir. Çıkan sonuçlarla bazı maddelerinin faktör yüklerinin dağılımında orijinal ölçek ile farklılık olduğu görülen Yakın İlişkilerde Yaşantılar Envanteri-Yenilenmiş aynı zamanda Doğrulayıcı faktör analizine de sokulmuştur. Sonuçta, 4 maddenin uygun faktör yüküne sahip olmadığı, çıkarılmaları halinde envanterin uyum değerlerinde anlamlı bir değişim olacağı görüldüğünden bu maddelerin çıkarılmasına karar verilmiştir.

Ayrıca boyut düzeyinde sonuç veren Çocuk Yetiştirme Stilleri Envanterine anne ve baba için ayrı olarak uygulanan kümeleme analizi sonucunda hangi ana baba tutumlarının örneklem grubunda en çok görüldüğü belirlenmeye çalışmıştır. Yapılan analizin sonucunda anneler için otokratik tutum baba için ise izin verici tutumun en çok görüldüğü belirlenmiştir. Babalarda ise otokratik tutum en az ifade edilen tutum olurken otoriter tutum annelerde en az ifade edilen tutum olarak belirlenmiştir.

Genel Umut Ölçeği, Snyder ve arkadaşları (1996) tarafından geliştirilmiştir. 2 boyutlu olan ölçek 4 amaca güdülenme boyutu, 4 amaca ulaşma yollarını ölçen madde ve 4 dolgu maddesi ile toplam 12 maddeden oluşmaktadır. Orijinal ölçeğin cronbach alfa iç tutarlılık katsayısı ölçeğin geneli için. 71 ile .76 arasında değişmektedir. Ölçeğin Türkçe uyarlaması ilk olarak Akman ve Korkut (1993) tarafından yapılmıştır. Bu uyarlamada ölçeğin varyansın 26.23'ünü açıklayan tek faktörlü bir yapıya sahip olduğu görülmüştür.

Sonrasında benzer biçimde Denizli (2004) de varyansın %31'ini açıklayan tek faktörlü bir yapı ortaya koymuştur. Öte yandan, Kemer (2006) yapı geçerliliğinde farklılıklar olsa da uyguladığı faktör analizi sonucunda beraberce varyansın %50'sini açıklayan; Cronbach alfa katsayıları amaca güdülenme ve amaca ulaşma yolları için sırasıyla .66 ve .72 olan iki faktörlü bir yapı olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu çalışmada da mevcut örneklem ile yapılan açımlayıcı faktör analizi varyansın %57 sini açıklayan iki boyutlu bir yapı göstermiştir. Amaca güdülenme alt boyutunun Cronbach alfa değeri .68 ve amaca ulaşma yolları alt boyutunun Cronbach alfa değeri ise .75 olarak bulunmuştur.

Durumluk Umut Ölçeği, Snyder ve arkadaşları (1991) tarafından geliştirilmiş olan 6 maddeli ölçek "amaca güdülenme" ve "amaca ulaşma yolları" alt boyutlarından oluşmaktadır. Orijinal formun tüm ölçek için Cronbach alfa katsayısı .88 iken, amaca güdülenme alt boyutunun Cronbach alfa katsayısı .86 ve amaca ulaşma yolları alt boyutunun Cronbach alfa değeri ise .59 olarak bulunmuştur. Ölçeğin Türkçeye uyarlaması Denizli (2004) tarafından yapılmıştır. Tüm ölçek için Cronbach alfa katsayısı .48 iken, amaca güdülenme alt boyutunun Cronbach alfa katsayısı .66 ve amaca ulaşma yolları alt boyutunun Cronbach alfa değeri ise .58 olarak bulunmuştur. Mevcut çalışmada da ayrıca açımlayıcı faktör analizi yapılmıştır. Tüm ölçek için .81 olarak bulunan Cronbach alfa katsayısı amaca güdülenme alt boyutunda .75 ve amaca ulaşma yolları alt boyutunda ise .69 olarak hesaplanmıştır.

Yakın İlişkilerde Yaşantılar Envanteri-Yenilenmiş, Fraley, Waller, ve Brennan (2000) tarafından geliştirilmiş; Türkçeye Selçuk, Günaydın, Sümer, ve Uysal (2005) tarafından uyarlanmıştır. Ölçek, yakın ilişkilerde yaşanan kaygı ve başkalarından kaçınma olmak

üzere bağlanmaya ilişkin iki temel boyutu ölçmektedir. Toplam 36 maddeden oluşan envanterde her bir boyut 18'er madde ile ölçülmektedir. Ölçekten alınan puanların artması bireylerin ilişkilerinde kaygı yaşadıkları ve başkalarından uzak durdukları şeklinde yorumlanmaktadır. Selçuk ve ark., (2005) Envanterin Türkçe versiyonunun iç tutarlılık katsayılarını kaygı alt boyutu için .81 ve kaçınma alt boyutu için .82 olarak hesaplamışlardır. Bu araştırmada yapılan açımlayıcı faktör analizi sonucunda 2., 17., ve 21. maddelerin kaygı alt boyutu yerine kaçınma alt boyutunda yüklendikleri görülmüştür. Bu maddeler çıkarılarak yapılan analizde ölçeğin Cronbach alfa katsayıları kaygı alt boyutu için .87 ve kaçınma alt boyutu için .89 hesaplanmıştır.

Çocuk Yetiştirme Stilleri Envanteri, Sümer ve Güngör (1999) tarafından geliştirilen ölçek, anne ve baba için ayrı iki form halinde uygulanmaktadır. Anne ve baba için ayrı ayrı uygulanan ölçekte çocuk yetiştirme stillerinin altında yatan kabul/ilgi boyutunu ölçmek için 11 ve kontrol boyutunu ölçmek için 11 madde yer almaktadır. Kabul/ilgi boyutu anne babanın çocuğu kabul etmesini, anlamasını ve çocuğuna gösterdiği sevgiyi ve ilgiyi değerlendirmektedir. Kontrol boyutu, ana babanın çocuğun davranışlarını sınırlandırmasını, izlemesini ve çocukların disipline edilmesini içermektedir (Sümer ve Güngör, 1999). Her alt boyuttan alınan toplam puanın yüksekliği, o boyutun ifade ettiği tutumun yüksekliğini ortaya koymaktadır. Çocuk Yetiştirme Stilleri Ölçeğinden boyutlar ve kategorik olmak üzere iki düzeyde bilgi alınabilmektedir. Boyutlar temelinde kabul/ilgi ve kontrol; kategorik olarak ise her iki boyutta medyan değerin üstünde puan alanlar açıklayıcı otoriter, altında puan alanlar ise izin verici/ihmalkâr ana babalar olarak sınıflandırılmaktadır. Kabul/ilgi boyutunda medyanın üstünde, kontrol boyutunda medyanın altında puan alanlar izin verici/şımartıcı; kabul/ilgi boyutunda medyanın

altında, kontrol boyutunda medyanın üstünde puan alanlar ise otoriter ana babalar olarak sınıflandırılmaktadır (Sümer ve Güngör, 1999). Bu araştırmada ölçeğin yapı geçerliğini sınamak için elde edilen veriler anne ve baba formları için ayrı ayrı faktör analizine tabi tutulmuştur. Analiz sonucunda anne formunda iç tutarlılık Cronbach alfa katsayısı kabul/ilgi alt boyutu için .86, kontrol alt boyutu için ise .85 olarak bulunmuştur. Baba formunda ise formunda iç tutarlılık Cronbach alfa katsayısı kabul/ilgi alt boyutu için .89, kontrol alt boyutu için ise .88 olarak bulunmuştur.

UCLA Yalnızlık Ölçeği Russell, Peplau ve Ferguson, (1978) tarafından geliştirilmiş bireylerin genel yalnızlık derecesini belirlemeye yarayan likert tipinde bir kendini değerlendirme ölçeğidir. Orijinalinde 10 olumlu ve 10 olumsuz olmak üzere 20 maddeden oluşan ölçek 4'lü derecelendirmeye sahiptir. Ölçekten alınabilecek en yüksek puan 80, en düşük puan ise 20'dir. Alınan yüksek puan bireylerin daha fazla yalnızlık yaşadığına işaret etmektedir. Ölçek, Türkçe 'ye Demir (1989) tarafından uyarlanmıştır. Demir'in çalışmasında ölçeğin iç tutarlılık katsayısını .96 olarak bulunmuştur. test tekrar test çalışmasında ise güvenirlik katsayısı .94 olarak bulunmuştur. Mevcut örneklem üzerinde uygulanan geçerlik güvenirlik çalışmasında ise iç tutarlılık Cronbach alfa katsayısı tüm ölçek için .90 olarak bulunmuştur.

Verilerin analizi için AMOS 16.0 programı ile yol (path) analizi uygulanmıştır. Bu analiz ile araştırmada sunulan model test edilmiştir. Daha açık bir ifadeyle umudun ana baba tutumları, bağlanma boyutları ve yalnızlık ile ne ölçüde açıklandığını görmek ve değişkenlerin doğrudan ve dolaylı etkilerini incelemek amacıyla birbirleriyle olan yapısal ilişkilerine bakılmıştır.

Bulgular

Çalışmanın temel analizi olan yol analizinden önce değişkenlerin ortalamaları ve standart sapmaları (Tablo 8); daha sonra da değişkenler arasındaki korelasyonlar (Tablo 12) hesaplanmıştır. Ayrıca Ana Baba Tutumları ölçeğinde boyutlara dayalı olarak anne ve babaların ayrı ayrı ana babalık stilleri kümeleme analizi yolu ile bulunmuştur. Bu bölümde öncelikle demografik veriler ve betimsel bulgular verilecek sonrasında da yol analizi sonuçlarına değinilecektir.

Araştırmaya katılanların profilini ortaya koymak amacıyla yapılan analizler sonucunda 550 katılımcının % 68.7' sini oluşturan 378 kişinin kadın, % 31.3' ü olan 172 kişinin ise erkek olduğu görülmüştür. Katılımcıların yaşları ise 17 ile 31 arasında değişmektedir (M = 20.30; SD = 2.16). Katılımcıların % 66.4'ünü oluşturan 365 öğrenci 3. sınıf iken, 194 kişi olan % 33.5' i ise1. sınıf öğrencisidir. Öğrencilerin bölümlere göre dağılımına bakıldığında 71 (% 12.9) öğrencinin Ortaöğretim Sosyal Bilgiler Öğretmenliği Bölümü, 50 (% 9.1) öğrenci Özel Eğitim Bölümü, 66 (% 12.0) öğrenci Din Kültürü ve Ahlak Bilgiler Öğretmenliği Bölümü, 118 (% 21.5) öğrenci Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Bölümü, 63 (% 11.5) öğrenci Bilgisayar ve Öğretim Teknolojileri Eğitimi Bölümü, ve 111 (% 20.2) öğrenci Sınıf Öğretmenliği Bölümünde olduğu görülmüştür.

Ayrıca katılımcıların198'i (% 36.0) yurtta kaldığını, 178 'i (% 32.2) bir arkadaşı ile beraber kaldığını, 130' u (% 23.6) ailesiyle beraber 27' si (% 4.5) akrabaları ile beraber yaşadığını ve 16' sı (% 2.4) yalnız yaşadığını ifade etmiştir.

172 (% 31.3) katılımcı üç kardeş olduğunu belirtmiştir. 159 (% 28.9) katılımcı iki kardeş, 82 (% 14.9) katılımcı dört kardeş, 41 (% 7.5) katılımcı beş kardeş ve 65 (% 7.2) katılımcı altı veya daha çok

kardeşi olduğunu ifade etmiştir. Ek olarak, 487 (% 88.5) katılımcı anne babasının evli olduğunu ve beraber yaşadığını ifade ederken 27 (% 4.9) katılımcı babasının 10 (% 1.8) katılımcı ise annesinin öldüğünü ifade etmiştir. Katılımcıların 17' si (% 3.1) ise anne babasının boşandığını belirtmiştir.

Anne babaların eğitim durumları sorulduğunda 265 (% 53.6) katılımcı annesinin 201 (% 36.5) katılımcı ise babasının ilkokul mezunu olduğunu belirtmiştir. 77 (% 14.0) katılımcı annesinin ve 92 (% 16.7) katılımcı babasının ortaokul mezunu; 73 (% 13.3) katılımcı annesinin 120 (% 21.8) katılımcı ise babasının lise mezunu olduğunu ifade etmiştir. Katılımcıların 29' unun (% 5.3) annesi 30' unun (% 5.5) ise babası üniversite mezunudur. Öte yandan 56 (% 10.2) katılımcı annesinin 12 (% 2.2) katılımcı ise babasının okumaz yazmaz olduğunu belirtmiştir.

Demografik özelliklerin ardından değişkenlerin birbiri ile olan ilişkisinin görülmesi için korelasyon hesapları yapılmış ve korelasyon matrisi çıkarılmıştır. Bu matris yordayıcılar, mediatörler ve bağımlı değişkenler arasında multicollinearity olup olmadığının anlaşılması açısından da önemli bir bilgi kaynağıdır. Tablo 12'de de görüleceği gibi ana değişkenler arasındaki tüm korelasyonlar anlamlıdır. Üstelik hiç bir korelasyon katsayısı binişikliiğe sebep olabilecek .50'yi geçmemiştir.

Koralasyon hesapları beklenenin tersine genel umudun amaca ulaşma yolu boyutu dışında umudun hiç bir boyutu ile algılanan baba tutumu arasında ilişki olmadığını göstermiştir. Öte yandan hem durumluk hem de genel umut boyutları algılanan annelik tutumları ile negatif ilişki göstermektedir. Dahası umdun tüm boyutları ile yalnızlık arasında pozitif yönde ilişki görülmektedir.

Diğer bir ifade ile yalnızlık azaldıkça umut artmakta; yalnızlık arttıkça ise umut tüm boyutlar için azalmaktadır.

Yalnızlık ile bağlanma boyutları arasındaki ilişkiye bakıldığında, yalnızlığın her iki bağlanma boyutu ile pozitif yönde ilişkili olduğu görülmektedir. Güvensiz bağlanma boyutları olan kaygılı veya kaçınan bağlanma boyutlarının değerlerinde yükselme görüldüğünde yalnızlık değerlerinde de artış görülmektedir.

Son olarak bağlanma boyutları ile algılanan ana baba tutumları arasındaki ilişki katsayıları incelenmiştir. Bakıldığında kaçınan bağlanma boyutunun algılanan babalık tutumunun kontrol boyutu ile anlamlı bir ilişki göstermediği görülmektedir. Öte yandan algılanan annelik tutumunun her iki boyutu da hem kaygılı hem de kaçınan bağlanma boyutları ile ilişkilidir. Algılanan babalık tutumunun da hem kontrol hem de kabul boyutu kaygılı bağlanma ile ilişkilidir.

Ek olarak katılımcıların ifade ettikleri algılanan ana baba tutumları da analiz edilmiştir. Bireylerin veya uyarıcıların benzerliklerine göre gruplarda veya kümelerde toplanmasını amaçlayan çok değişkenli bir istatistik analiz olan kümeleme analizi yöntemi kullanılarak yapılan çalışma sonucunda öncelikle anne ve babaların algılanan ana babalık stilleri her biri için ayrı ayrı ortaya konmuştur. Daha sonra ise kaygılı ve kaçınan bağlanma boyutları temel alınarak katılımcıların bağlanma kategorileri güvenli bağlanma, kaygılı bağlanma ve korkulu bağlanma olarak kümelenmiştir.

Algılanan ana baba tutumları için yapılan kümeleme analizinde Baumrind' in (1965) ve Maccoby ile Martin' in (1983) sınıflandırması temel alınmıştır. Kabul ve kontrol boyutları K-means kümeleme analizi ile dört stile ayrılmıştır. Sonunda anne ve baba için ayrı ayrı otokratik, otoriter, reddedici- ihmalkar ve izin verici/

şımartan ana baba tutumlarının çalışma grubu içindeki dağılımı elde edilmiştir.

Bu stillerden dominant bir özelliği olan otokratik ana baba tutumu, hem kabul hem de kontrol boyutunda yüksek değerler alırken, tersine reddedici ana baba tutumu her iki boyutta da düşük değerler almaktadır. Otoriter ana baba tutumu ise kontrol boyutunda yüksek değer alıp kabul boyutunda düşük değer almaktadır. İzin veren/şımartan ana baba stili ise otoriter stille ters değerler almakta; kabul boyutu yüksek değerdeyken kontrol boyutunda düşük değer görülmektedir.

Bu gruplandırma sonucunda, katılımcıların algılanan ana baba tutumlarından anne formu için ifade ettikleri tutumlar arasında162 kişi (% 32.14) ile en çok otoriter, 88 (% 17.46) kişi ile en az ise otokratik tutum olmuştur. Bunların yanı sıra izin verici/ şımartan ana babalık tutumu 154 (% 30.5) kişi tarafından algılanırken 100 (% 19.84) kişi anne formu için reddedici- ihmalkar ana babalık tutumunu algıladığını ifade etmiştir.

Baba için uygulanan formda ise izin verici/ şımartan tutum 185 (% 36.71) kişi ile en çok algılanan tutum olarak öne çıkmıştır. Öte yandan otokratik tutum en az görülen tutum olarak 60 (% 11.90) kişi tarafından algılandığı ifade edilmiştir. Katılımcıların 126' sı (% 25) baba formuna babalarının tutumunu otoriter algıladığını belirtmiş, 133 (% 26.39) katılımcı ise babalarının tutumunu reddedici- ihmalkar olarak değerlendirmiştir.

Bağlanma biçimlerinin bulunması için yapılan kümeleme analizinde ise hem kaçınan hem de kaygılı bağlanma boyutlarından düşük değer alan katılımcılar güvenli bağlanma biçimine yerleşirken kaygılı bağlanma boyutundan yüksek değer alan katılımcılar kaygılı bağlanma biçimine, kaçınan bağlanma boyutundan yüksek değerler

alan katılımcılar ise kaçınan bağlanma biçimine kümelenmiştir. Sonuç olarak katılımcıların172' si (%34.13) her iki boyuttan da düşük değerler alarak güvenli bağlanma biçimi gösterirken, 164 (% 32.54) katılımcı kaçınan bağlanma biçiminde 168 katılımcı ise (% 33.3) korkulu bağlanma biçiminde yer almıştır.

Demografik özelliklerin incelenmesi, boyutların birbiri ile olan ilişkilerine bakılması ve algılanan ana baba tutumları ile bağlanma biçimlerinin kümeleme analizi yolu ile çalışma grubu içindeki yoğunluğunun bulunmasının ardından asıl araştırma sorularının istatistiksel analizine geçilmiştir.

Kurulan hipotetik modelde, algılanan ana-baba tutumlarının bağlanma boyutları üzerinde doğrudan etkisi olabileceği düşünülmüştür. Kuramsal olarak bağlanma, değişkenin iki boyutlu olarak tanımlanmasından dolayı iki ayrı örtük değişken olarak değerlendirilmiştir. Buna bağlı olarak, geriye dönük değişkenler olan bağlanma boyutlarının duygusal değişken üzerinde etkisi olabileceği varsayımından yola çıkılarak aralarındaki ilişkiler değerlendirilmiştir. Bu durumda, ana-baba tutumları ve bağlanma boyutları kaynaklı değişkenler ile yalnızlık değişkeni arasındaki ilişki test edilmiştir. Her ne kadar umut bilişsel bir kavram olarak tanımlanmış olsa da ilgili ölçekteki maddeler bireylerin genel olarak yaşam hedeflerine ulaşmada çevreleriyle kurdukları ilişki ile de ilgilidir. Bu durumda yalnızlık duygusuyla yakından ilgilidir. Duygusal değişken olan yalnızlık ile umut arasında doğrudan ilişki olabileceği varsayılmıştır. Sonuç olarak, ana baba tutumları ve bağlanma boyutlarının umut ile dolaylı; yalnızlık ile umut arasında ise doğrudan ilişki olduğu varsayımına dayalı bir model geliştirilmiştir.

Önerilen modelin testi amacıyla öncelikle çalışma verilerine ne ölçüde uygun olduğunu görmek içim çeşitli uygunluk ölçütleri

hesaplanmıştır. Bu sonuçlar Tablo 13'te belirtilmektedir. Tablodan tüm istatistiksel uygunluk sonuçlarının istatistiksel açıdan mükemmel uyum göstermese de anlamlı olduğu görülmektedir.

Modelde kurgulanan doğrudan ve dolaylı yolların anlamlı olup olmadığı standardize edilmiş beta yükleri ile elde edilmiştir. Yapılan analizler sonucunda, hipotetik olarak bağlantılı olabileceği düşünülen bütün yollar anlamlı çıkmamıştır. Doğrudan ve dolaylı etkiler Tablo 14 ve Tablo 15'te sunulmuştur. Figürde anlamlı yollar kırmızı anlamsız yollar ise siyah renk ile gösterilmiştir.

Buna göre ana baba tutuları ölçeğinin anne formu kabul boyutu ne kaygılı ne de kaçınan bağlanmayı yordarken anne formunun kontrol boyutunun kaygılı bağlanmayı yordadığı görülmüştür. Baba formu kabul boyutu da kaygılı bağlanmayı yordarken baba kabul boyutunun bir yordama gücü olmadığı görülmüştür. Diğer bir ifade ile kaçınan bağlanma ne annenin ne de babanın ana babalık tutumları tarafından yordanmıştır. Ancak Kaygılı bağlanma, korkulu bağlanma ile beraber yalnızlığı yordamaktadır. Kaygılı veya güvenli bağlanma boyutları arttıkça yalnızlık puanlarında da artma olduğu görülmüştür. Yalnızlık da hem durumluk hem de genel umut boyutlarını negatif yönde yordamıştır.

Başka bir deyişle, model bütün olarak doğrulanmamıştır. Modelde anlamlı olmayan ya da çalışmayan yollar modelden silinerek, yeni bir model elde edilmiş ve tekrar test edilmiştir. Yeni elde edilen modele ilişkin olarak ikinci kez yapılan yapısal eşitlik modeli analizi, ikinci modelin veriye daha iyi uyum sağladığını göstermiştir (Tablo 16). Figür 4, yenilenmiş modeldeki beta yüklerini göstermektedir. Analiz sonuçlarına göre, ana-baba tutumları değişkeninden bağlanma değişkenine giden yollar arasında sadece anne kontrol ve baba sevgi değişkeni ile bağlanma değişkeninin kaygı boyutu

arasında bulunmuştur. Kaçınma boyutu ile ise bir ilişki bulunmamıştır. Yalnızlık ile bağlanma boyutları arasındaki ilişki negatif yönde anlamlıdır. Benzer biçimde yalnızlık ile hem genel hem durumluk arasında yükler incelendiğinde, hem durumluk hem de genel umut düzeyinin yalnızlık tarafından doğrudan olumsuz yönde yordandığı görülmüştür. Değişkenlere ait regresyon eşitlikleri ve R^2 sonuçları Tablo 15'te gösterilmiştir.

Tartışma

Bu çalışmanın amacı umudun yordayıcılarını Türkiye'deki üniversite öğrencileri üzerinde sınamaktır. Bu amaçla model oluşturulmuş ve bu modelde bağımsız değişken olan ana baba tutumlarının bağlanma boyutları ve yalnızlık ara değişkenleri ile bağımlı değişken olan umudu yordayıp yordamadığı incelenmiştir. Oluşturulan hipotetik model, önceki bölümde ifade edildiği gibi Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi kullanılarak test edilmiştir.

Özellikle retrospektif değişkenler olan ana baba tutumları ve bağlanma boyutları ile yalnızlık üzerine odaklanmış olan araştırma Türkiye'deki üniversite öğrencilerinin umut düzeyinin gelişiminde rol alan yordayıcıları belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Araştırmadan elde edilen sonuçlara bakıldığında çalışmanın umudun gelişimine katkıda bulunan yordayıcılarının yapısal ilişkilerini ortaya koyduğu söylenebilir. Dahası, çalışma hem kişilik özelikleri hem de duyguların umudun gelişim ve deneyimlenmesinde önemli rolü olduğunu göstermiştir.

Bulgulara göre, öncelikle, yalnızlığın hem durumluk hem de sürekli umut üzerinde doğrudan etkisi olduğu ifade edilmiştir. Bağlanma Boyutları ise umuda yalnızlık ara değişkeni üzerinden dolaylı etkide bulunmaktadır. Ana baba tutumlarının ise büyük

oranda etkisiz olduğu görülmüştür. Ana baba tutumlarının boyutlarından sadece annenin kabul boyutu model içinde anlamlı bir sonuç vermiştir.

Çalışmada elde edilen sonuçlar güvenli bağlanmanın daha düşük yalnızlık düzeyini; öte yandan düşük yalnızlık düzeyinin daha yüksek umudu yordadığın ortaya koymuştur. Bu sonuç, umudun güvenli bağlanma ile gelişebileceğini ve pozitif duygu durumunun umudun gelişiminde önemli etkisi oluğuna ilişkin kuramsal varsayımı desteklemiştir (Snyder, 1994; Shorey, 2003). Öte yandan buldular umudun bağlanma aracılığında ana baba tutumları ile başladığına ilişkin varsayımı tam olarak desteklememiştir. Araştırma bulguları yalnızca annenin ebeveyn tutumunun bağlanma boyutları üzerinde etkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Babanın ebeveyn tutumunun bağlanma üzerinde istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir etkisi olduğu görülse de, bu etki çok düşük düzeydedir.

Hem güncel hem de klasik çalışmalar ailenin farklılıklar olsa da tüm kültürlerde sosyalizasyon, bilişsel şemalar, kültürel değerler ve normlar gibi alanlarda en temel aktarıcı olduğunu söylemektedir (Darling ve Steinberg, 1993; Coplan, Hastings, Lagace-Seguin, ve Moulton, 2009). Dahası, literatürde Baumrind' in ana babanın çocuk büyütmesinin gelişimsel sonuçlarını kapsayıcı bir biçimde tanımladığına ilişkin de geniş bir kabul vardır (Jackson, 2007; Jackson, Pratt, Hunaberg, ve Pancer, 2005; Türkmen ve Demirli, 2011). Oysaki Baumrind' in modellemesi kültürün bireysel mi yoksa kolektif bir yapıya mı sahip olduğu başta olmak üzere pek çok özelliğinden etkilenerek, çocuk yetiştirme tutumunda algı farklılıklarına uğramaktadır.

Türkiye özelinde bakıldığında 1950'den itibaren geniş aile ve kolektif toplumsal normlara verilen değerlerden çekirdek aile ve

bireyci toplumsal değerlere doğru hızlı bir dönüşüm olduğu ifade edilebilir (Mocan-Aydın, 2012). Batılı yaşam biçimi, değerleri ve çekirdek aileye doğru olan bu hızlı dönüşüm özellikle kent yaşamının olduğu gelişmiş bölgelerde kendini hissettirmiş; ana baba ve çocuktan oluşan çekirdek aile modelinin yerleşmesini sağlamıştır. Ancak, sanayileşmenin gerçekleşmediği, kırsal yaşamın daha çok görüldüğü doğu Anadolu, kuzey Karadeniz bölgelerde çekirdek aile ile geniş aile daha farklı ve kendine has bir dönüşüm geçirmiştir. Çekirdek aile bir miktar ayrışmış olsa da geniş aile tarafından hala çok yakın bir biçimde çevrelenmekte; tüm ilişkiler ve kararlarda geniş aile etkisini yoğun biçimde hissettirmektedir. Araştırma ülkenin başkentinde bulunan bir kent üniversitesinde gerçekleştirilmiş olsa da öğrencilerin ailelerinin arka planına bakıldığında kır kökenli geniş aile etkisinin hala yoğun olarak fark edilmesi özellikle babayla olan ilişkilerin biçiminin Baumrind' in modellemesi ile açıklanması yönünde engel oluşturmaktadır. Geleneksel olarak kural koyucu olan babanın mutlak otoritesi tam olarak ortadan kalkmasa da geçiş sürecinde oldukça hırpalanmıştır (Mocan-Aydın, 2012). Ayrıca geniş aile ile olan ilişkilerin sınırlarındaki geçişkenlik de babanın kural koyucu özelliğini pekiştirmesine olanak tanımamıştır. Öte yandan, çocuklarla ilgilenmek, oyun oynamak gibi özellikle sosyal bilişsel şablonların aktarımında önemli olan faaliyetler de geleneksel olarak babayı dışarıda bırakmaktadır. Sonuç olarak baba, hem kuralların ve normların oluşmasında hem de bilişsel şablonların ve sosyalleşmenin gelişiminde etkili olamamaktadır. Çocukla ilişkileri, anne üzerinden devam etmektedir.

Çalışma sonucu da bu durumu ortaya koymaktadır. Zaten geleneksel olarak kural ve sınır koyma yetkisi olmayan anne kontrol boyutunda etkisi görünürken, çocukla kurduğu yakın ilişki ile kabul boyutunda varlık gösteriyor. Eski otoritesini kaybeden ancak çocukla

yakın ilişki kuramayan baba ise her iki boyutta da etkisizleşiyor. Bu durum gelecekte özellikle sosyalleşme ve kültürel kodların aktarımında eski yerini kaybeden ailenin oluşturduğu boşluğu hangi yapıların doldurduğunun araştırılmasını gerekli kılmaktadır.

Benzer bir durum ana baba tutumları ile katılımcıların bağlanma örüntüleri arasındaki ilişkide gözlenmiştir. Çalışma sonuçları ana baba ile olan ilişkilerin genç yetişkinlerin bağlanma örüntülerini yordamada sessiz kaldığını göstermesi bakımından önemlidir. Dahası, mevcut çalışma ana baba ile olan ilişkilerin gelecekteki bilişsel şemaları ve ilişki patternlerini belirlemede etkili olduğu varsayımını desteklememektedir.

Bağlanma örüntüleri ile yalnızlık arasındaki ilişki de çalışmada merak edilen sorulardan biridir. Çünkü, literatürde, kaygılı ve korkulu bağlanmanın tüm diğer kişilik özellikleri ve kişiler arası ilişki zorluklarının ötesinde yalnızlık ile ilişkili olduğu ifade edilir. Çalışmada da literatürle uyumlu olarak yalnızlığın hem kaygılı hem de korkulu bağlanma boyutları tarafından pozitif bir biçimde yordandığı görülmüştür. Diğer bir ifade ile güvenli bağlanan bireyler daha az yalnızlık deneyimlerken, güvensiz bağlanma boyutları olan kaygılı ve korkulu bağlanma sonucunda daha yoğun yalnızlık deneyimi ortaya çıkmaktadır.

Araştırma sonucuna göre, ilişkilerde istendik niteliklerin olmaması sonucu ortaya çıkan acı verici durum olarak tanımlanan yalnızlık kişinin hedefe ulaşmada kendini motive etmesi ve yeni yollar arayabilmesini de ketlemektedir. Çalışmanın sonucunda ortaya çıkan bu bulgu, Snyder' in (1999) vurguladığı yalnızlık umut ilişkisi ile de tutarlıdır. Snyder yalnızlığın umudu düşük kişiler için bir ön belirti olduğunu ifade etmiştir. Çünkü, yüksek düzeyde yalnızlık deneyimleyen kişiler kendilerini olumsuz ve acınacak durumda

görürler; diğer kişilerin kendilerine değer vermediğini düşünürler (Snyder, 1999). Snyder' in görüşünü destekleyen çalışmalar yüksek düzeyde yalnızlık deneyimleyen kişilerin aynı zamanda depresif semptomlar gösterebildiğini ve kendilerini pek çok olumsuz koşulla sarmalanmış hissedebildiklerini göstermiştir. (Chang, 2003; Chang & DeSimone, 2003)

Dahası, Snyder düşük umut düzeyindeki kişilerin kişiler arası yakınlıktan korktuğunu vurgulamıştır. Öte yandan yüksek umuda sahip kişiler yakınlıktan korkmamakta (Snyder ve ark., 1999); hem kendi hedeflerini önemli görmekte hem de diğer insanların hedeflerini fark edip o hedeflere de değer vermektedirler (Snyder, 2005).

Bu çalışmanın sonuçları umudun diğer yordayıcılarının araştırılması hususunda yol gösterici olabilecektir. Çünkü Türkiye'de Umudu konu alan çalışmalarda genellikle umut bağımsız değişken olarak konumlanmış ve umudun akademik başarı, sınav kaygısı gibi durumlarla ilişkili olabileceği sorgulanmaya çalışılmıştır. Oysa umudun hangi bağlamda daha sağlıklı geliştiği, umudun ortaya çıkmasında hangi faktörlerin önemli olduğunun da araştırılması gerekmektedir. Ancak bu sayede gerekli durumlarda müdahale edilebilecek programlar hazırlanabilir. Bu çalışma özellikle üniversite öğrencilerine yönelik hazırlanacak programlarda yol gösterici de olabilecektir. Hazırlanabilecek programlar mevcut ilişkilerinde şehir ve okul değiştirmeden dolayı ilişkilerinde önemli kopmalar yaşayan gençlerin hedeflerine odaklanmaları ve yollar bulmaları için yapılacak programa ön veri sağlama anlamında yararlı olabilecektir.

Son olarak araştırmanın sınırlılıkları üzerinde durulması gerekmektedir. Katılımcılar kendi içinde heterojen özellikler gösterse de aynı zamanda kendine has önemli benzerliklere sahiptir. Dolayısı ile çalışmanın üniversite giriş sınavından alınan yüksek puanla

girilebilen büyük ölçekli bir kent üniversitesi olan Ankara Üniversitesinin Eğitim Bilimleri Fakültesi öğrencileri ile sınırlı olduğu belirtilmelidir.

Çalışmanın diğer bir sınırlılığı ise veri toplama tekniğidir. ÇAlışmada katılımcıların umut düzeyleri akademik hedefleri gerçekleştirip gerçekleştirmediklerinin gözlenmesi, aile, arkadaş veya eğitimciler ile olan ilişkilerinin değerlendirilmesi gibi farklı yollar kullanılarak ölçülmemiş; sadece kendi ifadeleri temel alınmıştır. Sonuç olarak umut düzeyleri kendi ifadeleri ile soınırlıdır.

Son olarak değişkenlerin özelliklerine değinmek gerekir. Araştırmada kullanılan değişkenlerin bir kısmı geriye döngktğr. Katılımcıların kendi anne babalarının tutumalarını nasıl hatırladıklarına dayalı olarak veri elde edilmiştir. Grubun özellikleri düşünüldüğünde bunun önemli bir sınırlılık olduğu görülmektedir. Zira, üniversite öğrencisi olan katılımcıların önemli bir kısmı ailelerinde ayrı yaşamakta olan genç yetişkinlerdir. Verdikleri bilgiler ailelerine ilişkin hatıralarına dayalıdır.

CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Demirli Yıldız, Aylin
Nationality: Turkish (TC)
Date and Place of Birth: 06 September 1980, Istanbul
Marital Status: Married
Phone: +90 312 363 33 50-3103
Fax: +90 312 363 61 45

email: ademirli@ankara.edu.tr

EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
MS	METU Educational Sciences	2007
BS	Marmara Unıversıty Educational Sciences	2002
High School	Ataköy Lisesi, Istanbul	1998

WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
2006-Present	Ankara University, Department of Educational Sciences	Research Assistant
2003-2004	Türk Anneler Vakfı Özel Eğitim Merkezi	Psychological Counselor
2002-2003	ALFA Dersanesi	Psychological Counselor

FOREIGN LANGUAGES
English (Advanced)

PUBLICATIONS

Demirli, A. & Demir, A. (2013). The role of gender, attachment dimensions and family environment on loneliness among Turkish university students. *Australian Journal of Guidance and Counseling*, 1-14. (SSCI)

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