THE ASSOCIATIONS AMONG INTIMATE PARTNER ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION/CONTROL, PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENT AND MARITAL ADJUSTMENT

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ABSTRACT

THE ASSOCIATIONS AMONG INTIMATE PARTNER ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION/CONTROL, PSYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENT AND MARITAL ADJUSTMENT

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Grounded in Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection Theory, this exploratory study investigated the associations among perceived intimate partner acceptance, intimate partner control, psychological adjustment and marital adjustment of 624 (360 female, 264 male) married individuals. Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire, Personality Assessment Questionnaire, Dyadic Adjustment Scale, and Demographic Form were utilized to gather data. Path analysis by structural equation modeling (SEM) was used as the primary analysis to test the proposed model of the study. The results of path analysis indicated that intimate partner behavioral control was significantly and indirectly associated with psychological and marital adjustment through the mediating effect of intimate partner acceptance. Moreover, intimate partner acceptance had direct effects on marital and psychological adjustment. Psychological adjustment was directly associated with marital adjustment. The indirect effect
of intimate partner acceptance on marital adjustment via mediation of psychological adjustment was found to be significant. Lastly, the proposed sequential mediation by intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment in the relationship between intimate partner control and marital adjustment was also significant and negative. The findings of the study were discussed within the framework of IPARTheory. Implications for practice and recommendations for further research were mentioned.

**Keywords:** intimate partner acceptance-rejection, intimate partner control, psychological adjustment, marital adjustment
ÖZ

EŞ KABUL-RED/KONTROL, PSİKOLOJİK UYUM VE EVLİLİK UYUMU ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİLER

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Anahtar Kelimeler: eş kabul-reddi, eş kontrolü, psikolojik uyum, evlilik uyumu
To my Beloved Husband...
Every good things in life, such as sustaining a rewarding marriage relationship and writing a dissertation, do not come without any effort, perseverance, and support. I exemplified those two goods in life with a reason, that both went hand in hand throughout my journey. I wrote this dissertation by reading, searching, thinking, observing on how a marriage could be experienced better in life. Many people accompanied me from the begining to the end. Assoc. Prof. Dr. Zeynep Hatipoğlu Sümer has taken the lead as being more than my supervisor. She has always been and will be my idol with her principles, standards, meticulousness and persistence on a scientific endeavor with ethics and high quality. Thanks would be insufficient to communicate my gratitudes for her.

I would like to send special thanks to Prof. Dr. Ayhan Demir and Dr. Ezgi Toplu Demirtaş being the jury members of my thesis defense. Ezgi did more than this. I have literally lost my way during the data analysis of the study for a while. She gave me a torch, patted on my back, and checked me when I was at home. It was and will be good to have you Ezgi... My husband Barış, he was not only the explicit supporter of my dissertation, but also the inspirer of its topic by presenting his consistent love. I have been experiencing the corrective and nourishing aspect of a marriage to the core. We did it together of course, but his contribution has been invaluable... Haluk Yavuz, a real friend of mine and my husband, provided the most basic books of the IPARTTheory from USA. He is one of the most benevolent persons I have ever seen. In the data collection process, many others as much as I can not cite here helped to deliver the questionnaires. I also thank to the participants of the study. I feel very lucky to have all those people around me.
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Few matters in life occupy our thoughts and emotions more than relationships do (Reis & Rusbult, 2004). For most people, marriage can be deemed as the most intimate relationship they voluntarily enter (Halford, Kelly, & Markman, 1997). Such an intimate relationship is enclosed various experiences of which one can barely share with no one else. As many other experiences in life have the potential to make us happy or not, marriage can be a gratifying or burdensome one, too. Over and above, marriage can be both the best of times, and the worst of times. Then, why some individuals experience more satisfying marriage relationships whereas others less satisfying and more distressed ones?

For many people, marriage is an endeavor starting with a great deal of optimism and promise; but what about disappointments and disillusionments ensuing later on? On the other hand, when marriage relationships work, they can be the most meaningful aspect of life. It could be among one of the most mind-occupying basic questions that many individuals trace for the potential answers in their marriages, yet most of the people around the world experience marriage at least once in a lifetime regardless of country and culture. To date, social scientists have made numerous attempts to provide answers to this query by examining individual characteristics, dyadic interactions and the contexts in which relationships are positioned (Story & Bradbury, 2004).
Given the fact that satisfying intimate relationships like marriage constitute a significant role in promoting psychological well-being (Prolux, Helms, & Buehler, 2007), physical well-being (Burman & Margolin, 1992; Kiecolt-Glaser & Newton, 2001; Robles et al., 2014), and quality of life (Khaleque, 2004), the question of why some marriages fail to succeed is a very important one to be answered. Halford, Kelly, and Markman (1997) emphasized that each partner is buffered against the negative effects of life stresses in mutually satisfying, supportive, and rewarding couple relationships. On the other hand, previous studies have shown that remaining unhappily married were associated with lower happiness, life satisfaction, and self-esteem, higher psychological distress, and poorer health outcomes (Hammet, Castañeda, & Ulloa, 2016; Hawkins & Booth, 2005). In this respect, investigating and understanding how marriages evolves and works would contribute to the intervention and prevention of marital dysfunction as well (Karney & Bradbury, 1995). It is still an area full of unknowns and mysteries that needs to be revealed because of its’ being a complex and dynamic issue.

Marital adjustment is one of the widely-studied constructs in marriage literature as a dimension of marital interaction or as an indicator of marriage functioning. Lively (1969) criticized the impossibility and inaccuracy to quantify marital interaction and to evaluate it as happy, satisfied, successful, qualified, or adjusted by virtue of its’ having dynamic and reciprocal nature. Although there exists some incongruencies and disagreements with regards to the evaluation of marital behavior, four of the most common terms addressed and probably the most frequently studied dependent variables in the marriage literature are marital satisfaction, marital happiness, marital quality, and marital adjustment. There are also differential employments of those terms; some authors prefer to incorporate satisfaction, happiness, and adjustment into marital quality as separate sub-dimensions, others propose to use marital adjustment as an umbrella term encapsulating satisfaction and more, and the rest favor to use them
interchangeably. Spainer (1976) argued that the concept of marital adjustment has some superiority over other related concepts in its’ meaningful evaluation of the marriage relationship and power to embody four empirically supported components pertaining to the quality of the marital functioning: dyadic satisfaction, dyadic consensus, dyadic cohesion, and affectional expression.

So far, many studies have made an effort to explain and explore the ingredients of a healthy, good-functioning marriage by using numerous theories and assumptions. Systematic study of marital adjustment continues to evolve due to the social significance of exploring how and why marriages vary in their quality considering the complex range of factors (Bradbury, Fincham, & Beach, 2000). Among several individual, relational, and environmental factors shown as predictors of marital adjustment, the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory (PARTheory) or Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection/Control Theory (IPARTheory) as the most up-to-date version of the name, has provided a framework to study intimate relationships.

IPARTheory is an evidence based theory of socialization and lifespan development that intends to explore and predict major causes, consequences, and other correlates of parental acceptance-rejection and control cross-culturally (Rohner, 2004). Rohner (2005a), the developer of the IPARTheory, asserts that all children strongly need acceptance from parents and other attachment figures regardless of variations in culture, gender, age, ethnicity, or other such determinant conditions. When this need is not satisfied in an appropriate way, children worldwide tend to report themselves to be hostile and aggressive, dependent or defensively independent, impaired in self-esteem and self-adequacy, emotionally unstable, and to have a negative worldview with respect to the form, frequency, severity and duration of perceived rejection, which are significant indicators of psychological maladjustment in the theory. Parental acceptance is the opposite of parental rejection in the theory, which refers to the perceived warmth, consistency, sensitivity, care, positive regard of parents or
any other significant other towards the child. Unlike perceived parental rejection, parental acceptance promote and paves the way for the child to feel secure, worthy, to act in a peaceful and independent manner, to develop a healthy self-esteem and self-adequacy, and to view the world from a more positive point of view in general. Not only in childhood period, may these positive or negative effects depending on the perceived acceptance or rejection from significant others continue throughout other developmental periods like adolescence and adulthood via other intimate relationships. An extensive review of the literature built upon 800 studies completed between 1930s and 1970s showed clearly that the consequences of parental acceptance-rejection often but not inevitably was related to serious outcomes for personality development and personality functioning for children and adults (Rohner & Rohner, 1975).

The IPARThery has started to focus not only the relationships with parents and their impacts on individual level, but also the effect of relationships with other important attachment figures like husbands, wives, friends, teachers etc. Empirical data, based on the theoretical assumption that perceived acceptance-rejection in romantic attachment relationships at any point in the life span is about to have similar consequences in terms of psychological adjustment like perceived parental acceptance-rejection in childhood, have consistently been reported across many studies from diverse cultures (Rohner, 2016). This is because of the fact that the need to feel accepted by parents in childhood continues in the same way in intimate relationships as the need to feel accepted by intimate partners, although the behaviors that assure to perceive acceptance may differ in the two relationship types (relationships with parents and intimate partners). In other words, as adults, the ties with significant others that bring and hold us together have a crucial role in our psychological development as much as it does in childhood period. Not only acceptance-rejection, but also control dimension of the IPARThery has been shown to be related with specific consequences on psychological adjustment of children and adolescents, yet the role of control in intimate partner relationships has not sufficiently been studied.
Both theoretically, it was assumed that perceived behavioral control by an intimate partner is associated with psychological adjustment and relationship functioning in a negative way, and probably through its association with perceived rejection.

Excluding basic caregivers (mostly mothers and fathers), grandparents, girl and boyfriends, teachers, friends, husbands, and wives may be attachment figure/s with whom one has a close and deep relationship. Among them, husbands and wives may occupy a special place. Compared to other intimate romantic relationships with cohabitation or not, marriage harbors relatively more commitment and investment in terms of space, time, and resources (Brines & Joyner, 1999); which may bring about unique contexts for support as well as for conflict (Robles et al., 2014). With respect to the basic premise of IPART Theory, positing that being accepted in an intimate relationship has a tremendous effect on one’s psychological well-being, such an investment may receive its share from the theory more than enough. Namely, in marriage, husbands and wives would have a significant effect on each other’s psychological and marital adjustment with reference to acceptance or rejection they perceive in their relationships. In other words, maintaining a good-enough or problematic marriage relationship for couples may engender unique contributions or damages to one another. This could be via psychological adjustment and/or marital adjustment of the husband or wife, or via a path from psychological adjustment to marital adjustment or both possibility may come true.

Marital adjustment, referring to a qualitative evaluation of a marriage relationship by husbands and wives subjectively, is frequently used as a criterion to assess the overall adjustment to a marriage. Even though psychological adjustment and marital adjustment have abundantly been used as dependent variables in hundreds of studies up to now, the interconnection of the two has consistently been demonstrated in the literature (e.g., Epözdemir, 2012; Shek, 2001; Yeşiltepe & Çelik, 2014). Given the fact that the attempts to enlighten
which one predicts the other have been an endeavor for scholars, there are studies showing that both could be predictive and criterion variables, which means that psychological adjustment predicts marital adjustment and vice versa (e.g., Kamp-Dush, Taylor, & Kroeger, 2008; Villeneuve et al., 2014; Whisman & Bruce, 1999). When the robust yet bidirectional findings linking psychological adjustment to marital adjustment (Davila, Bradbury, Cohan, & Tochluk, 1997; Davila, Karney, Hall, & Bradbury, 2003; Perrin, 2008) are taken into consideration, such aforementioned positive or negative impacts based on the extent to which one perceives acceptance or rejection from his/her husband or wife would empower or deteriorate the marital concord between couples. In line with the theoretical knowledge and research findings, the current study based on the conceptual framework of Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection/Control Theory (IPARTheory) investigated the mediator roles of intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment in the presumed relationship between intimate partner control and marital adjustment.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore the associations among perceived intimate partner acceptance/rejection, perceived intimate partner behavioral control, psychological adjustment, and marital adjustment of husbands and wives based on IPARTheory. More specifically, it was aimed to analyze the extent to which combination of perceived intimate partner acceptance/control and psychological adjustment explain marital adjustment in the context of a marriage relationship. Moreover, the study examined not only direct effects of intimate partner acceptance/control and psychological adjustment but also indirect effects through intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment. The conceptual path diagram of the hypothesized model was depicted in Figure 1. Red arrows represented hypothesized significant paths, and black arrows represented hypothesized nonsignificant paths.
1.3 Research Questions and Hypotheses of the Study

The study aimed to answer the following research questions via hypotheses being generated afterwards:

1. To what extent do perceived intimate partner control, perceived intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment predict marital adjustment of married individuals?

In accordance with the research question of the study stated above, the following hypotheses were tested in the present study. Specific paths regarding hypotheses were given within parentheses.

_Hypothesis 1._ Perceived intimate partner control will not significantly and directly be related to marital adjustment (_Path A_).

_Hypothesis 2._ Perceived intimate partner control will significantly and directly be related to perceived intimate partner acceptance (_Path B_).

_Hypothesis 3._ Perceived intimate partner control will not significantly and directly be related to psychological adjustment (_Path C_).

_Hypothesis 4._ Perceived intimate partner acceptance will significantly and directly be related to psychological adjustment (_Path D_).

_Hypothesis 5._ Perceived intimate partner acceptance will significantly and directly be related to marital adjustment (_Path E_).

_Hypothesis 6._ Psychological adjustment will significantly and directly be related to marital adjustment (_Path F_).
Hypothesis 7. Perceived intimate partner control will indirectly and significantly be related to psychological adjustment through perceived intimate partner acceptance.

Hypothesis 8. Perceived intimate partner control will indirectly and significantly be related to marital adjustment through perceived intimate partner acceptance.

Hypothesis 9. Perceived intimate partner acceptance will indirectly and significantly be related to marital adjustment through psychological adjustment.

Hypothesis 10. Perceived intimate partner control will indirectly and significantly be related to marital adjustment through perceived intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment consecutively.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Recently IPARTheory has been broadened beyond parent-child relationships to incorporate other interpersonal relationships like marriage, friendship etc. (Rohner & Khaleque, 2008). Although the proposed association between intimate partner acceptance-rejection/control and psychological adjustment has been introduced theoretically by IPARTheory, it has been validated empirically by a few studies so far. More effort is needed to test the basic theoretical postulate stated by Rohner as perceived rejection or acceptance by any attachment figure at any point in life is likely to have similar effect like perceived rejection by parents in childhood. In this vein, this study would be a valuable attempt to verify the basic postulate of IPARTheory.
Figure 1.1 The Conceptual Path Diagram of the Hypothesized Model
Over and above, existing though limited literature has mainly focused on the relationship between mostly parental rarely intimate partner acceptance-rejection/control and psychological adjustment of individuals (Khaleque, Rohner, & Laukkala, 2008; Khaleque, Shirin, & Uddin, 2013; Parmar, İbrahim, & Rohner, 2008; Varan, Rohner, & Eryüksel, 2008). The participants of those studies are largely college students and rarely adults in dating romantic relationships. It has been consistently replicated across samples that there exists a significant link between parental/intimate partner acceptance-rejection/control and psychological adjustment of individuals. In national literature, marital satisfaction in relation with parental/intimate acceptance-rejection has been studied, yet satisfaction dimension was assessed with a single question as “Are you satisfied in your marriage relationship?” (Eryavuz, 2006; Öztürk, 2013). In the current study, marital adjustment, which has been claimed to be a broader and generic concept (Spainer, 1976) than satisfaction to assess quality of a marriage, was investigated by using a comprehensive questionnaire (i.e., Dyadic Adjustment Scale).

Although control dimension of IPARTheory has not found much place not only in the theory itself but also in empirical research, it is worth exploring in the context of marrital relationship. Accordingly, behavioral control dimension in the intimate partner relationships has not been studied both in international literature except few (Khaleque, 2004; Khaleque, Rohner, & Laukkala, 2008), and Turkish sample. Controlling behaviors in romantic and/or marriage relationships in the context of violence literature occupy a huge place. Yet, the outlet of including control dimension of parenting in the original Parental Acceptance and Rejection Theory did not get its’ origin from violence but from the functionality of behavioral control in child care. The expanded and revisioned version of the theory has also included the control dimension of being permissiveness and strictness on the two extreme poles not only in parent-child relationships but also other kind of intimate relationships, with an aim to
examine the differential effects of behavioral control in various types of relationships. However, most of the research done so far regarding the role of perceived behavioral control in intimate relationships on different outcome variables like psychological adjustment and relationship satisfaction etc. within the framework of IPARTTheory, has reported the decision to exclude behavioral control dimension in further analyses (mostly multiple hierarchical regression ones) due to its high covariance with acceptance dimension, yet without insufficiently discussing the situation or introducing an alternative model with respect to the interplay between control and acceptance. Accordingly and with the aim of addressing the gap on the issue, this study intends to propose a model for exploring the probable mechanism through which perceived behavioral control exerts influence on both marital adjustment and psychological adjustment. That is to say, this study moves beyond reporting descriptive findings among intimate partner control, psychological adjustment and marital adjustment.

Likewise, the results and implications of the current study would be a resource for psychological counselors working with married couples in such a way that they may plan their interventions to empower the psychological adjustment of the couples via helping and encouraging couples to exhibit more acceptance behaviors rather than rejection or control, which in turn directly have an effect on the marital adjustment of the husbands and wives.

In sum, the rationale behind studying marital adjustment is a widely-acknowledged fact that good-functioning marriages is an important basis to built upon for promoting individual and societal well-being, and maybe most importantly for providing better family environments to children. Every single scientific endeavor towards understanding the dynamics of a happy and healthy marriage relationship, which would be a resource for practitioners to strengthen the dyadic functioning in psychological counseling process, would definitely matter.
1.5 Definitions of Terms

Intimate Partner Acceptance: It refers to the warmth, affection, care, comfort, concern, nurturance, support, or simply love that a person perceives from his/her intimate partner and which is expressed through physical (e.g., hugging, kissing, approving glances, smiling), verbal (e.g., praising, complimenting, saying nice things to the individual), or by means of purely symbolic but culturally understood indicators of support or approval (Rohner, 2016).

Intimate Partner Rejection: It refers to the perceived absence or significant withdrawal of warmth, affection, care, support, and concern of an individual from his/her intimate partner.

Intimate Partner Control: It is the extent to which a partner place limits or restrictions on his/her intimate partner’s behaviors (Rohner, 2005b).

Marital Adjustment: Marital adjustment is defined as a process implicating an ever-changing evaluation of the marriage qualitatively, the outcome of which is determined by the degree of: (1) troublesome dyadic differences; (2) interpersonal tensions and personal anxiety; (3) dyadic satisfaction; (4) dyadic cohesion; and (5) consensus on matters of importance to dyadic functioning (Spainer, 1976).

Psychological Adjustment: Refers in IPARTheory primarily but not exclusively to an individual’s position on the composite of seven measurable personality dispositions (dependence or defensive independence; emotional unresponsiveness; hostility, aggression, passive aggression, or problems with the management of hostility and aggression; negative self-esteem; negative self-adequacy; negative worldview; and emotional instability) most central to personality subtheory (Rohner, 2005b)
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, the literature pertaining to variables of the study (Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control, Psychological Adjustment, and Marital Adjustment) along with a comparison of IPAR Theory as the theoretical framework of the study and attachment theory was presented. Existing international and national studies about the current research topic were elaborated afterwards. The chapter ends with the summary of the literature review.

2.1 Marital Adjustment

Marriage is an institution with a long history, in which certain cultural differences and structural configurations as well as some shared pancultural practices exist. Marital relationship can be regarded for many as one of the closest relationships they have in their life occupying a special place in human affairs, that yields important consequences for the individual and for society (Berscheid, Snyder, & Omoto, 1989). Most of the people want to get married for some shared and different motivations, or at least have that experience in their life. Common sense knowledge insists on the fact that what matters in marriage is not to get married but to make it sustainable by mutual respect, love, and understanding. In the wedding ceremonies all over the world, marriage officiant usually asks for promising whether or not the partners will stand by each other in good days and bad days throughout their upcoming marriage years. Most of the brides and grooms say so, and they live happily ever after. Even though the story begins like this or the intentions made upon as such, a challenging journey had already started with ups and downs. As Gottman and Notarius (2000, p. 929)
depicted, “couples expect the marriage to be different once the honeymoon is over”. At least, they are said so by couples having a longer marital career.

The institution of marriage has undergone remarkable sociodemographic transformations in Turkey for a few decades as a result of switches in the average first marriage age, increased divorce rates, more participation of wives in the workforce, decreased number of children at home, and expanded prevalence of nuclear family, especially in big cities (Aydın & Baran, 2010; Fişek & Scherler, 1996; İmamoğlu, 1994). For example in 1991, people first married in the ages between 25-29 constituted 44.5 % of all marriages in that year whereas in 2011 this ratio has reached to 56.5 %. In the same manner, crude divorce rates has increased from 0.46 in 1990 to 1.59 in 2016, which refers to the number of divorced couples out of 1000 married ones. In big cities like İstanbul, Ankara, and İzmir, the increase in crude divorce rates is more prominent (Turkish Statistics Institute, 2016). Ninety three per cent of divorced couples between the years 1991-2010 presented their main cause for divorce as discord or lack of harmony in their marriages (Turkish Statistics Institute, 2016). These rates should have some implications for the society in general and for the academic community as well. Those changes would be stimulators for the researchers to be motivated to maintain the effort to understand the issue in a thorough way. Although considerable amount of national and international research have accumulated over years, sociopolitical and socioeconomic changes may exert critical influence on the institution of marriage by means of changing the dynamics of relationships. Yet the current study did not aim to enlighten the effects of those changes on marriage, they functioned as a ground for the curiosity of the researcher on the study topic.

Evaluation of a marital relationship or functioning has long been an agenda for marriage scholars so that antecedents, correlates, and consequences of marital quality could be studied. There are two major approaches regarding the evaluation of marriage in the literature recognized by marital researchers: focus
on the interpersonal versus focus on the intrapersonal processes. The interpersonal approach is mostly interested in patterns of interaction like conflict, communication, and companionship. The term *adjustment* is preferred to represent those patterns in the marriage relationship. On the contrary, the intrapersonal approach emphasizes individual judgements of partners, corresponding to the terms of *satisfaction* or *happiness* (Fincham & Rogge, 2010). Fincham and Rogge (2010) states that Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) developed by Spainer (1976), being amongst the most widely used and cited measures of relationship quality, contains items that assess both interpersonal and intrapersonal patterns of marital functioning.

The concept of marital adjustment has been a controversial issue since there are no single and generally agreed-upon definition of it in the marriage literature. Yet more, some scholars argued the impossibility of a refined conceptualization regarding marital adjustment. Other attempts have been towards using the term interchangeably with marital satisfaction, marital happiness, and/or marital quality, even though some authors speculated that these concepts are clearly separated or differentiated from marital adjustment. Spainer (1976) suggested that marital adjustment gives a richer understanding and is more inclusive pertaining to a marriage relationship than mere satisfaction or happiness by evaluating other aspects of it. Spainer and Cole (1976) argued that there was a need to compose an umbrella term conveying the range of marital experiences previously referred to as satisfaction, happiness, success, and adjustment; which would allow scholars to focus on the functioning of the marital dyad. In this respect, marital adjustment is defined as a process implicating an ever-changing evaluation of the marriage qualitatively, the outcome of which is determined by the degree of: (1) troublesome dyadic differences; (2) interpersonal tensions and personal anxiety; (3) dyadic satisfaction; (4) dyadic cohesion; and (5) consensus on matters of importance to dyadic functioning (Spainer, 1976).
The use of *dyadic* rather than *marital* was preferred with the intention of including both marriages and non-marital cohabitations. The first component of marital adjustment refers to some differences between couples such as social, personal, and behavioral, which have the potential to hinder marital adjustment. The second one is about existence of tension between and within the marriage partners, which can be reduced or increased through interaction with marital partner. The third one, namely *satisfaction* is a state or feeling among many other states and feelings constituting marital adjustment. The assumption behind marital satisfaction is that well-adjusted marriages contribute to personal satisfaction or happiness and poorly adjusted marriages contribute to dissatisfaction or unhappiness. Dyadic cohesion and consensus on matters of importance to the marriage are associated with increased marital adjustment as well. Consensus here refers to agreement in decision-making rather than basic social, personal, or behavioral differences (Spainer & Cole, 1976).

Definitionally, marital or dyadic adjustment is a process which is characterized by a continuum as well as movement along the continuum, consisting of events, circumstances, and interactions which move a couple back and forth along this continuum. Couples can be evaluated in terms of proximity to good or poor adjustment, which are the two poles of this continuum. Although longitudinal design is the best way to study process, cross-sectional design has some value in the investigation of marital adjustment. By the way, most of the studies have chosen to search marital adjustment at a given time point on a dimension from well-adjusted to maladjusted (Spainer & Cole, 1976).

There are many descriptions together with discussions of the features of a healthy marriage. In the beginning, a good-functioning or a satisfying marriage was thought to be characterized by the absence of dissatisfaction or distress. Adams, Austin, and Highfield (1943) generated criteria of a successful marriage for women including (1) is satisfied with her home, (2) values husband’s opinion, (3) thinks she married the right man, (4) has common recreational and
social interests with husband, (5) has common friends with husband, and (6) thinks marriage is satisfactory. Unhappy marriage was characterized by antonyms of these statements like is not satisfied, does not value, and does not think etc. As the criteria imply, functioning of a marriage was categorized into two poles as successful or not, having specific indicators for both. The categories seem clearly defined and separated from each other. However, current attempts to capture the dynamics of a healthy marriage are not that much sure of how to describe or differentiate. Considerable body of empirical and practical knowledge have verified the complexity regarding the structure of intimate couple relationships. Fortunately, a lot is known about what couples do that is associated with sustained marital adjustment. According to Halford, Kelly, and Markman (1997, p. 8), one of the characteristics of a healthy marriage is high rates of positivity or positive exchanges in marital interaction, meaning that couples spend more time together, do more mutually enjoyable things together, and behave more positively toward one another. Effective communication and management of conflict are second characteristics of a good-functioning marriage. They define a healthy long-term couple relationship as:

A developing set of interactions between partners which promotes the individual well-being of each partner and their offspring if any, assists each partner to adapt to life stresses, engenders a conjoint sense of emotional and sexual intimacy between the partners, and which promotes the long-term sustainment of the relationship within the cultural context in which the partners live.

Buss (1989) conducted a cross-cultural study in 37 different cultures on attributes sought in a mate, and he concluded that there was a universal desire in both males and females for kindness, understanding, and dependability. Dillon et al. (2015) discussed this finding as lack of kindness would diminish cooperation between couples and increase stress level for the spouse.

Marital adjustment in social sciences has almost a century long history since the first study of Hamilton (1929) being the first social scientist to measure marital adjustment. During the years following the first research, the concept has
become almost central to marriage and family literature. Initial attempts to understand the factors related to marital adjustment or marital satisfaction were mostly focusing on concept clarification with measurement of marital functioning (Fincham & Bradbury, 1987; Lively, 1969; Spainer & Cole, 1976; Terman & Wallin, 1949), personality (Burchinal, Hawkes, & Gardner, 1957; Pickford, Signori, & Rempel, 1966) and sociodemographic variables like gender, age, length of marriage (Glenn, 1989; Luckey, 1966), marital status (Landis, 1963; Locke, 1947), marital stability, employment status of women (Gover, 1963; Wright, 1978), transition to parenthood (Belsky, Spainer, & Rovine, 1983; Ryder, 1973), family life cycle (Burr, 1970; Rollins & Feldman, 1970), premarital cohabitation (Watson, 1983), marital conflict (Leon, 1971), and religion (Wallin & Clark, 1964). A common effort in those studies was to understand who stays happily married and who do not, along with the intention to search out the dynamics of divorce (Glenn, 1990; Hicks & Platt, 1970; Spainer & Lewis, 1980).

Later on, individual and interpersonal characteristics in personal and social contexts (attachment styles, family background, value similarity, gender roles, self-esteem, depression, anxiety, domestic violence, social support, sexual satisfaction, stress, perfectionism, emotion-regulation, jealousy, relationship beliefs, cognitive schemas, early maladaptive schemas, coping styles, conflict resolution styles, infidelity tendency, psychological well-being, life satisfaction, physical well-being, job satisfaction, psychopathology etc.), as both independent variables in terms of their predictive power on marital adjustment and dependent variables in reference to their associations with marital adjustment, have come into the scene. The aforementioned variables and many others could be aggregated into three factors as personal, interpersonal, and contextual (Karney & Bradbury, 1995).

In 1989, Bradbury and Fincham divided the research tradition pertaining to marital functioning literature into three time periods. The first one is *sociological*
tradition, which is characterized by large-scale surveys conducted to determine the associations between demographics, personality, and familial variables and marital satisfaction. The second research strategy is behavioral tradition in which interactions of couples are observed to differentiate between distressed and nondistressed couples. The last and third emerging tradition is thought to be mediational tradition in which emphasis is upon factors that may clarify the association between behavior and satisfaction, rather than upon association itself. They also underlined the possibility of relation between couples’ overt behavior and affective and cognitive processes. From this point of view, behaviors are enacted by a spouse, and the partner then perceives, interprets, and responds affectively to them.

To begin with associations between sociodemographic variables falling into the category of personal factors and marital adjustment, remarkable body of knowledge has been accumulated for nearly a century. In a comprehensive review of 115 rigorous longitudinal studies by Karney and Bradbury (1995), it was found that demographic variables were the most frequently replicated predictors of marital outcome. For instance, gender and marital adjustment link has yielded different somewhat mixed results both in Western and non-Western populations. In those populations, it has often been shown that women reported lower marital quality than men, in other words, men reported higher satisfaction in their marriages than women (e.g. Basat, 2004; Feeney, 1994; Whiteman, McHale, & Crouter, 2007). However, in the United States, Kurdek (2005) found no gender difference in terms of marital satisfaction, meaning that not consistently men reported higher adjustment than women as warranted prevalently. In that longitudinal study, 265 couples were measured on behalf of their marital satisfaction at three annual follow-up assessments (year 2, 3, and 4) over the first 4 years of their marriages. Similarly, Şendil and Korkut (2012) gathered data from 171 and Bir-Aktürk (2006) from 339 married couples concerning their marital adjustment scores and they suggested no gender difference. In a recent meta-analysis conducted by Jackson, Miller, Oka, and
Henry (2014) consisting 101,110 married couples from 216 both clinical and non-clinical community-based independent samples and with the aim to test commonly-held assumption that women report less marital satisfaction than men, it was shown that there was statistically significant yet very small gender differences regarding marital satisfaction. Nevertheless, the authors performed further moderation analyses, and the results indicated that the gender difference was an outcome of clinical sample inclusion. Because women in marital therapy experienced more dissatisfaction than their husbands. Effect sizes of non-clinical samples revealed no gender difference among couples in terms of their marital satisfaction levels.

Another widely-searched sociodemographic variable in marital adjustment literature is the length of marriage. Marital career referring to the length of marriage has shown to have differing associations with marital adjustment by plenty of studies. The well-known study of Rollins and Feldman (1970) drew much attention by revealing the curvilinear pattern of marital satisfaction over the course of a marriage; in which couples reported more happiness in the early and late years but less satisfaction during middle years pertaining to their marriage functioning. However, review of longitudinal studies accumulated for nearly 50 years (e.g. Karney & Bradbury, 1995) disconfirmed this assertion by emphasizing a continual decline in marital satisfaction over time. The current international and national evidence is predominantly in the direction of linear decline of marital quality as marital duration rises (e.g. Karney & Bradburry, 1995). However, there are also findings showing no correlation between duration of marriage and marital adjustment (e.g. Berk, 2009; Ghoroghi, Hassan, & Baba, 2013; Göral-Alkan, 2010; Gündoğdu, 2007).

Education levels of husbands and wives have often-repeated results for marital adjustment outcomes in the direction of increase in marital adjustment as education level rises for both spouses (Basat, 2004; Gündoğdu, 2007; Şendil & Korkut, 2012). However, Göral-Alkan (2010) and Tulum (2014) reported no
difference on marital adjustment pertaining to educational backgrounds of the participants. Another demographic variable is whether or not the married couple has children. There is a considerable amount of literature addressing the association between having children and marital adjustment of couples, yet not consistent. For instance, Berk (2009) and Hatipoğlu (1993) found no association, whereas Tuncay-Senlet (2012) denoted a significant mean difference of marital adjustment scores unfavorable to spouses with children.

To sum up, marital adjustment has a long history in the literature as a widely-searched construct in the scientific efforts to understand couple relationships. Several individual, relational, and environmental factors were found to be linked to marital adjustment of couples. To date and although many consequences and correlates of marital adjustment have been introduced, yet there is a lot to be revealed.

2.2 Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection and Control Theory

Parental acceptance-rejection theory (PARTheory) is an evidence-based theory of socialization and lifespan development that aims to explore major causes, consequences, and correlates of parental acceptance and rejection worldwide (Rohner, 1986). Historically (beginning about 1960 by Ronald Rohner), the theory has been majorly focused on the effects of perceived parental acceptance-rejection in childhood and the extension of them into adulthood until 1999. Since then, a paradigm shift came off and the focus of the theory has been broadened to incorporate intimate adult relationships and other significant interpersonal relationships like romantic partner, peer, and sibling acceptance-rejection throughout the lifespan. The change in focus was the result of the strong empirical evidence showing that children and adults in many types of relationships other than parent-child relationships feel accepted or rejected in the same way that children do in parent-child relationships. Furthermore, social, emotional, and cognitive development and personality consequences of
perceived acceptance or rejection by a significant other have been validated to be similar for adults as for children. Thereafter, the name of the theory was revised to its current name as Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection Theory (IPARTheory) on 2014 at the 5th International Congress on Interpersonal Acceptance and Rejection (Rohner, 2016). However, in the literature, the former version was still widely accepted and known until 2014, now it is called as IPARTheory.

IPARTheory is based on an ecological, person-in-context perspective, and uses a cross-cultural, convergence-of-methodologies strategy-that is, the universalist approach- to the study of acceptance and rejection (Rohner, 2004). The theory aims to answer five categories of questions divided into three subtheories which are personality, coping, and sociocultural systems model subtheories. The basic questions of personality subtheory are: “Is it true that children cross culturally- in all sociocultural systems, racial or ethnic groups - tend to respond in the same way they perceive themselves to be accepted or rejected by their parents and other attachment figures?”, and “To what degree do the effects of childhood acceptance and rejection extend into adulthood and old age?”.

Coping subtheory asks one basic question: “What gives some children and adults the resilience to emotionally cope more effectively than most people with the experience of childhood rejection?” Finally, sociocultural systems model subtheory asks two different classes of questions: “Why are some parents warm and loving and others cold, aggressive, neglecting/rejecting?” and, “In what way is the total fabric of society as well as the behaviors and beliefs of individuals within society affected by the fact that most parents in that society tend to either accept or reject their children?” (Rohner, 2016, p. 3). Because the current study focused on main issues within personality subtheory, the other two subtheories were not addressed in detail.
Personality subtheory starts with the inevitably unverifiable supposition that over the course of hominid evolution, humans have developed the long-lasting, biologically based emotional need for positive response from the people most important to them. The need for being responded in a positive way contains an emotional desire, or craving (being aware or not) for comfort, support, care, concern, nurturance, and the like. Rohner (1986) stated that this need may be rooted, sprouted, and reinforced in the context of infantile dependency of a newborn and the fact that Homo sapiens is a sociable species. The need becomes more complicated and differentiated in adulthood harbouring the wish for positive regard from significant others with whom they have attachment. Parents for children, non-parental attachment figures and significant others like romantic partners for adults can best satisfy this need (Rohner, 2004). The theory is established on this need and symbolized with the warmth dimension of parenting, which is a continuum characterized by affection/warmth (parental acceptance) in one pole and its withdrawal (parental rejection) in the other pole coming from parents (not necessarily mothers and fathers, the ones who take the responsibility of caregiving to the child).

Parental acceptance, composing of two primary expressions as verbal and physical, refers to the warmth, affection, and love a parent shows to his/her child. On the contrary, parental rejection refers to the absence or significant withdrawal of warmth, affection, and love by parents towards their children with verbal and physical expressions. Upon this acceptance or rejection, children can culturally display some personality dispositions (self-esteem, self-adequacy, aggression, negative worldview etc.) which are significant indicators of psychological adjustment and/or maladjustment, which has been validated several times with robust empirical findings in different cultures. However, the theory also postulates that there could be exceptions who do not respond in the same way even they have been rejected by their parents.
Since 1999, *interpersonal acceptance and rejection* has been used as an umbrella term that refers to all kinds of intimate relationships like parental, intimate partner, and friendship. Intimate partner in the theory stands for an attachment figure or a significant other as a person with whom an adult has a relatively long-lasting emotional bond, who is uniquely important to the individual, and who is interchangeable with no one else (Rohner, 2005c). In IPARTheory, an additional characteristic of attachment relationship distinguishing it from other interpersonal relationships is that individuals’ overall sense of emotional security, comfort, and well-being is affected by their feelings about the quality of relationship with their partner (Rohner & Khaleque, 2008). In this sense, spouses and other intimate partners are common attachment figures for adults.

IPARTheory asserts that interpersonal acceptance and rejection constitutes the warmth dimension or continuum of interpersonal relationships. As in parental acceptance/rejection, the quality of emotional tie between intimate partners is determined by acceptance in the one pole and rejection in the other. It is emphasized as a continuum because everyone experiences or experienced more or less love from people significant to them. The warmth dimension refers to the quality of the affectional bond between an individual and a significant other (father, mother, intimate partner, friend etc.). It contains the physical, verbal, and symbolic behaviors that individuals use to express their caring or lack of caring about the other person. *Interpersonal acceptance*, which is characterized by warmth, affection, care, comfort, concern, nurturance, support, or simply love that one person can express to or experience from another person is situated in one end of the continuum. The other end of the continuum is characterized by *interpersonal rejection*, which refers to the absence or significant withdrawal of these positive feelings and behaviors and by the existence of a variety of physically, and psychologically hurtful behaviors and effects. It is experienced by any combination of four principal expressions: (1) cold and unaffectionate, (2) hostile and aggressive, (3) indifferent and neglecting, and (4) undifferentiated rejecting. The latter one refers to individuals’ beliefs that the significant other
does not or did not really care about them or love them, despite of the fact that there are or were no explicit behavioral indicators of neglect, lack of affection, or aggression coming from the significant other. It should be highlighted that people cannot be settled into the two end of the continuum, everyone falls somewhere along the warmth dimension, which means that everyone experiences varying degrees of interpersonal acceptance and rejection with their significant others throughout their lives (Rohner, 2016).

Interpersonal affection as the first principal of acceptance can be displayed physically (e.g. hugging, comforting, caressing, kissing), verbally (e.g. complimenting, praising), or with symbolic use of culturally specific gestures. Behavioral expressions of interpersonal acceptance are formed through such nurturing, caring, supportive, and loving behaviors (Rohner, 2016). The IPARTheory gives much importance to the culture-specific and symbolic way of expressing acceptance. For example, in an ethnographic study, Rohner and Chaki-Sircar (1988) observed that a Bengali mother gave her child a peeled and seeded orange, which was an indicator of mother’s approval and affection towards the child in that culture (cited in Rohner, 2016).

Aggression is an outcome behavior when an individual behaves with feelings of hostility, resentment, anger, or enmity. As second principal of interpersonal rejection explained in IPARTheory, aggression refers to any form of behavior with the intention of physically or emotionally hurting someone, something, or oneself. In physical and verbal dimension, it refers to hitting, pushing, throwing things, pinching, mocking, shouting, and humiliating towards other. In addition to these, individuals may use hurtful, nonverbal symbolic gestures towards others. In case of indifference and neglect, the dynamic is somewhat complicated. *Neglect* generally refers to individuals’ lack of success and/or incapability to meet appropriately the social and emotional needs of others. However, individuals may neglect significant others as a way of dealing with their anger toward them as well. Neglecting or indifferent persons give little
attention to the needs of significant others like comfort, solace, attention, or help; they may also be unresponsive or even unavailable or inaccessible both physically and psychologically. All these perceived or real behaviors are probably to cause individuals to feel rejected and not loved by their significant others. Undifferentiated rejection occurs when an individual feels unloved or rejected even though there is no clear indicator of rejection by their significant others (Rohner, 2016).

Interpersonal acceptance-rejection can be studied with the phenomenological perspective which refers to perceived or subjectively experienced acceptance and/or rejection by the individual or with the behavioral perspective in which experienced acceptance and/or rejection is reported by an outside observer. Rohner (2016) states that generally the two perspectives bring about similar results for the overall decision of feeling accepted or rejected. A person may feel rejected by her parents and/or intimate partner even outside observers do not determine any apparent indicators of interpersonal rejection. Accordingly, observers may report interpersonal neglect or aggression; however, the target person may not feel rejected. For this reason, IPARTheory puts greater emphasis on phenomenological approach, meaning that the perceived acceptance or rejection of the individual from people significant to her is the main source of information. As cited in Rohner (1986), Kagan (1978) stated that evaluation of a parent as hostile or accepting cannot be answered by observing the parent’s behavior, for neither love nor rejection is a fixed quality of behavior. Like pleasure, pain, or beauty, it is in the mind of the beholder. Parental love is a belief held by the child, not a set of actions by a parent. Meanwhile, the same principle may operate for the evaluation of a loving and accepting or rejecting intimate partner in the mind of an individual. Perceptual and inferential processes within the person would be more distinctive on the impact of the intimate partner behavior towards acceptance-rejection and/or control.
In the original Parental Acceptance-Rejection Theory, only warmth dimension of parenting was primarily elaborated but the control dimension of parenting which is characterized by permissiveness on one pole and strictness on the other pole was also identified yet remained underemphasized. This was because of the theorist’s more interest in understanding why some parents are accepting and some are rejecting. Rohner (1986) conceptualized warmth and control dimensions of parenting as two separate entities having different effects on children but interacting ones in the way of producing distinctive outcomes. That is to say, parents may show warmth to their children but could be permissive towards them at the same time; or rejecting parents may strictly control their children as well. In other words, warmth of parents provide no basis for predicting whether or not s/he is controlling the child strictly or permissively. In this vein, a partner may be accepting towards his/her husband or wife, but could be strictly controlling as well. Control dimension of the IPAR Theory in the context of intimate relationships refers to the extent to which a partner place limits or restrictions on his/her intimate partner’s behaviors (Rohner, 2005b). In the context of parenting, behavioral control dimension is about the demands, directives, prescriptions (you shall), and proscriptions (you shall not) that parents place on children’s behavior, and also the extent to which parents insist on compliance with their demands, directives, rules, prescriptions, and proscriptions (Rohner & Khaleque, 2003). Accordingly, in marriage relationship, controlling behaviors of a partner towards his/her wife or husband encompass forcing the partner to comply with his/her preferences, persisting on knowing the partner’s whereabouts, telling the partner how to behave, insisting on what the partner wants to be done, and interfering in the partner’s stuff; which are the indicators of restrictive control. On the contrary and in the permissive control pole, the partner let his/her wife or husband do whatever s/he wants to do, gives limitless freedom to her or him, does not control at all in other words.

Within the framework of Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection and Control Theory, there are many descriptive results showing significant correlations
between perceived behavioral control and psychological adjustment and/or relationship outcomes like satisfaction, adjustment, and quality. Yet, the attempts to explore perceived behavioral control dimension of IPARTheory in romantic relationships including marriage with respect to its predictive role in especially psychological adjustment and rarely in relationship quality have been limited to the inference that the impact of behavioral control on those variables could be artificial or to the notice that behavioral control part was not used in the study, though measured (e.g. Khaleque, 2004; Khaleque & Rohner, 2013, Khaleque, Shirin, & Uddin, 2013; Parmar & Rohner, 2008; Parmar, Ibrahim & Rohner, 2008). The statistical analyses in some of those studies showed that the effect of perceived behavioral control may come from its association with perceived intimate partner acceptance-rejection. The researchers controlled the intimate partner acceptance/rejection variable and found that the association between behavioral control and psychological adjustment and/or relationship quality has disappeared (e.g., Rohner & Khaleque, 2008). Or, they reported non-significant correlations among intimate partner control and psychological adjustment or marital outcomes, then behavioral control was dropped from further analysis (e.g., Eryavuz, 2006; Khaleque, Rohner & Laukkala, 2008).

Another but a few body of research reported significant negative correlations between intimate partner control and marital satisfaction, but did not look at predictive role of control on further analysis (e.g., Öztürk, 2013). So and in sum, most of the studies on the topic excluded the behavioral control variable or limited to reporting bivariate correlations descriptive in nature except for intimate partner acceptance-rejection and without adequately elaborating and discussing on why these results have emerged. Although the acceptance/rejection and control dimensions are two separate factors validated robustly and empirically, the association between the two has something to say or imply something. Over and above, there are a number of studies administrating control dimension of Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control questionnaire in the measurement part but decided to not to
include in the analyses (e.g. Chyung & Lee, 2008; Varan, Rohner, & Eryüksel, 2008). So, several issues concerning this association remained unsolved.

Current literature has shown some but contradictory evidence on the association between control dimension and gender (Basha, 2014). In a study with college-aged students, Kuffel and Katz (2002) reported similar rates of perpetration of intimate partner controlling behaviors by the male and female participants. Likewise, no gender difference was found on the use of controlling behaviors in a sample recruited from college students, women domestic violence refuge center, and male prisoners (Graham-Kevan, 2004). It is important to emphasize that these aforementioned studies on controlling behaviors were in the context of dating/relationship violence. In the context of IPART Theory literature, gender differences pertaining to perceived intimate partner control is also under consideration, yet quite limited. General trend to date has been towards the conclusion that men perceive significantly more behavioral control from their spouses than women (e.g. Khaleque, Rohner, & Laukkala, 2008; Öztürk, 2013). An exception came from a study in Egypt (Basha, 2014), reporting that women perceived more behavioral control from their husbands than men from their wives.

2.3 IPART Theory and Psychological Adjustment

There are number of factors associated with psychological adjustment, and for the purpose of this study, the conceptualization of IPART Theory regarding psychological adjustment was utilized. IPART Theory makes a reference to psychological adjustment in its personality subtheory which basically focuses on seven personality dispositions regarded as the indicator of psychological adjustment or maladjustment as a whole. In personality subtheory, the concept of personality refers to an individual’s almost permanent set of inclinations (i.e., cognitive, affective, perceptual, and motivational) and actual manner of responding (i.e., observable behaviors) in different life situations or contexts.
(Rohner, 2005a). Human beings have a strong emotional need for positive response coming from significant others or their attachment figures, and this need functions as a universal motivator. Personality subtheory states that if the emotional need is not satisfied by attachment figures, which is symbolized as perceived rejection in the theory, people become predisposed to behave emotionally and behaviorally in specific ways. Rohner (1986) emphasized that there could be many consequences and correlates of perceived acceptance or rejection with respect to personality dispositions standing for psychological adjustment or maladjustment, but some of them were specifically proposed due to their much relevance to the world over. These dispositions include, depending on the degree and form of rejection, dependence or defensive independence; emotional unresponsiveness; hostility, aggression, passive aggression, or problems with the management of hostility and aggression; negative self-esteem; negative self-adequacy; negative worldview; and emotional instability.

Particularly, individuals feeling rejected either by their parents and/or any significant other are likely to develop dependence, emotional unresponsiveness, hostility-aggression, low self-esteem and low self-adequacy, negative worldview, and emotional instability (Rohner, 2016). These are thought to be the results of the intense negative feelings produced due to the perceived rejection. On the contrary, perceived acceptance characterized by warmth, positive response, love, and nurturance is associated with healthier development of emotional, social, and cognitive dispositions like healthy independence, good-functioning self-esteem and self-adequacy, emotional availability and sensitivity, and positive world-view to respond in particular ways in diverse contexts and relationships in adulthood. Rohner (2016) explains those associations through mental representations referring to the ideas about the self and others that are constructed in parent-child interactions and/or in interactions with significant others. Those mental representations function as a basis for the individual in the establishment of strategies of relating in significant relationships.
In personality theory, dependence is used to define one end of a behavioral continuum with independence defining the other end. In IPARTheory, the term *dependence* refers to the internal, psychologically felt wish or craving for emotional support, care, comfort, attention, nurturance, and similar behaviors from attachment figures as well as the actual behavioral requests individuals make for such responsiveness. Individuals who perceive rejection may request more and more positive response from the significant others, which in turn makes them more dependent (Rohner, 2004). Whereas *independence*, at the other end of the continuum, refers to the absence of such a reliance on others or at least less often demanding for emotional support, encouragement, reassurance, comfort, sympathy, attention and so forth from persons most important for us when troubled, hurt, and the like. The important point here is the extent in terms of frequency and intensity to which a person seeks for them, given the fact that emotionally healthy adults make these requisitions from time to time. It was peculiarly noted in the theory that the terms independence and dependence are used for emotional needs, not for instrumental needs of a person (Rohner, 1986). Moreover, in the personality theory, different from healthy independence, some rejected individuals may develop *defensive independence* due to psychological hurt caused by rejection, in such a way that they give up requests for positive response even though they continue to crave warmth and support from significant others (although they sometimes are not aware of it). Defensive independence with its associated emotions and behaviors sometimes produces counter rejection, in which individuals who feel rejected, in turn reject the other person(s). Consequently, this process generates a cycle of violence and many other relationship problems (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005). As with all the personality dispositions studied in IPARTheory, humans everywhere can be placed somewhere along the continuum of being more or less dependent or independent; it is the point to which individuals perceive themselves to be accepted or rejected by significant others, that much of the variation in dependence among children and adults is contingent on (Rohner, 2016).
Another personality disposition in the theory is *emotional unresponsiveness* versus *emotional responsiveness*, which refers to the inability or ability to express one’s emotions in an open and free way, like feelings of warmth, sympathy, concern, and affection toward another person. In other words, this continuum with two poles is about the extent to which a person is able to respond emotionally in a spontaneous, comfortable manner and without being troubled by emotional vigilance, lack of trust, and uneasiness. While emotional responsiveness is a very important element in forming a close and personal relationship, emotional unresponsiveness has a destructive role (Rohner, 1986). The probable dynamic behind emotional unresponsiveness was sought out in the supposition that many rejected individuals may choose to close off themselves emotionally to prevent further possible rejection coming from others. They would have experienced many destructive emotions like anger, resentment, and disappointment due to significant rejection perceived. That is, they become less emotionally responsive. This may lead them to being unable or unwilling to express love and accepting it from others (Rohner, Khaleque, & Cournoyer, 2005).

The third personality disposition in the theory is hostility-aggression. Hostility and aggression is two connected but separate concepts; the former referring to an internal or emotional feeling of enmity, anger, or resentment whereas the latter referring to the behavioral manifestation of anger or hostility and it is defined in the theory as the intention to hurt somebody (or something) physically and/or psychologically, or at least the interpretation of the intent to hurt someone. Passive aggression, which is a less direct form of aggression, is defined in the theory as the exhibition of pouting, sulking, procrastination, and stubbornness towards the other. All individuals more or less experience the difficulty to cope with and express their anger, hostility, or resentment, but again the frequency and intensity of the behavior matters (Rohner, 1986).
Self-esteem and self-adequacy are the two component of the concept self-evaluation; consisting of feelings, attitudes, and perceptions about oneself falling on a continuum from positive to negative. In particular, self-esteem corresponds to a global emotional judgement that individuals make about themselves in terms of worth or value. Positive self-esteem is characterized by the state of one’s liking, approving of, being comfortable with, and accepting oneself; and by the fact that one is rarely disappointed in oneself, and that one perceives oneself to be a person of worth and worthy of respect. On the other hand, negative self-esteem implies that one dislikes or disapproves of oneself; that one devalues oneself and sometimes feels inferior to others; that one perceives oneself to be a worthless person or worthy of condemnation. Self-adequacy refers to judgments we make about our own competence whereas negative self-adequacy denotes the feelings of incompetence, the perceived inability to meet day-to-day demands successfully, feelings that one can not complete successfully for the things one wants. It is again highlighted in the theory that all of us can place ourselves somewhere along this continuum (Rohner, 1986).

IPARTheory explains the connection between perceived rejection and negative self-evaluation through the assumption that individuals who feel rejected are supposed to develop feelings of impaired self-esteem and impaired self-adequacy because they tend to evaluate themselves as they think their parents or significant others evaluate them. If a person thinks or believes that he or she is unloved by her parents or significant other, she is likely to feel that she is unlovable, even unworthy of being loved. This may bring about her to feel she is not good at satisfying her personal needs, which in turn makes her think less well of herself more globally. Perceived rejection may diminish her capacity to deal effectively with stress, causing her to be less emotionally stable than people who feel accepted. All these painful feelings related with rejection tend to create a negative worldview about the very nature of human existence-as being
untrustworthy, hostile, unfriendly, emotionally unsafe, threatening, or dangerous (Rohner, 2004).

*Worldview* is another disposition elaborated in the personality subtheory; which is stated as a significant element in the personality repertoire of humans everywhere. As used in IPAR Theory, it refers to a person’s (often unverbalized) overall evaluation of life, of the universe, of the very essence of existence as being essentially positive or negative. A person with a positive worldview sees life as basically good, secure, friendly, happy, or unthreatening. On the contrary, life is seen as essentially bad, insecure, threatening, unpleasant, hostile, uncertain, and full of dangers by people having a negative worldview (Rohner, 1986).

The seventh personality disposition of concern in IPAR Theory is *emotional stability*, which refers to one’s steadiness of mood, his or her ability to withstand minor setbacks, failures, difficulties, and other stresses without becoming upset emotionally. Emotional unstability on the other pole of the continuum corresponds to unpredictable and rapid fluctuations in mood, being easily agitated due to setbacks, difficulties, and disappointments, and losing easily their dignity under stress (Rohner, 1986).

Negative worldview, self-esteem, self-adequacy, and some of the other personality dispositions described above form the basic elements of the social cognitions or mental representations of rejected individuals. These mental representations of self, significant others, and of the world may cause individuals to search or seek certain people and situations. For instance, some rejected individuals may have an inclination to perceive hostility where none is intended, rejection in unintended verbal or nonverbal behaviors of significant others and they may devalue themselves in such situations. This is because they interpret and perceive experiences, situations, and relationships in ways that are compatible with their distorted mental representations (Rohner, 2005a).
In a comprehensive meta analysis of 88 studies on perceived rejection in relationships, Gerber and Wheeler (2009) found that rejection was negatively associated with self-esteem moderately in effect size and through the mechanism of interruption of a basic need: belonging. They argued that the need to belong is a basic component of self-esteem and perceived rejection leads someone not to satisfy the need to belong. They also concluded that rejected people feel bad about themselves and think that they are about to lose a relationship. Given the fact that self-esteem is an important marker of psychological adjustment, the link from perceived rejection to psychological adjustment can be deemed reasonable.

As stated above, those seven personality dispositions are thought to be indicators of psychological adjustment or psychological maladjustment based on the degree of perceived acceptance or severity of perceived rejection coming from people most important to us. Moreover, the difference between accepted and rejected individuals is not about the kind of personality dispositions, but the degree of them.

2.4 Intimate Partner Control and Marital Adjustment

In the case of parent-child relationship, the association between parental warmth along with a firm behavioral control (in the context of behavioral monitoring) and psychological adjustment has been consistently reported both theoretically and empirically, as important and necessary components of parenting, yet culture-bond variations may exist (Lavi & Slone, 2008). The underlying fact behind this association is that children need discipline and boundaries in company of a warm and loving relationship with their parents, provided that neither permissive nor strict or restrictive control (the two extreme poles of behavioral control dimension in IPARTheory) being employed. Even so, cross-cultural studies have found control patterns to be differentially related to children’s behavior in different cultures. As opposed to this, parental warmth
appears to be an inter-cultural factor such that its character and influence are more or less similar in different cultures (Lavi & Slone, 2008).

The studies on the relationship between perceived parental control and adolescent psychological adjustment have not yet produced consistent results except a few showing a negative association, especially for coercive or restrictive behavioral control and psychological control (e.g., Boudreau-Bouchard et al., 2013; Gürel, 2013; Kakihara, Tilton-Weaver, Kerr, & Stattin, 2010; Parmar & Rohner, 2010; Riaz, 2003), which is awaiting future research (Khaleque & Rohner, 2012). Some studies are also available addressing the positive impact of parental behavioral control not being too restrictive or permissive on youth adjustment (e.g., Li, Zhang, & Wang, 2015; Matos-Frances, 2006; Sorkhabi & Middaugh, 2014). The clarification for conceptualization of parental control was presented in 90s by Steinberg (1990) and Barber (1996) by introducing the distinction between parental behavioral control and psychological control, the former mostly referring to parental behavioral regulation like setting expectations and behavioral monitoring whereas the latter referring to manipulative and intrusive behaviors inducing guilt and shame. However, the debate has been still on the spotlight including the question whether behavioral control and psychosocial outcomes for children and youth is linear or curvilinear in and of itself (Soenens & Beyers, 2012).

On the other hand, the role of perceived intimate partner behavioral control in marriage relationship drawing upon IPART Theory not only has not been fully clarified but also do not find almost any place except a few one. The two poles, which are extreme permissiveness and restrictive control have been speculated by Rohner (personal communication, October 23, 2017) to be associated with low marital satisfaction, yet he underlined that cultural, gender, and social class differences could be possible confounding factors in this association. He exemplified that in the USA, marital satisfaction is probably most often associated with minimal spousal control (i.e., with a fair degree of
permissiveness, but presumably not extreme permissiveness which could be interpreted as spousal indifference or withdrawal of love and affection. In other parts of the world (cultural differences) people (especially wives) may expect their spouses to be fairly controlling (moderate to firm in control). Behaviors aimed to monitor the partner’s whereabouts could be interpreted as sign of love rather than a sign of distrust and disrespect towards the partner. Even jealousy to some extent, which is a central component of measures designed to assess controlling behaviors in intimate relationships, could be seen as a sign of commitment (Graham-Kevan, 2004). If the spouse (e.g., husband) is not somewhat controlling, then this could be interpreted by the wife as “he doesn’t care about me”. So, here there could be gendered expectations as to the behavioral control of the partner.

Moreover, the cultural context in which relationships are positioned is a significant determinant on whether or not a behavior is coercively controlling (Bishop & Bettinson, 2018). As the example clearly points out, the association between perceived behavioral control and marital outcomes, mediated or not by psychological adjustment, could be affected by other variables. Over and above, in the intimate partner abuse/violence literature, behavioral control is regarded as a coercive act within the dimension of social and/or emotional abuse or a type of violence as well (Outlaw, 2009). To designate a controlling behavior as an abusive act, specific parameters like context, frequency, duration, intensity, motivation of the behavior, and potential threatening consequences following the noncompliance should be present (Graham-Kevan, 2004).

Controlling behaviors encapsulate economic deprivation, jealous and possessive behavior, insults and name calling, threats, intimidation, and isolating. In that respect and when taken as an abusive act, researchers have long acknowledged the link between intimate partner abuse of any kind and numerous variables like low self-esteem, depression, anxiety, low marital satisfaction, and low marital adjustment, pertaining to negative psychological outcomes and marital quality.
For instance, a body of research showed the precursor role of controlling behaviors from an intimate partner on the likelihood of physical and sexual violence towards the partner or the spouse (e.g. Antai, 2011; Graham-Kevan & Archer, 2008; Hunt, 2007), which was directly and negatively affecting dyadic adjustment or satisfaction of couples. Yet, Rohner emphasized that behavioral control part of IPARTheory was not designed as a measure of abuse or as an indicator of domestic violence, even the strictest or most controlling forms of behavior assessed on the measure (personal communication, April 11, 2018). He also stated that perceived strict behavioral control was associated with perceived intimate partner rejection.

### 2.5 Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection and Marital Adjustment

As IPARTheory posits, perceived intimate partner acceptance encapsulates warmth, affection, love, nurturance, compassion, companionship, interest, understanding, sincerity, responsibility, equality, trust, respect, concern, care, sensitivity, appraisal, self-verification, consistency, support, and empathy being showed towards the spouse. Whereas intimate partner rejection refers to neglect, indifference, hostility, and aggression being directed to the spouse.

Marriage literature is quite rich in terms of empirical proofs regarding the positive effects of variables related to perceived intimate partner acceptance stated above on marital satisfaction, adjustment, quality of couples. To cite a few, Çağ and Yıldırım (2013) confirmed the association between support and marital satisfaction; Sacco and Phares (2001) for spouse appraisal; İnal (2014) for caregiving quality; Öztürk (2017) for love; Mcdonald, Olson, Lanning, Goddard, and Marshall (2018); Wilcox and Nock (2006) for perceived equality in the marriage relationship; Allen and Thompson (1984) for understanding; and Weger (2005) for self-verification. Indifference and neglect in a marriage relationship is communicated by distance and lack of involvement with the spouse through such behaviors as avoiding physical contact, ignoring emotional
& physical needs, and using impersonal language (Weger, 2005). It can be concluded that perceived intimate partner acceptance is associated in terms of its several aspects with marital adjustment of married individuals. The more s/he feels being accepted in the marriage the better her/his adjustment to the marriage relationship.

2.6 Psychological Adjustment and Marital Adjustment

Huntington (1958) suggested defining the social relationship (dyadic group) to be able to study on marital relationship. According to him, a social relationship is formed through (1) the interaction which occurs between the two partners of the relationship, and includes (2) portions of each partner’s personalities which are in any respect oriented to or affected by the personality of the other partner. Interaction refers to the overt actions of each of the partners. In this sense, the conceptualization itself makes a reference to the interplay between personality and interactions in marital relationship.

The link between psychological adjustment and marital adjustment has consistently been established by numerous studies, though different results exist regarding the direction of the association between the two. Terman (1938) could be regarded as the first author to come up with the hypothesis that personality characteristics are related to marital happiness, which was verified with a sample of 792 married couples. He concluded that certain characteristics like secure, affectionate, cooperative, and benevolent, which were associated with well-adjusted personalities, were highly and positively correlated with marital happiness of the couples. On the contrary, persons who were unhappy in their marriages were found to get high scores on personality characteristics like insecurity, hostility, being loaded with inferiority feelings, and uncooperativeness. His inspiring book attracted many others to follow this postulate and went down deep of the issue. Initial attempts on the topic were mostly consisting efforts to predict marital adjustment, satisfaction, or happiness
by personality traits based on several personality inventories (e.g.; Newcomb & Bentler, 1980) and some specific indicators of psychological adjustment like anxiety, neuroticism (e.g.; Kelly & Conley, 1987), depression (e.g., Gotlib & Whiffen, 1989), perfectionism, and self-esteem (e.g., Barnett & Nietzel, 1979). Those studies mostly reported significant associations between marital adjustment and the latter variables pertaining to personality characteristics.

In current literature encompassing the past 20 years, marital adjustment has been explored in relation to a great variety of psychological constructs as being related to psychological adjustment or maladjustment. In present study, psychological adjustment was addressed in the framework of perceived intimate partner acceptance-rejection and control theory.

Although the association between psychological adjustment and marital adjustment has been confirmed by various studies (Akdağ, 2014; Kam, Dush, Taylor, & Kroeger, 2008; Shek, 2001), it is agreed upon in the marriage literature that there exists a bidirectional relationship between the two rather than a unidirectional causal link. In other words, marital adjustment influences and is influenced by psychological adjustment. As this study proposed, the link from psychological adjustment to marital adjustment would have some underlying implications by all means. There are many empirical evidence showing the strong association between parental and/or intimate partner acceptance/rejection and psychological adjustment of the individual (Chyung & Lee, 2008; Khaleque & Rohner, 2012; Varan, Rohner, & Eryüksel, 2008;). Individuals who experienced intimate partner rejection are supposed to believe that they are unworthy of love and satisfaction in their close relationships because of impaired self-esteem and misinterpretation of the actions of others in a negative way (Rohner, 2004). On the contrary, perceived intimate partner acceptance is associated with a better psychological adjustment encompassing a higher self-esteem and self-adequacy, emotional responsiveness, positive worldview, lower aggression/hostility, higher emotional stability, and a healthy independence.
Those elements in one’s psychological adjustment would contribute to regulating his/her emotions, investing into relationships based on emotional and physical availability, trusting oneself and others, maintaining hope, resolving conflicts, managing and compromising negative situations, and sustaining intimate bonds in sum; all of which could be necessary ingredients of a close and satisfying marital relationship or better adjustment in the marriage.

Psychological adjustment nurtured or promoted by perceived intimate partner acceptance or not and given the fact that there are number of factors associated with it, was conceptualized in this study as the overall profile on the personality dispositions of IPARTTheory, which were thought to be most related with perceived acceptance-rejection/control. These are hostility/aggression, dependence, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, emotional unresponsiveness, emotional instability, and negative worldview.

To begin with hostility/aggression, many studies showed that it has a strong association with marital adjustment directly and/or via influencing perceptions of close relationships and increasing the likelihood of destructive marital conflict (e.g., Baron et al., 2007; Cihan-Güngör, 2007; Coyne et al., 2017; Hammet, Lavner, Karney, & Bradbury, 2017; Lorenz, Hraba, & Pechacova, 2001). Self-esteem was supposed to increase marital adjustment by the ability of self and other acceptance as well as a positive attitude towards oneself and others (e.g., Bélanger et al., 2014; Cihan-Güngör, 2007; Cirhinlioğlu, Kindap-Tepe, & Cirhinlioğlu, 2017; Turanlı, 2010). Emotional stability was associated with higher marital quality via the ability to not experiencing fluctuations in mood and balancing reactions in difficult and stressful times (e.g., Khalatbari, Ghorbanshiroudi, Azari, Bazleh, & Safaryazdi, 2013). Emotional responsiveness also predicted higher marital satisfaction through communicating emotions in the marriage relationship and with the spouse (e.g., Badr, Acitelli, & Taylor, 2008). Self-adequacy also contributed to higher marital adjustment by a more
positive self-evaluation of oneself regarding the ability to accomplish things (e.g., Cihan-Güngör, 2007).

2.7 Empirical Research on Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control, Psychological Adjustment and Marital Adjustment

In the international literature, in many studies from different countries of the world like Kuwait (Parmar, Ibrahim, & Rohner, 2008), Finland (Khaleque, Rohner, & Laukkala, 2008), Korea (Chyung & Lee, 2008), USA (Rohner, Melendez, & Kraimer-Rickaby, 2008), and Japan (Rohner, Uddin, Shamsunnaher, & Khaleque, 2008), there is ample evidence showing significant positive correlations between remembered childhood parental acceptance and intimate partner acceptance. In Turkey, same results were found with a sample of 681 Turkish adults in ongoing attachment relationships (Varan, Rohner, & Eryüksel, 2008). In other words, the higher the remembered childhood parental acceptance level the greater the intimate partner acceptance perceived by an individual. These studies also lend strong support for the central postulate of IPARTheory stating that perceived rejection by a significant other at any point in life is likely to be associated with psychological maladjustment; meaning that the less loving adults perceive their partners to be and the less loving they remember either their mothers or fathers to have been in childhood, the more psychologically maladjusted they tend to be.

The first empirical support for the basic postulate of IPARTheory asserting that perceived acceptance-rejection/control by a significant other at any point in life is likely to be associated with the same cluster of personality dispositions found among children and adults rejected by major caregivers in childhood came from Khaleque in 2001 (as cited in Rohner, 2008). Consisting of 88 heterosexual adult females (6% married, 83% in a romantic relationship, and the rest reported their non-romantic boyfriends as their attachment figures) in U.S, the associations among perceived parental acceptance-rejection/control, intimate partner
acceptance-rejection/control and psychological adjustment of the participants were investigated (Rohner & Khaleque, 2008). It was found that there was a strong negative correlation between perceived intimate partner acceptance and control, which means that more behaviorally controlling partners were seen to be less loving they were perceived to be, though on average participants tended to see their intimate partners as being fairly permissive in their control. Over and above, perceived intimate partner control was associated with women’s psychological adjustment, meaning the more behaviorally controlling partners were perceived to be the more psychologically distressed the women reported themselves to be. However, it was realized that this association was not a result of an independent contribution of perceived intimate partner control but it was an artifact of the correlation between perceived partner control and acceptance.

Eryavuz (2006) studied the effect of remembered childhood parental acceptance-rejection and intimate partner acceptance-rejection on close relationships in her doctoral dissertation. The sample of the study consisted of 153 dating and 145 married (a total of 298) participants. The results of the study showed that both married and single participants, who had been rejected by their mothers and/or fathers in childhood and who were currently being rejected by their intimate partners, were significantly less satisfied with their current relationship compared to individuals who perceived acceptance by their parents in their childhood and who were currently being accepted by their intimate partners. Participants currently satisfied with their relationship were also compared to the ones who were not satisfied in terms of their psychological adjustment levels. Likewise, currently dissatisfied participants in their intimate relationships reported significantly more aggression, dependency, emotional instability and less emotional responsiveness, self-esteem, self-adequacy, and negative worldview than satisfied participants. Moreover, for female participants respectively perceived childhood paternal undifferentiated rejection, current intimate partner control, perceived childhood maternal indifference/neglect, and perceived childhood paternal hostility/aggression, and for male participants
perceived intimate partner acceptance/rejection, perceived childhood paternal undifferentiated rejection, and perceived childhood maternal rejection significantly predicted their current psychological adjustment levels. The author noted that perceived acceptance from wives for males and perceived acceptance from fathers in childhood for females were more critical and influential for their psychological adjustment. For women, only one factor from current romantic relationship, which is perceived intimate partner behavioral control, was found to be related with psychological adjustment.

Erdoğan-Taycan and Çelik-Kuruoğlu (2014) aimed to explore marital adjustment according to several independent variables like attachment styles, temperament and character features in couples who sought psychological consultation for their marriage problems. The authors used the Birtchnell Partner Evaluation Scale to measure the partners’ evaluation of each other in their marriage relationship on the dimensions of dependency, control, detachment, and dependability. To some extent, the scale has similar items with the subscales of warmth and control of the Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire like “Insists that I must do exactly as s(he) tells me”, “Tries to control what I do”, “Has a lot of rules and tries to make me stick to them”, “Gives me as much freedom as I want”, “Would like to be able to tell me what to do all the time”. When compared to control group without marital problems, it was found that wives having marital problems with low marital adjustment reported significantly more control, detachment and less dependability from their husbands. Furthermore, men with high marital conflict and low marital adjustment self-reported significantly more dependency and less dependability in contrast with men in control group.

In a similar vein, Kabakçı, Tuğrul and Öztan (1993) divided 260 men and 254 women into two groups on the basis of their satisfaction in marriage relationship. Then, they compared those satisfied and not satisfied women and men separately according to dependency, control, detachment and dependability dimensions of
the Birtchnell Partner Evaluation Scale. Results showed that both women and men in satisfied group evaluated their partners significantly less controlling, less dependent, less detached and more dependable than those in dissatisfied group.

Gökmen (2001) studied the predictive role of perceived control and dependency on marital satisfaction of 400 married individuals (200 male, 200 female) along with the aim to explore probable gender differences of those perceptions. Birtchnell Partner Evaluation Scale was used to measure control and dependency perceived from spouse. It was found that husbands perceived significantly more control from their wives and they reported better marital adjustment in their marriages; whereas wives perceived their husbands significantly more dependent. Perceived control and dependency from husbands did not predict marital satisfaction level of wives at all. However, results showed that joint effect of perceived low control and high dependency from wives predicted lowest marital satisfaction level of husbands. Interaction effects of perceived low control and low dependency or perceived high control and high dependency from wife predicted highest marital adjustment for husbands. The author denoted the cultural implication of this result in the way that perceived control from spouse in Western cultures is something detrimental to the marriage relationship. However, in Turkish culture and especially for husbands, perceived control from spouse may not be a negatively attributed aspect of marriage relationship.

Basha (2014) studied perceived intimate rejection, behavioral control, and its relation to personality dispositions among 233 married adults (134 female, 99 male) in Egypt with a further aim to explore resilience as a protective factor. He reported significant positive correlation between intimate partner acceptance-rejection/control and psychological adjustment for both husbands and wives and significant gender differences favoring females in the domains of perceived rejection, behavioral control, negative self-adequacy, emotional instability, and negative world-view.
Harper, Dickson, and Welsh (2006) examined the link between rejection sensitivity, self-silencing behaviors, and depressive symptomatology among 211 adolescent dating couples who were dating at least 4 weeks. Specifically, the mediator role of self-silencing behaviors was sought in the relationship between rejection sensitivity and depressive symptomatology. No gender difference was found in terms of rejection sensitivity and depressive symptomatology. Mediation analysis indicated that there was a strong and significant association between rejection sensitivity and reports of depressive symptoms among dating adolescents. In addition to direct association, self-silencing behaviors acted as a partial mediator in this association meaning that those who are sensitive to rejection from their intimate partners exhibits more self-silencing behaviors, which in turn heightens depressive symptomatology.

Öztürk (2013) investigated the interrelationships between in-laws acceptance-rejection, intimate partner acceptance-rejection, marital conflict, and overall marital satisfaction levels of 136 married couples (272 individuals) from different cities. He found that there was a very strong and negative correlation between perceived intimate partner rejection and overall marital satisfaction evaluation for wives and husbands. Perceived behavioral control was also weak to moderately and negatively correlated with marital satisfaction for both gender. Perceived intimate partner rejection predicted overall marital satisfaction and explained 36% variance for wives and 23% for husbands as well.

Karpat (2010) compared parental acceptance-rejection, intimate partner acceptance-rejection, marital conflict/problem index, and psychological adjustment levels of 140 women with and without spouses with alcohol problems. He reported that the strongest correlation emerged between perceived intimate partner rejection and marital conflict/problem for both groups. Moreover, intimate partner acceptance-rejection was found to be associated with current psychological adjustment level of the participants regardless of spouse’s alcoholism.
Chyung and Lee (2008) examined whether perceived intimate partner acceptance/rejection was related to psychological adjustment and whether gender difference existed in this relation. The sample of the study consisted of 133 college students (98% unmarried, 2% married, 65% among the unmarried students reported being in a romantic relationship, and 36% being in non-romantic friendship). Significant correlations were found between perceived intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment for both women and men. However, intimate partner acceptance uniquely and independently contributed to psychological adjustment for men only. The contribution of intimate partner acceptance to women’s psychological adjustment was through the combination of three predictors which were remembered paternal acceptance, maternal acceptance, and intimate partner acceptance.

Geitsidou and Giovazolias (2016) recently investigated the associations among intimate partner acceptance/rejection, resilience, and subjective well-being in a sample of 316 individuals (51.3% married, 49.7% currently in a romantic relationship). Subjective well-being, being a composite concept of positive psychology, was suggested to be somewhat equivalent with psychological adjustment in the sense that it comprises satisfaction with life, positive emotion, energy, and sociability/empathy. The results showed that perceived intimate partner acceptance-rejection predicted subjective well-being levels of the participants. Moreover, further analysis indicated that perceived intimate partner rejection had an indirect effect on subjective well-being via full mediation by resilience scores of the male and female participants.

Varan, Rohner, and Eryüksel (2008) explored the relations among intimate partner acceptance-rejection, remembered parental acceptance-rejection in childhood, and psychological adjustment of 681 Turkish adults (520 women, 161 men) in ongoing attachment relationships with their intimate partners. Results of the analyses confirmed the basic postulate of IPARTheory. In addition to
significant positive correlation between perceived intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment, perceived partner acceptance made significant and independent contribution to psychological adjustment levels of both men and women.

Khaleque and Rohner (2013) conducted a large scale study with 1709 adults from 10 different countries including Bangladesh, Colombia, Finland, India, Japan, Korea, Kuwait, Puerto-Rico, Turkey, and the USA, with the aim of examining the effects of multiple acceptance and rejection (remembered maternal and paternal acceptance-rejection in childhood and intimate partner acceptance-rejection in adulthood) on adults’ current psychological adjustment. The participants were divided into two groups according to the level of perceived acceptance-rejection from multiple attachment figures on the basis of cut of points to determine accepted-by-all group and rejected-by-all group. It was found that individuals in multiple acceptance group reported significantly higher psychological adjustment than the ones in multiple rejection group.

Khaleque, Rohner, and Laukkala (2008) investigated the relations among perceived parental acceptance-rejection in childhood, perceived intimate partner acceptance-rejection, and psychological adjustment in a sample of 166 university students (32 men, 134 women; 76% unmarried of which 19% were in non romantic friendships, 24% married) in Finland. Significant positive correlations were found between intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment for female participants only and perceived parental acceptance and psychological adjustment for both males and females. In addition, neither partner nor parental control was significantly correlated with psychological adjustment for males and females. However, they found a significant and strong negative correlation between intimate partner acceptance and intimate partner control, meaning that the more controlling individuals perceive their partners to be, the less loving (accepting) partners are perceived to be. For women only, both intimate partner acceptance and remembered paternal acceptance were
significantly and independently associated with their psychological adjustment. For men, the linear combination of intimate partner, maternal, and paternal acceptance were significantly associated with their psychological adjustment levels. It should be noted that the number of male participants were quite low, which could have limited the statistical power of the results.

Khaleque, Shirin, and Uddin (2013) explored relations among remembered parental acceptance-rejection in childhood, perceived spouse acceptance-rejection, and psychological adjustment of 354 married individuals (178 men, 176 women) in Bangladesh. Results showed that spouse acceptance was positively correlated with psychological adjustment for wives and husbands. Further analysis indicated that paternal and spousal acceptance predicted psychological adjustment for wives whereas maternal and spousal acceptance were associated with only husbands’ psychological adjustment. It was also found that paternal and maternal acceptance mediated the relationship between spouse acceptance and psychological adjustment for both males and females.

Varan (2003) investigated the link between perceived parental acceptance-rejection in childhood and perceived partner acceptance-rejection in adulthood. He divided 245 dating or married individuals into two group based on their satisfaction level in their current relationships assessed by a 4-point Likert-type scale single item. It was found that respondents in dissatisfied group reported significantly higher rejection from their current intimate partners and parents in childhood compared to the ones in satisfied group. Accordingly, participants in satisfied group perceived significantly more intimate partner acceptance than participants in dissatisfied group.

Akdağ (2014) aimed to predict psychological well-being in married individuals according to their relationships with family of origin, self-esteem, and marital satisfaction in a sample of 386 adults. It was found that there was a significant and moderate correlation between marital satisfaction and psychological well-
being. Also, self-esteem and marital satisfaction were found to be significant predictors of psychological well-being.

Yeşiltepe (2011) studied marital adjustment in relation to psychological well-being and some demographic variables with 343 married elementary and secondary school teachers living in Mersin. The results showed no significant difference of marital adjustment in terms of gender and age of the participants, except number of children at home. Teachers with no children reported significantly better marital adjustment than those with one or more than one children. Furthermore, autonomy, self-acceptance, and personal development subdimensions of psychological well-being scale were significantly predicted the marital adjustment levels of the teachers.

In a 7-year longitudinal research between 1994 and 2001 with 3 time-intervals for assessment, Donnellan, Larsen-Rife, and Conger (2005) studied origins of competence in early adult romantic relationships in terms of family history and personality traits of the participants through the transition from adolescence to early adulthood. They found that negative emotionality encompassing anger, distress, and anxiety was linked to the overall evaluation of the relationship quality both directly and indirectly through negative interactions with the romantic partner. In the last assessment, majority of the participants (%85) were married.

A recent longitudinal study by Henry, Thornberry, and Lee (2015) examined the protective effects of intimate partner relationships on depressive symptomatology among 485 adult parents, 99 maltreated during their childhood. The interviews were conducted 12 times annually from 1999 to 2010 to estimate relationship satisfaction and stability on depressive symptomatology by maltreatment status. It was found that higher relationship satisfaction and stability were prospectively predictive of less depressive symptomatology. Between and within persons models were also tested in terms of relationship
characteristics and depressive symptomatology; meaning that a more satisfying relationship satisfaction and stability were linked to fewer depressive symptoms between persons and periods of lower relationship satisfaction and stability were associated with higher depressive symptoms within persons. Moreover, the study implied that positive intimate relationships may reduce and buffer the negative effects of childhood maltreatment on adult depressive symptoms.

Though not in the context of intimate partner acceptance-rejection, Meth (1999) investigated the relationship between remembered parental acceptance-rejection/control in childhood and marital adjustment levels of 55 intact families (110 married individuals) living in Georgia, USA. It was found that perceived remembered parental acceptance was significantly correlated with current marital satisfaction for husbands only. Perceived remembered parental behavioral control was not correlated with marital adjustment for both husbands and wives.

Oliver (2000) studied the role of early experiences and current marital context in men’s depressive symptomatology in a sample of 76 married men using mediating and moderating hypotheses. Hierarchical regression analyses revealed that perceived spousal intolerance/criticism, maternal and paternal rejection, and childhood physical abuse were significantly predicted depressive symptomatology. Path analysis showed that maternal rejection in childhood had an indirect effect of depressive symptoms through current attachment relationship with the wife by inducing fears of being unloved and/or abandoned and by difficulties in developing closeness, intimacy and trust with the spouse. However, paternal rejection was found to be directly related to depressive symptoms. Finally, it was reported that current emotional bond (intimacy, trust, comfort) with the spouse was more influential and determinant than childhood experiences with parents on the level of adult depressive symptomatology.
İmamoğlu and Yasak (1997) aimed to determine various dimensions of marital relationships including sociodemographic factors, marital attitudes, participation in family roles, perception of relationships with spouse, interspouse feelings, sexuality, and perceived problems as perceived by 456 couples living in big cities of Turkey (77% of the participants from İstanbul, Ankara and İzmir) and from different SES groups. Varimax rotated factor analysis results showed that the first and most powerful factor of a marital relationship was harmonious relations with spouse being associated with holding a positive and affectionate view of the spouse as a person, and as a contributor to the marital relationship, holding a positive view of the relationship as involving commitment and communication, and perceiving the spouse as loving and getting sexual satisfaction in the marriage.

Baron and his colleagues (2007) investigated hostility, anger, concurrent ratings of the relationship, and change in marital adjustment over 18 months in 122 married couples. Both men’s and women’s anger and hostility were significantly associated with concurrent ratings of marital adjustment and conflict. Preliminary analyses showed that wives’ but not husbands hostility and anger were related to decrease in marital satisfaction of both. Hierarchical analyses indicated that women’s anger accounted for marital adjustment of wives and husbands. Further analysis using SEM confirmed that this association between the two was mediated by husbands’ initial ratings of marital conflict.

Eryılmaz and Doğan (2013) examined the mediator role of need satisfaction (autonomy need, relatedness need, and competence need) between subjective well-being and romantic relationships quality in a sample of 235 dating emerging adults. Results showed that satisfaction of the needs in a romantic relationship was directly and moderately associated with relationship satisfaction and strongly with subjective well-being that was measured. Besides, SEM analysis revealed that need satisfaction was significantly mediated the association between relationship satisfaction and subjective well-being.
Weger (2005) examined the associations among disconfirming communication (demand-withdraw interaction pattern during conflicts), self-verification (feeling understood), and marital satisfaction of 53 married couples. A theoretical model was presented and tested depicting those presumed associations. The authors mentioned that disconfirming communication is about rejecting of another’s experience whereas self-verification is an important component for feeling accepted by the partner. Results revealed that self-verification had a significant direct effect on marital satisfaction levels of both husbands and wives, with a large effect size. Besides, disconfirming communication pattern, which is characterized by withdrawal of a partner in case of a demand by the spouse, was indirectly and negatively associated with marital satisfaction through the mediator role of self-verification.

2.8 Summary of Literature Review

Interpersonal Acceptance-Rejection Theory with 30 years of history, originally focused on parent-child relationship, has been a widely-referred theory of socialization. The theory puts emphasis on the vital importance of feeling accepted, and the detrimental effects of feeling rejected in relationships, especially intimate ones. Marital relationship is well-suited to be a context of intimate relationship to test the basic premise of IPARTheory, that perceived acceptance from a significant other is related with some personality dispositions like self-esteem, self-adequacy, emotional stability etc. Existing literature on this relation has produced robust findings, yet not much on conjugal context.

Behavioral control part of the IPARTheory has been formulated in the theory on its’ association with psychological adjustment, but empirical findings has been quite limited on the issue. The role of behavioral control has been addressed by many studies in the relationship between parent-child and parent-adolescent, yet it has not been clear on the context of romantic relationships like marriage.
Among the existing studies on the role of behavioral control in marital relationship, two different findings have been emerged. The first one is that maritally dissatisfied groups reported higher control from their spouses. The second one is the non-significant predictive role of perceived control on the marital satisfaction of women, but not men. It is quite obvious that the behavioral control dimension of a marriage relationship may have triggered different results.

The bidirectional connection between marital adjustment and psychological adjustment has been demonstrated by plenty of studies. The literature has been still accumulating on this link with an attempt to explore different variables pertaining to psychological adjustment. Consensus of those studies has shared the fact that both variables affect each other. In other words, an individual with a better psychological adjustment may also adjust to his/her marriage in a better way.

Although the literature on marital adjustment in the context of IPARTTheory is quite limited, there are many studies showing the association of marital adjustment with self-verification, empathy, affection, anger, hostility, trust, respect, and kindness, which are the core components of feeling accepted in an intimate relationship.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents the information about methodological procedures followed throughout the study. The first section presents details about the research design of the study. The second section included sampling procedure and the demographic characteristics of the participants. The data collection instruments were introduced in the third section. Procedures pursued regarding ethical permissions and data collection were mentioned in the fourth section. Finally, data analyses and limitations of the study were specified.

3.1 Design of the Study

The purpose of the study was to explore the associations among perceived intimate partner acceptance/rejection, perceived intimate partner behavioral control, psychological adjustment, and marital adjustment of husbands and wives based on IPART Theory. More specifically, it was also aimed to examine to what extent intimate partner acceptance-rejection/control were associated with the marital adjustment of couples and to test whether psychological adjustment functioned as a mediator between the two. Participants of the study were 624 married individuals living in different cities of Turkey.

In line with this purpose, correlational design was employed in the study, yet this design is used when the relationship among two or more variables is examined by making predictions about the other or examining the associations between two or more variables (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). In this study, the researcher aimed to investigate both the direct and indirect associations between study
variables and to predict marital adjustment. In line with this objective, path analysis being a type of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM), was used as the primary data analysis method of the study. The Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire, the Personality Assessment Questionnaire, and the Dyadic Adjustment Scale were used as the main instruments of the study. Data were collected via an online link including the soft versions of the instruments.

3.2 Participants and Sampling

The target population of this study were the married couples in Turkey. However, the accessible sample was recruited from teachers of four private schools in Ankara, Eskişehir and Trabzon, employees of two private institutions in Ankara, and married individuals in the private network of the researcher living in İstanbul and Ankara by using convenient sampling procedure. The reason behind choosing this sampling procedure was to maximize the number of married participants by means of accessibility and proximity. In addition, the sampling was based on three criteria which asked participants to be married at least for a year, in their first marriages, and to dwell in the same house with their husbands or wives. The rationale behind the first criterion was the assumption that certain relationship dynamics in a marriage could be more crystallized over time. The third criterion was set to eliminate distant marriages in which husband or wife lives in a different city most of the time.

Data were collected throughout the month of December in 2017 from 665 married individuals living in different cities of Turkey and participating into the online survey. Six-hundered and twenty-four participants (93.8%) reported their current marriage as their first marriage and 41 participants (6.2%) as their second marriage. Participants who reported their order of marriage as second or more were not included in the data analysis. Consequently, 624 participants were included in data set prior to data analyses. Of 624 participants, 264 were male
and 360 were female (57.7%). The ages of the participants ranged between 20 and 63 with a mean of 36.82 (median = 35; mode = 33) and a standard deviation of 8.19. Average marriage year of the participants was 9.29 (minimum = 1; maximum = 33) with a standard deviation of 7.99. Sixteen of the participants (2.6%) were reported their educational background as middle school, 48 of them (7.7%) as high school, 31 of them (5%) as technical college, 344 of them (55.1%) as university, 129 of them (20.7%) as master’s degree, and 56 of them (9%) as having a doctorate degree. Majority of the participants were at least having an undergraduate degree and more; that is to say, most of the participants were from quite high educational background profile. In terms of number of children they have, 189 of the participants (30.3%) had no children, 239 of the participants (38.3%) had one child, 167 of the participants (26.8%) had two children, 29 of the participants had three or more children (4.6%).

3.3 Data Collection Instruments

In order to obtain the data of the study, four instruments were used: 1) the Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire (Rohner, 2005b), 2) the Adult Personality Assessment Questionnaire (Rohner, 2005b), 3) the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spainer, 1976), and 4) Demographic Information Form. All the instruments were transferred to an online survey package designed by the researcher via Google Forms Platform. The content and psychometric properties of the instruments with the reliability scores of the current study sample were presented below.

3.3.1 Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire (IPAR/CQ)

The Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire was developed by Rohner (2001) to measure one’s perceived acceptance-rejection and behavioral control experienced in the relationship with his/her intimate
partner. The acceptance-rejection part of the questionnaire consists of 60 items such as “My partner say nice things about me” (warmth/affection), “My partner nags or scolds me” (hostility/aggression), “My partner totally ignores me” (indifference/neglect), and “My partner does not really love me” (undifferentiated rejection). Respondents were requested to report their level of agreement on a Likert-type scale ranged from (1) almost never true to (4) almost always true, and the overall score varied between 60 and 240, with higher scores indicating greater rejection from intimate partner and lower scores referring to greater acceptance perceived. Behavioral control part of the questionnaire includes 13 items such as “My partner tells me how to behave” and “My partner wants to know my whereabouts” Scores obtained from this part ranged from minimum 13, referring maximum permissive control to 52 maximum, representing extreme restrictive control.

The Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control questionnaire has five subscales as (1) warmth/affection, (2) aggression/hostility, (3) neglect/indifference, (4) undifferentiated rejection, and (5) behavioral control. The warmth/affection scale refers to intimate partner relationships where partners are perceived to give love or affection, but not necessarily with great demonstration. Accepting partners generally like their spouses, approve of the spouse’s personality, and show an interest in the spouse’s activities as well as wellbeing. Rejection is the perceived absence or significant withdrawal of warmth and affection. The hostility/aggression scale assesses conditions where (a) individuals believe their partner is angry, bitter, or resentful of them (perceived hostility) or to conditions where (b) individuals believe their partners intends to hurt them, physically or verbally (perceived aggression). The indifference/neglect scale assesses conditions where individuals perceive their partners as unconcerned or uninterested in them. The undifferentiated rejection scale assesses conditions where individuals perceive rejection from their partners although there is none intended or expressed by them. Lastly, the behavioral
control scale measures the extent to which a partner places limits or restrictions on his/her intimate partner’s behaviors (Rohner, 2015).

All items of the Warmth/Affection and seven items of the Neglect/Indifference subscales are reversely coded. After summing up all the items, total acceptance-rejection score is obtained ranging from 60 to 240. The higher the overall score the greater the perceived rejection level of a participant whereas the lower the overall score the greater the perceived acceptance is. The scores at or above 150 correspond to experience of significantly more partner rejection than acceptance, scores between 140-149 show that respondents experience high levels of rejection but not necessarily more overall rejection than acceptance, scores between 121-139 indicate moderate rejection, and scores between 121 and 60 refer to substantial partner love perceived by the respondent. The scores obtained from behavioral control scale range from a low of 13, representing minimum behavioral control (i.e., permissiveness) to a high of 52, representing maximum restrictive control. More specifically, scores ranging from 13-26 represent permissive control, 27-39 moderate control, 40-45 firm control, and 46-52 restrictive control (Rohner, 2005b). Rohner’s study (2005b) showed that IPAR/CQ is a valid and reliable instrument with the internal consistency reliability coefficients as .74 for the acceptance-rejection part and .85 for the behavioral control part for the American sample. Test-retest reliability of the entire IPAR/CQ was found as .97 over the span of four weeks. In factor analysis, acceptance and rejection were emerged as two independent factors in the first part. Regarding control portion, permissive and strict factors were reported to emerge.

Turkish adaptation of IPAR/CQ was conducted by Varan (2003) with 1700 participants from clinical and nonclinical samples between ages of 17 and 78 years. The Cronbach alpha values for the overall questionnaire was found as .97, for the first four subscales were ranged between .85 and .96. Test-retest reliability for the entire questionnaire was not calculated in Turkish sample.
construct validity of the questionnaire was explored via factor analysis. Firstly, all items were clustered as triad or quadro, then the factor analysis was administered to the scores of those clusters. As a result of oblimin rotation and as expected by the researcher, all the item clusters were loaded into two separate factors. Clusters loaded to those two factors which had eigenvalues of 9.78 and 1.78, were examined, then first factor was named as “rejection” and the second factor was named as “acceptance”. It was concluded that rejection and acceptance factors explained 72.26% of the total variance.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient for the Control subscale was calculated as .88 by Varan (2003). To explore construct validity of the Control subscale, a factor analysis was performed. As expected, five clusters were generated beforehand loaded into two factors. Clusters loaded to those two factors which had eigenvalues of 3.02 and 1.08 were examined, then first factor was named as “permissiveness” and the second factor was named as “strictness”. Those two factors explained 82% of the variance of the Control subscale. Consequently, IPAR/CQ was stated as a valid and reliable questionnaire for Turkish sample by the author (See Appendix A). In this study, Cronbach’s alpha as the reliability index of the questionnaire was found as .84 for the total scale, .74 for acceptance-rejection subscale, and .88 for the behavioral control subscale.

3.3.2 Adult Personality Assessment Questionnaire (PAQ)

The Adult PAQ (Rohner, 2005b) is as a self-report questionnaire designed to assess individuals’ perceptions of themselves with respect to seven personality dispositions: (a) aggression/hostility, (b) dependency, (c) self-esteem, (d) self-adequacy, (e) emotional responsiveness, (f) emotional stability, and (g) worldview. The questionnaire has 63 items total, 9 items in each seven subscales with a 4 point Likert-type scale from 4 (almost always) to 1 (almost never true). The scales are designed to measure the personality characteristics described in IPARTRey’s personality theory. By summing the scores of seven scales, a
profile of self-reported psychological adjustment of the respondent is obtained. This is the form of adjustment or maladjustment predicted in IPARTheory to be universally associated with the experience of acceptance-rejection by attachment figures (parents, intimate partners etc.) throughout life. The PAQ ranges from a possible low score of 63 to a possible high score of 252. Higher scores refers to higher psychological maladjustment reported by the individual. Scores at or above the test midpoint of 158 indicate more overall maladjustment than adjustment. The items are written in present tense and ask respondents their actual feelings about themselves-rather than ideal or desired ones (Rohner & Ali, 2016). Sample items for the Adult PAQ are: (1) I feel resentment against people (hostility/aggression), (2) I like to be given encouragement when I have trouble with something (dependence), (3) I get disgusted with myself (negative self esteem), (4) I think I am a failure (negative self-adequacy), (5) I feel I have trouble making and keeping close, intimate friends (emotional unresponsiveness), (6) Small setbacks upset me a lot (emotional instability), and (7) I view the universe as a threatening, dangerous place (negative worldview).

In the United States, coefficient alphas of the scales ranged from .73 to .85.

Psychometric properties of the Adult Psychological Adjustment Questionnaire were examined by Varan (2003) in Turkish culture with 1700 clinical/non clinical participants aged from 17 to 78 years. The author reported in the unpublished study that total internal consistency Cronbach alpha was found as .91. For the subscales, alpha levels changed between .68 and .82. For construct validity of the questionnaire, he conducted a factor analysis to explore whether or not the original seven subscales would emerge in Turkish culture, too. All of the items in the questionnaire were clustered as triads, that making up 21 clusters in total. Then factor analysis with oblimin rotation was employed to the scores belonging to those 21 clusters. As expected, a structure with six factor was clearly appeared. The scales of negative self-esteem and negative self-efficacy were loaded in a single factor named as “the Negative Self-Evaluation” as anticipated by the researcher. Factor loadings of the remaining 5 subscales
(dependence, hostility/aggression, emotional instability, and negative worldview) showed that cluster scores of each subscale changed between .78 and .91, all of which were exactly loaded to one of the five subscales. It was found that the specified six factors explained 71.52% of the variance in adult psychological adjustment (See Appendix B).

In the light of this evidence, Varan (2003) concluded that the Adult Personality Assessment Questionnaire (PAQ) measures psychological adjustment levels of Turkish adults in a valid and reliable manner. In the current study, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of the questionnaire was found as .94 for the total scale.

### 3.3.3 Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS)

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) was developed by Spainer (1976) to measure the marital quality of couples. The scale consists of 32 items to assess dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, dyadic consensus, and affectional expression, all of which are considered as the four basic components of a relationship functioning between couples. Dyadic satisfaction refers to the general perceived happiness and the frequency of conflicts experienced in the marriage relationship. Dyadic cohesion is related to the frequency of engaging activities with the spouse. Dyadic consensus refers to the level of consensus with the spouse on important subject matters like financial issues and decision making process. Lastly, affectional expression is corresponding to how often spouses express love to each other.

There are 5-points, 6-points, 7 points Likert type items ranging between “always disagree” to “always agree” and dichotomous items like “yes or no” answers in the scale. The DAS can either be used with a total score by adding up the scores of all subscales and or the scores of the subscales can be used separately. The total scores of the DAS changes between 0 and 151 with higher scores referring to higher perception of the marital quality of the relationship. The Cronbach
alpha values of the scales were ranged from .73 to .94 for the four subscales and for the entire scale it was reported as .96. Content validity was assured by three judges and criterion validity was obtained by a high correlation ($r = .87$) with the Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test.

Turkish adaptation of the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) was carried out by Fışıloğlu and Demir (2000) with 264 married individuals who were in their first marriages (132 female, 132 male). To test the construct validity of the Turkish DAS, a principle component analysis was used to confirm the dimensions (dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, dyadic consensus, and affectional expression) as aspects of marital adjustment. In line with this purpose, the authors applied a rotated four-factor solution to the data. Results showed in accordance with the conceptual design of the DAS that, the four factors emerged with eigenvalue 9.54 for dyadic satisfaction, 1.83 for dyadic cohesion, 1.69 for dyadic consensus, and 1.51 for affectional expression. Confirming the hypothesized four factors, 45.5 % of the total variance was explained. The total internal consistency reliability score of the Turkish DAS was reported as .92. For the criterion validity, the correlation between Locke-Wallace Marital Adjustment Test and the Turkish DAS was $r = .82$. Mean score of the sample on the total scale was found as 103.7. The researchers stated that the Turkish DAS has sufficiently high reliability and construct validity (See Appendix C) to be used to assess marital adjustment levels of married individuals.

In the present study, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of the questionnaire was calculated as .95 for the total scale.

### 3.3.4 Demographic Information Form

In demographic information form which was developed by the researcher, participants were asked to specify their gender, age, length of marriage,
educational background and number of children in their current marriages (see Appendix D).

3.4 Data Collection Procedures

Prior to data collection process, several procedures were followed. First of all, the protocol of the study was approved by the Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee (See Appendix E). Secondly, authors of the instruments except demographic information form were contacted via e-mail and their permissions to use the questionnaires were obtained. And then, the authorities in the institutions whereby the participants being recruited were visited to introduce the study and take consent for getting the emails of potential participants. With other participants in the personal network of the researcher, email addresses and whatsapp application were used to deliver the survey. The rationale behind using whatsapp application was its’ practicality for a potential participant to reach the measures of the study via clicking on the link.

Later, soft versions of the instruments along with informed consent form were created in an online platform named Google Forms which is a website permitting to generate online surveys. An online link was formed through which participants were directed to the surveys of the study. Only married individuals, who were married at least for a year and dwelling with their husbands or wives, were invited to participate. Confidentiality and anonymity were ensured by adjusting the settings of the survey program and informing the participants in the introduction paragraph of the online survey protocol. In order to prevent couple interaction while filling out the survey, it was clearly requested and emphasized that they be alone.
3.5 Description of Variables

In this section, the variables of the study were introduced and operationalized. As mentioned before, the purpose of the current study was to explore the associations among perceived intimate partner acceptance/rejection, perceived intimate partner behavioral control, psychological adjustment, and marital adjustment of husbands and wives based on IPARTheory. All the variables used in the study were observed variables, meaning that total scores were computed and analyzed.

The endogenous (dependent) variable of the study was marital adjustment as measured by the total score taken from the Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS). The total score of the scale was computed via summing up all the four subscales (dyadic satisfaction, dyadic consensus, affectional expression, and dyadic cohesion). The possible total score of the variable ranges between 0 and 151.

The exogenous (independent) variable of the study was intimate partner control as measured by the total score taken from the control subscale of the Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire (IPARQ/C). The possible total score of the variable ranges between 13 and 52.

The mediator variables of the study were intimate partner acceptance as measured by the total score taken from the four subscales (warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, and undifferentiated rejection) of the Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control Questionnaire (IPARQ/C) and psychological adjustment as measured by the total score taken from the seven subscales (hostility/aggression, dependency, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, emotional unresponsiveness, emotional instability, and negative worldview) of the Adult Personality Assessment Questionnaire (PAQ). The possible total scores for intimate partner acceptance variable changes between 60-240, and for psychological adjustment between 63 and 252.
3.6 Data Analyses

Along with the aim of the study, which was to explore the associations among perceived intimate partner acceptance/rejection, perceived intimate partner behavioral control, psychological adjustment, and marital adjustment, path analysis being a special type of Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was preferred using AMOS 21 software. SEM is a collection of statistical techniques that allow a set of relationships between one or more independent variables (IVs), either continuous or discrete, and one or more dependent variables (DV$s), either continuous or discrete, to be examined. Both IV$s and DV$s can be either factors (also called latent variables, constructs, or unobserved variables) or measured variables (also called observed variables) (Ullman, 2013).

Raykov and Marcoulides (2006, p. 77) define path analysis as a type of structural equation model, which is conceived of only in terms of observed variables. Or, it is an approach to modeling explanatory relationships between observed variables, with the assumption that the exploratory variables have no measurement error (or to contain error that is only negligible). Even though some researchers do not consider path analysis as a type of SEM models, Raykov and Marcoulides (2006) argue that it should be discussed within the general SEM framework because path analysis uses the same underlying idea of model fitting and testing as the other SEM models. However, the bootstrapping is employed by taking a large number of samples of size $n$ (where $n$ is the original sample size) from the data, sampling with replacement, and computing the indirect effect for each sample. Not only indirect effect, but also the estimation and interpretation of direct and total effects of predictor and mediator variables on the dependent variable of the study are obtained.

In addition to path analysis, descriptive statistics were used to describe the participants of the study. Differences regarding gender in terms of marital
adjustment, intimate partner acceptance-rejection/control, and psychological adjustment were analyzed with independent samples t-tests.

3.7 Limitations of the Study

The present study had some limitations that should be taken into account while evaluating its results. Firstly, random sampling was not used in the process of participant selection and highly educated married individuals participated in the study, which restricted the generalizability of its findings. Secondly, the data was based on respondents’ subjective reports on questionnaires. Utility of self-report questionnaires are criticized due to some problems arising by its very nature such as social desirability. Furthermore, although participants was instructed to fill out the questionnaires alone, couple interaction could not have been prevented if any. Lastly, as Spainer and Cole (1976) discussed, marital adjustment could be studied best with a longitudinal design due to its being a process or a continuum. What was done in this research is to take a snapshot of the continuum from well-adjusted to maladjusted at one point in time.
In this chapter, the results of the study were presented in two sections as preliminary and primary analyses. Firstly, preliminary analyses including assumption checks were reported in detail. And then, descriptive statistics of the study variables and correlations among them were presented. Thirdly, the results of the path analysis to test the hypothesized model of study variables were reported. Lastly, a brief summary was given on the results of the primary analysis.

4.1 Preliminary Analyses

Before performing the main analysis of the study, preliminary analyses were conducted including assumption checks and descriptive statistics. Then inter-correlations among study variables were presented.

4.1.1 Assumption Checks

Prior to initiating the main analysis, assumptions were checked one by one, which are prerequisites to conduct a path analysis.

4.1.1.1 Data Screening

Because the data of the study were collected online via Google Forms, the system automatically recorded answers to an excel sheet item by item. The researcher did not enter the data by herself. The produced excel sheet of the Google Forms system was transferred to the SPSS.24. There were no missing
entries in the data. After obtaining the raw data, demographic variables were quantified by assigning a numeric value to each, reverse items were recoded, total scores were computed on the basis of subscales and as a whole for each study measure except demographic form. Hereby, the data set was prepared for the assumption checks.

4.1.1.2 Sample Size

There are many proposed criterion regarding the optimal or large enough sample size for different kinds of statistical operations. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007, p.143) suggests to calculate minimum required sample size with a model of N>50+8m, where m refers to the number of independent variable in the study. According to Hoelter (1983), at least 200 participants are necessary to analyze any data. When those two suggestions were taken into account, this study met the minimum requirement of a sample size to conduct a path analysis.

4.1.1.3 Missing Data

In order to prevent any missing value in the data set, the researcher took a precaution while designing the online survey in the Google Forms platform by manipulating the settings of the survey. Answering option for all the items of the study measures including demographics were adjusted to mandatory; which allowed the data being free of any missing value. If a participant chose to not fill out an item, s/he would not pass to the next item of the survey. In the introduction part of the survey protocol and before the informed consent, it was underlined that all questions of the survey were needed to be answered.

4.1.1.4 Outlier Analysis

Influential outliers were checked with SPSS.PASW; corresponding to extreme values on a single variable (a univariate outlier) or such a strange combination
of scores on two or more variables (multivariate outlier) that distorts statistics (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Univariate outliers were detected by converting study variables into standardized z-scores. Based on the criterion as Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) stated, values out of the range between -3.29 and +3.29 were detected as univariate outliers \((p < .001,\) two tailed). Nine potential outliers (4 for scores on intimate partner acceptance, 1 for scores on psychological adjustment, and 4 for scores on marital adjustment) emerged on the variables of intimate partner acceptance-rejection, intimate partner control, psychological adjustment, and marital adjustment.

Multivariate outliers were checked using AMOS 21 via calculating Mahalonobis distance (Mahalonobis \(D^2\)) corresponding to the distance of a case from the centroid of the remaining cases where the centroid is the point created at the intersection of the means of all the variables. For a case being a multivariate outlier, it needs to be significant on a very conservative probability estimate \(p < .001\) based on the chi-square value (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). Nine cases were detected as multivariate outliers exceeding the chi-square of 18.467 \((df = 4, p < .001)\) in the dataset. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2014), it is very unlikely to not to find any univariate outliers in a large sample size. However, path analysis is a multivariate one and multivariate outliers are more influential than univariate ones. Thus, because only 7 cases were considered as multivariate outliers, the researcher decided to include both univariate and multivariate outliers in the sample for the main analyses as well as descriptives. Besides, the researcher performed the main analysis with and without univariate outliers, as a result of which there were no differences between the two results.

4.1.1.5 Normality Tests

Univariate and multivariate normality assumption were tested via AMOS 21. Skewness and kurtosis indexes were used to detect univariate normality. In order for a continuous variable to be univariately normally distributed, skewness and
curtosis values should be close to zero and not exceed the range between -3 and +3 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). In this study, the indexes for skeweness ranged between -1.153 and 1.595, and for curtosis between -.323 and 2.282. Thus, univariate normality assumption was guaranteed. For multivariate normality assumption, the criterion of Raykov and Marcoulides (2008) was utilized. They states that for a data set to be distributed multivariately normal, the multivariate kurtosis value should not exceed p. (p+2), p corresponding to number of predictor variables. Since the number of predictors in this study were 2, multivariate kurtosis value should not have exceeded 8. It was found that multivariate kurtosis value for this study was 7.191, which was less than 8. Then, multivariate normality assumption was guaranteed.

4.1.1.6 Linearity and Homoscedasticity

The linearity assumption, which proposes the necessity of a straight-line relationship between variables, and the homoscedasticity assumption, which requires a homogenous distribution of the variances, were checked via visual evaluation of bivariate scatterplots, standardized residual histogram and normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). It was verified that there were linear associations and homogeneously distributed variances among variables.

4.1.1.7 Multicollinearity

Assumptions of both univariate and multivariate multicollinearity were tested via SPSS 24. To detect univariate multicollinearity, inter-correlations among the study variables were checked whether or not they exceeded the cutoff value of .90 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2014). As shown in Table 4.1, there was no correlation coefficient value more than .90 (r = -.88 max.). For multivariate multicollinearity, collinearity diagnostics were performed via SPSS 24 to explore variance inflation factors (VIF), tolerance values, condition index (CI),
and variance proportion (VP). The VIF values were ranged between 1.100 and 1.461, all of which were below 5 as the common cut off value. The values of tolerance were changed between .68 and .90, which were not close to zero, so that not problematic. The CI values in all dimensions were ranged between 1.000-13.988 one of the values in dimensions was exceeded the cut off value 30.

4.1.2 Descriptive Statistics and Gender Differences

In this section, means and standard deviations of the study variables for the total sample along with gender were reported. To test possible gender difference on study variables, several independent samples t-test were conducted. Before the independent samples t-test analyses, homogenity of variances between groups was assessed by Levene’s tests. Except for intimate partner acceptance variable, the results of the tests produced a non-significant p value (p > .05), which was enough to conclude that homogenity of variances was ensured between the groups. If homogenity of the variances is violated, SPSS produces an alternative t value. For marital adjustment variable, this t value was reported in Table 4.1. Alpha level was set to .001. Before running the tests for comparisons and to reduce the Type I error which was a possibility due to multiple comparisons, Bonferonni correction was applied by adjusting p value to .0125 (.05/4).

As presented in Table 4.1, mean score obtained for all participants on intimate partner control questionnaire was 28.03 (SD = 8.21). For intimate partner acceptance questionnaire, mean score was 93.88 (SD = 31.84). On the variable of psychological adjustment, mean score was 121.09 (SD = 25.31). In terms of marital adjustment as the outcome variable of the study, mean score was 111.98 (SD = 22.63). On the basis of gender, mean scores obtained in intimate partner acceptance-rejection questionnaire for females was 93.29 (SD = 33.32) and 94.70 (SD = 29.73) for males. For intimate partner control questionnaires, females had a mean of 26.08 (SD = 7.83) and males had a mean of 30.68 (SD = 7.98). On the variable of psychological adjustment, mean score for females was
121.97 (SD = 26.11) and 119.89 (SD = 24.18) for males. In terms of marital adjustment as the outcome variable of the study, mean score for females was 111.12 (SD = 23.82) and 113.14 (SD = 20.89) for males.

According to the results of independent tests for multiple comparisons, there were no significant differences between scores of male and female participants on intimate partner acceptance \( t (624) = .54, p = .58 \), psychological adjustment \( t (624) = -1.01, p = .31 \), and marital adjustment \( t (624) = 1.12, p = .26 \). But, men reported significantly higher partner control than women \( t (624) = 7.18, p = .000 \). When taken into account the cut off scores of the Intimate Partner Control Questionnaire, it could be possible to conclude that both men and women perceived moderate control from their intimate partners on average in the current study. Therefore, model testing was not performed separately for men and women.

### 4.1.3 Bivariate Correlations for the Study Variables

Along with the aim of the study and before testing the proposed model via path analysis, which was to explore the associations among the predictors (intimate partner acceptance-rejection, intimate partner control), mediator (psychological adjustment) and the criterion variable (marital adjustment), bivariate correlations were computed for those variables. Pearson product-moment correlations were computed for males and females separately. As a criteria for evaluating the correlation coefficients, Cohen’s standard (1988) was utilized, which suggests to consider correlations from .10 to .29 as weak, from .30 to .49 as moderate, and from .50 to 1.00 as strong. The results of the correlation analysis were given in Table 4.1.

As can be seen in Table 4.1, marital adjustment was negatively and moderately correlated with intimate partner control \( r = -.40, p < .01 \), positively and moderately correlated with psychological adjustment \( r = .34, p < .01 \); and
positively and strongly correlated with intimate partner acceptance ($r = .86, p < .01$). Except correlation results regarding marital adjustment of being the dependent variable of the study, there were significant correlations among independent variables as well. It was found a significant and strong negative correlation between perceived intimate partner acceptance and perceived intimate partner control ($r = -.49, p < .01$), meaning that the more “behaviorally controlling” spouses seem to be, the less loving or accepting they perceived to be. Moreover, perceived intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment were positively and weakly correlated ($r = .29, p < .01$). And lastly, perceived intimate partner control was negatively and weakly correlated with psychological adjustment ($r = -.18, p < .01$).

Before interpreting the results, it was considered important to remind that lower scores on the measures of intimate partner acceptance-rejection/control and psychological adjustment correspond to higher perceived acceptance, lower control from intimate partner, and better psychological adjustment of the individual. On the other hand, higher scores on dyadic adjustment scale refer to better marital adjustment for the participants. In line with this information and consistent with the expectations, results showed that marital adjustment increased as perceived intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment of the participant got higher, and perceived intimate partner control got lower for both female and male participants. In conclusion, predictor variable which was intimate partner acceptance and mediator variable which was psychological adjustment were significantly and positively, whereas perceived intimate partner control as the other predictive variable was significantly and negatively correlated with marital adjustment being the dependent variable of the study.

Afterwards, partial correlations among intimate partner control, psychological adjustment and marital adjustment were also computed after controlling the effect of intimate partner acceptance for both males and females. The correlation between intimate partner control and psychological adjustment for husbands ($r$
=.11, p >.05) and for wives (r = -.02, p >.05), along with the correlation between intimate partner control and marital adjustment for husbands (r = -.007, p >.05) and for wives (r = .008, p >.05) disappeared. Then, it was noticed that the role of intimate partner control on psychological and marital adjustment had stemmed from its association with intimate partner acceptance. On the basis of this finding, the proposed model of the study was grounded by embedding the intimate partner acceptance as a mediator.
Table 4.1
*Intercorrelations, Means, and Standard Deviations for the Study Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Possible Range</th>
<th>Actual Range</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Intimate Partner Control</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-.49**</td>
<td>-.18**</td>
<td>-.40**</td>
<td>13-52</td>
<td>13-52</td>
<td>28.03</td>
<td>8.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Intimate Partner Acceptance</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.86**</td>
<td></td>
<td>60-240</td>
<td>60-237</td>
<td>93.88</td>
<td>31.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Psychological Adjustment</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>.34**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>63-252</td>
<td>69-210</td>
<td>121.09</td>
<td>25.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Marital Adjustment</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0-151</td>
<td>20-150</td>
<td>111.98</td>
<td>22.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* **p<.01
4.2 Primary Analyses

4.2.1 Path Analysis: Direct and Indirect Associations among Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection, Behavioral Control, Psychological Adjustment, and Marital Adjustment

In order to explore the direct and indirect associations among perceived intimate partner acceptance, intimate partner control, psychological adjustment, and marital adjustment, Path Analysis, being a specific type of structural equation modeling, was employed via AMOS 21 using maximum likelihood estimation methods. Overall fit, squared multiple correlations, and parameter estimates were used to evaluate the hypothesized model of the study. Although there are different views on which model fit indices to report, this study reported the ones that were recommended by Brown (2006). Accordingly, chi-square, normed chi-square, CFI, TLI, SRMR, and RMSEA were used as model fit indices with criteria shown in Table 4.2. Squared multiple correlation coefficients were examined to explore the amount of variance accounted for the mediator variables and outcome variable. Parameter estimates were used to test direct, indirect, and total effects of proposed paths in the model. Indirect effects were obtained via Bootstrapping which is one of the most widely used and suggested method for its powerful and accurate estimates to test the indirect effects (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). The number of bootstrap samples generated from the original data set was 1000. Confidence intervals (CI) for indirect effects were also evaluated. For significance tests in this analysis, alpha level of .05 was used.
Table 4.2
*Cutoff Criteria for Fit Indexes*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model Fit Indices</th>
<th>Perfect Fit</th>
<th>Acceptable Fit</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \chi^2/df )</td>
<td>( 0 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 2 )</td>
<td>( 2 \leq \chi^2/df \leq 3 )</td>
<td>Kline (2011)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>( .95 \leq CFI \leq 1.00 )</td>
<td>( .90 \leq CFI \leq .95 )</td>
<td>Hu &amp; Bentler (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TLI</td>
<td>( .95 \leq TLI \leq 1.00 )</td>
<td>( .90 \leq TLI \leq .95 )</td>
<td>Hu &amp; Bentler (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SRMR</td>
<td>( .00 \leq SRMR \leq .05 )</td>
<td>( .05 \leq SRMR \leq .10 )</td>
<td>Hu &amp; Bentler (1999)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>( .00 \leq RMSEA \leq .05 )</td>
<td>( .05 \leq RMSEA \leq .08 )</td>
<td>Browne &amp; Kudek (1993)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.1.1 *Hypothesized Path Diagram*

The hypothesized path diagram with standardized estimates showing direct and indirect effects of perceived intimate partner acceptance, intimate partner control, psychological adjustment on marital adjustment was illustrated in Figure 4.2. In a path diagram, measured or observed variables are represented by squares or rectangles. Relationships between variables are indicated by lines; lack of a line connecting variables implies that no direct relationship has been hypothesized. Lines have either one or two arrows. A line with one arrow represents a hypothesized direct relationship between two variables and the variable with the arrow pointing to it is the DV (Ullman, 2013).

There were several direct and indirect effects aimed to explore in the hypothesized model. First of all, the direct effect of perceived intimate partner control (exogenous variable) on perceived intimate partner acceptance (mediator variable) was analyzed. Then, the direct effects of intimate partner acceptance on psychological adjustment (mediator variable) and marital adjustment (endogenous variable) were inspected. Lastly, the direct effect of psychological adjustment on marital adjustment was explored.
Regarding indirect effects, association of intimate partner control to psychological adjustment via perceived intimate partner acceptance, association of intimate partner control to marital adjustment via intimate partner acceptance, association of intimate partner control to marital adjustment via intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment respectively, and association of intimate partner acceptance to marital adjustment via psychological adjustment were explored.

4.2.1.2 Model Testing

The hypothesized path diagram shown in Figure 1.1 was tested via path analysis using AMOS.21, a statistical package program for structural equation models. Model fit statistics were given in Table 4.3. The chi-square value was non-significant $\chi^2 (2) = 3.007 (p > .05)$ as it was supposed to be. The normed chi-square value was $\chi^2/df = 1.504$, which was in the range of perfect fit index. Consistently RMSEA = .028 (CI 90% = .00-.09), CFI = .999, TLI = .997, SRMR = .0132, RMSEA = .028 (CI 90% = .00-.09) values demonstrated a perfect fit. In sum, the model fit results indicated that the hypothesized model was sufficiently good, even perfectly fitted to the data.

Table 4.3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness of Fit Indices</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$\chi^2/df$</th>
<th>CFI</th>
<th>TLI</th>
<th>SRMR</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Proposed Model</td>
<td>3.007</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.504</td>
<td>.999</td>
<td>.997</td>
<td>.0132</td>
<td>.028</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen in Figure 4.1, standardized estimation values of all 6 direct paths were changed between -.03 and .86, 4 of which were statistically significant ($p < .05$) except the path from intimate partner control to psychological adjustment ($p > .05$) and intimate partner control to marital adjustment ($p > .05$). The standardized parameter estimates were illustrated with red arrows standing for significant paths and black arrows for non significant paths.

To explore the amount of variance explained by the proposed serial mediational model, the squared multiple correlations ($R^2$) were checked. $R^2$ values for the study variables were given in Table 4.4. The results showed that intimate partner control explained 24% of the variance in intimate partner acceptance. Both intimate partner control and intimate partner acceptance accounted for 8% of the variance in psychological adjustment. In addition, the overall model explained 75% of the variance in marital adjustment.

Table 4.4

*Squared Multiple Correlations for the Study Variables*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mediator Variables</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>SE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intimate Partner Acceptance</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Adjustment</td>
<td>.08*</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endogenous Variable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marital Adjustment</td>
<td>.75*</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. $*p < .05$*
Figure 4.1 The Hypothesized Path Diagram with Standardized Estimates
4.2.1.3 Direct and Indirect Associations

In this part, direct and indirect relationships among the variables were investigated along with the basic aim of testing the proposed mediational model of the study. In Table 4.5, beta coefficients of the paths with $p$ values and confidence intervals were presented. Bootstrapped results showed that there were statistically significant direct, indirect, and total effects having a role in the prediction of marital adjustment. To evaluate the effect sizes, Cohen’s (1988) standards were considered as .10 corresponding to small, around .30 to medium, and .50 or more to large effect sizes.

As shown in Table 4.5, intimate partner control had a non-significant direct effect on psychological adjustment ($\beta = -.05, SE = .00, p > .05$), and non-significant direct effect on marital adjustment ($\beta = -.03, SE = .00, p > .05$). The direct effects of intimate partner acceptance ($\beta = .83, SE = .01, p < .01$) and psychological adjustment ($\beta = .10, SE = .02, p < .01$) on marital adjustment were significant, former large latter small in effect. Intimate partner acceptance had a significant direct effect on psychological adjustment with a medium effect size ($\beta = .29, SE = .04, p < .01$). The direct effect of psychological adjustment on marital adjustment was also significant ($\beta = .10, SE = .02, p < .01$) with a small effect size. That is, participants who perceived more acceptance from their spouses and reported better psychological adjustment, depicted a better marital adjustment of their own. Likewise, the ones who had a low perceived behavior control coming from their intimate partner, perceived more acceptance in their marriage relationship as well. Lastly, as acceptance perceived from the spouse increased, psychological adjustment of the participant also got better. Perceived intimate partner control did not directly contribute to neither psychological adjustment nor marital adjustment.

Indirect effects of intimate partner control and intimate partner acceptance were inspected by employing Bootstrapping method. Four indirect effects were
explored in the hypothesized model, all of which were significant. The first one, which was the indirect effect of control on psychological adjustment via intimate partner acceptance was significant (\(\beta = -.14, SE = .02, p < .01, 95\% CI [-.177, -.108]\)) with a small effect size. For the indirect effect of intimate partner control on marital adjustment via intimate partner acceptance, the result was significant (\(\beta = -.42, SE = .04, p < .01, 95\% CI [-.478, -.357]\)) and medium in effect. Regarding the indirect effect of intimate partner acceptance on marital adjustment via psychological adjustment (\(\beta = .03, SE = .01, p < .01, 95\% CI [.019, .046]\)), it was significant and small in effect. The last inspected and significant indirect effect (\(\beta = -.01, SE = .00, p < .01, 95\% CI [-.023, -.006]\)) was intimate partner control on marital adjustment via intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment, respectively with a small effect size.

In sum, participants who perceived low control from their spouses reported better psychological adjustment and marital adjustment via higher perception of acceptance in their relationships. Those who perceived their partners as more accepting, had a better marital adjustment via increase in their psychological adjustment. And lastly, participants who perceived lower control from their spouses, reported a better marital adjustment by means of increase in their acceptance perception and psychological adjustment sequentially.

In terms of total effects, it was found that intimate partner control (\(\beta = -.44, SE = .03, p < .01\)) had significant total effect on marital adjustment with a moderate to large effect size. Similarly, intimate partner acceptance had a significant total effect on marital adjustment (\(\beta = .86, SE = .01, p > .05\)) with a quite large effect size. To sum up, results on both direct, indirect and total effects showed that the most powerful predictor in marital adjustment is the degree of acceptance one perceives from his/her spouse in the marriage relationship.
### Table 4.5

**Bootstrapped Results of Direct, Indirect and Total Effects**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Path</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>$p$</th>
<th>BC Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Direct Effects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate Partner Control $\rightarrow$ Marital Adjustment</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.186</td>
<td>[.010, .072]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate Partner Control $\rightarrow$ Intimate Partner Acceptance</td>
<td>-.49</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>[-.555, -.414]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate Partner Control $\rightarrow$ Psychological Adjustment</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.260</td>
<td>[.127, .026]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate Partner Acceptance $\rightarrow$ Psychological Adjustment</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>[.224, .352]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate Partner Acceptance $\rightarrow$ Marital Adjustment</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>[.800, .854]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological Adjustment $\rightarrow$ Marital Adjustment</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>[.071, .148]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Indirect Effects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate Partner Control $\rightarrow$ Intimate Partner Acceptance $\rightarrow$ Psychological Adjustment</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>.002</td>
<td>[-.177, -.108]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate Partner Control $\rightarrow$ Intimate Partner Acceptance $\rightarrow$ Marital Adjustment</td>
<td>-.42</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>[-.478, -.357]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate Partner Acceptance $\rightarrow$ Psychological Adjustment $\rightarrow$ Marital Adjustment</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>[.019, .046]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate Partner Control $\rightarrow$ Intimate Partner Acceptance $\rightarrow$ Psychological Adjustment $\rightarrow$ Marital Adjustment</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>[.023, -.006]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Effects</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate Partner Control $\rightarrow$ Marital Adjustment</td>
<td>-.44</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>[-.504, -.365]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimate Partner Acceptance $\rightarrow$ Marital Adjustment</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>[.836, .878]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Reported BC intervals are the bias corrected 95% confidence interval of estimate.
4.2.1.4 Hypotheses Testing

In this part, specific hypotheses formulated in the beginning of the study were elaborated in the light of the findings. All of the hypotheses were supported in terms of both direct and indirect effects.

Hypothesis 1 assumed that perceived intimate partner control will not significantly and be directly related to marital adjustment (Path A). The hypothesis was confirmed with non-significant relationship, $\beta = -0.03$, $p = .18$, 95% CI [-0.010, 0.072].

Hypothesis 2 stated that perceived intimate partner control will significantly and be directly related to perceived intimate partner acceptance (Path B). The hypothesis was supported, the relationship was significant and negative, $\beta = -0.49$, $p = .003$, 95% CI [-0.555, -0.414].

Hypothesis 3 suggested that perceived intimate partner control will not significantly and be directly related to psychological adjustment (Path C). The hypothesis was supported. The relationship was non-significant, $\beta = -0.05$, $p = .26$, 95% CI [-0.224, 0.352].

Hypothesis 4 stated that perceived intimate partner acceptance will significantly and be directly related to psychological adjustment (Path D). The hypothesis was supported and the relationship was positive, $\beta = .10$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [.224, .352].

Hypothesis 5 assumed that perceived intimate partner acceptance will significantly and be directly related to marital adjustment (Path E). The hypothesis was supported and the relationship was positive, $\beta = .83$, $p = .003$, 95% CI [.800, .854].
Hypothesis 6 stated that psychological adjustment will significantly and be directly related to marital adjustment (Path F). The hypothesis was confirmed and the relationship was positive. $\beta = .10$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [.071, .148].

Hypothesis 7 proposed that perceived intimate partner control will indirectly and significantly be related to psychological adjustment through perceived intimate partner acceptance. The hypothesis was supported and the mediation effect was significant, negative, and full, $\beta = -.14$, $p = .002$, 95% CI [-.177, -.108].

Hypothesis 8 assumed that perceived intimate partner control will indirectly and significantly be related to marital adjustment through perceived intimate partner acceptance. The hypothesis was supported and the mediation effect was significant, negative, and full, $\beta = -.42$, $p = .003$, 95% CI [-.478, -.357].

Hypothesis 9 stated that perceived intimate partner acceptance will indirectly and significantly be related to marital adjustment through psychological adjustment. The hypothesis was confirmed and the mediation effect was significant, positive, and partial, $\beta = .03$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [.019, .046].

Hypothesis 10 assumed that perceived intimate partner control will indirectly and significantly be related to marital adjustment through perceived intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment consecutively. The hypothesis was supported and the mediation effect was significant, negative, and full, $\beta = -.01$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [-.023, -.006].

4.2.1.5 Summary of the Results

Path analysis produced significant direct and indirect effects among study variables. Firstly, intimate partner behavioral control was significantly and indirectly associated with psychological and marital adjustment through the mediating effect of intimate partner acceptance. Moreover, intimate partner
acceptance had a strong and direct effect marital adjustment and moderate direct effect on psychological adjustment. Psychological adjustment was also directly associated with marital adjustment. The indirect effect of intimate partner acceptance on marital adjustment via mediation of psychological adjustment was found to be significant. Lastly, the proposed sequential mediation by intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment in the relationship between intimate partner control and marital adjustment was also significant and negative.
CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATIONS, and RECOMMENDATIONS

The present chapter is composed of three sections. Firstly, discussion regarding the findings of the study were presented. Secondly, implications for theory and practice were mentioned. Lastly, recommendations for future research were highlighted.

5.1. Discussion of the Findings

The purpose of the present study was to explore marital adjustment by testing a hypothesized model based on IPARTheory. Specifically, the predictive roles of perceived intimate partner control, perceived intimate partner acceptance, and psychological adjustment on marital adjustment levels of the married individuals were inspected via a proposed sequential mediation model. Accordingly, path analysis, being a special type of Structural Equation Modeling, was employed to test the proposed model of the study in Figure 1.1 (p.8).

To begin with the proposed model, results significantly supported the hypothesized direct and indirect paths, in addition to the perfect fit indices of the model to the data. First of all, the basic premise of IPARTheory advocating the effect of perceived intimate partner acceptance and control on psychological adjustment of individuals was confirmed in this study. What new or somewhat systematic in this study was the attempt to generate a model, in which perceived intimate partner acceptance-rejection is the agent for perceived intimate partner behavioral control to transfer its impact on psychological and marital adjustment. Indeed, this mechanism was assured, yet not with robust effect sizes. Even so, this study has shown the interplay among perceived intimate partner acceptance-
rejection/control, psychological adjustment, and marital adjustment by offering an original path diagram. Studies aimed to search the dynamic of perceived intimate partner behavioral control on psychological adjustment and relationship outcomes have not gone beyond roughly assuming the link (mostly descriptive in nature) between behavioral control and acceptance-rejection without testing it empirically. When viewed from this aspect, this study could be evaluated as a first systematic effort to include and explore behavioral control part of the IPARTheory in the context of a marital relationship by using an inferential statistics method rather than reporting only descriptive part. Furthermore, the study proposed and founded evidence on the mechanism through which perceived behavioral control operates, so building upon the existing accumulation of empirical knowledge on the issue.

To say that the most spectacular and surprising finding of this study was the outstanding explanatory power of perceived intimate partner acceptance on marital adjustment. Most of the variance accounted for 75% of marital adjustment resulted from perceived intimate partner acceptance. It could be speculated that such amount of variance explained for marital adjustment is almost non existing in the marriage literature. This caused the researcher to think again and again with suspicion on the likelihood of having measured the same thing with intimate partner acceptance-rejection and marital adjustment questionnaires. However, there were sound reasons to eliminate this option. First, the literature pertaining to both variables has treated them as separate constructs. The first one is basically dealing with the warmth/affection part of a marriage relationship whereas the latter is designed to measure aspects regarding satisfaction, consensus, affectional expression, and cohesion. Secondly, bivariate correlations (especially between warmth-affection subscale of the IPAR/Q and affectional expression subscale of the DAS) among the subscales of the two questionnaires were cautiously examined one by one, as a result of which no multicollinearity (the criterion of Tabachnick and Fidell (2014) was used as $r \geq .90$) was detected (correlation coefficients were changed between .54
and .78) in any of all binary combinations. Eventually, the researcher came to the conclusion that perceived intimate partner acceptance has found to be a very critical component of marital adjustment. That is to say, marital adjustment level of a spouse is highly associated with the extent or degree of acceptance perceived from husband or wife. Next, specific hypotheses formed in the beginning of the study were discussed below. All of the paths (6 direct, 4 indirect effects) were supported.

**Hypothesis 1.** Perceived intimate partner control will not significantly and directly be related to marital adjustment (*Path A*).

Path A predicted a non-significant direct effect between perceived intimate partner control and marital adjustment. The hypothesis was supported. To discuss this finding in the context of IPARTtheory, there is not enough empirical study to compare and contrast with unfortunately. The researcher decided to formulate this hypothesis based on the emergent situation that after partialling out the effect of intimate partner acceptance, the relationship between intimate partner control and marital adjustment was disappeared. This evidence encouraged to conclude that in the descriptive part of the study, the significant and negative relationship large in effect size between intimate partner control and marital adjustment was nothing than an artifact. Likewise, Rohner and Khaleque (2008) came up with the same scenario, yet the dependent variable was not marital adjustment but psychological adjustment in their study. Then the question has arisen as to the possibility that the association between intimate partner control and marital adjustment would have stemmed from an existence of a mediator variable, that was perceived intimate partner acceptance (tested and discussed in hypothesis 8). Another parallel finding was reported by Gökmen (2001) as perceived control from the spouse did not predict marital satisfaction level of women.
It is worth mentioning that a few studies in the literature obtained a significant mean difference between maritally satisfied and not satisfied groups on the scores of perceived control from the spouse (e.g. Erdoğan-Taycan & Çelik-Kuruoğlu, 2014; Gökmen, 2001; Kabakçı, Tuğrul, & Öztan, 1993). Even if control dimension was measured with different questionnaires from the Intimate Partner Control Questionnaire, a few similar items exist among them like “Insists that I must do exactly as s(he) tells me”, “Tries to control what I do”, “Has a lot of rules and tries to make me stick to them”, “Gives me as much freedom as I want”, “Would like to be able to tell me what to do all the time”. In this respect, the finding could be somewhat evaluated as not parallel with the literature. But, attempts to look at group difference would not always produce similar results with data analysis methods for prediction. In sum, to discuss this finding of the study in detail, more empirical studies are needed. Intimate partner violence literature has already and consistently acknowledged the detrimental direct effect of coercive and psychological control perpetrated by both men and women on marital satisfaction/adjustment of the victim. However, the nature of the perceived intimate partner control as used in the current study was not originated from intimate relationship violence (Rohner, personal communication, April 10, 2018).

**Hypothesis 2.** Perceived intimate partner control will significantly and directly be related to perceived intimate partner acceptance (Path B).

Path B predicted a significant direct effect from perceived intimate partner behavioral control to perceived intimate partner acceptance. The hypothesis was supported and the direction of the effect was negative as expected. Previous studies (e.g., Eryavuz, 2006; Khaleque, Rohner, & Laukkala, 2008; Rohner & Khaleque, 2008) have shown the link between perceived intimate partner behavioral control and perceived intimate partner acceptance, though most of them were limited to descriptive findings (reported bivariate correlation coefficients). These studies denoted that the more behaviorally controlling
partners were perceived to be less loving or accepting. The starting point of these studies was the evidence that the extremes of behavioral control perceived by parents (extreme permissiveness and extreme restrictive control) tended to be associated with parental rejection, especially with parental hostility and aggression. Upon this observation, the researcher inspected bivariate correlations among the scores of warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect, and undifferentiated rejection dimensions, being the subscales of intimate partner acceptance, along with intimate partner behavioral control. It was surprisingly found that the correlation between intimate partner control and hostility/aggression part of intimate partner acceptance \((r = .59)\) was significantly higher than warmth/affection \((r = .43)\), indifference/neglect \((r = .29)\), and undifferentiated rejection subscales \((r = .52)\). Then, it could be speculated that a controlling partner may show aggression or hostility towards his/her spouse especially if the spouse does not obey or comply with the proscriptions and prescriptions imposed by the partner. It is also important to notice that the other subdimensions were also related to behavioral control. To unravel this dynamic or to address potential relations, more needs to be done in future research.

At the present moment, it could be assumed that perceived behavioral control of any kind (permissive, moderate, firm, and restricted) by a spouse was associated with perceived rejection in marriage relationship in the current study. Another speculation of this result would be the demographic profile of the participants most of which were metropolitan, from high educational backgrounds, and from middle to upper middle economic conditions. Kağıtçıbaşı (1994) claimed that individuals with this prototype shared a commonality with the ones living in Western societies in the sense that they value independence and autonomy in the context of a more individualistic culture, but to some extent. In this context, being controlled by a partner could be in contradiction with the quest for independence. Hereby, a husband or a wife could interpret the attempts or acts of the spouse towards controlling of his/her behaviors as an interference or
sabotage to this pursuit. In cognitive processing of this behavior, the spouse being controlled by the intimate partner could feel rejected, disregarded and so forth.

Notwithstanding the fact that perceived intimate partner control has not yet been addressed as a type of relationship violence in IPARTheory, the literature say so as being a type of psychological aggression to control partner’s behaviors and preferences. The scope of psychological aggression encompasses behaviors like ridiculing, verbal threatening, isolating from family and friends, and controlling of one’s partner with an intention to degrade and attack self-worth of her/him (Lawrence, Yoon, Langer, & Eunyoe, 2009). With reference to that definition, perceived intimate partner behavioral control could be evaluated as a form of relationship violence and abuse. Rejection concept in IPARTheory is characterized by indifference/neglect, hostility/aggression and lack of warmth/affection towards the spouse, all of which are also regarded as components of a relationship violence as well. To discuss this finding of the current study in the light of relationship violence, the IPARTheory should expand the conceptualization of behavioral control in intimate relationship beyond parent-child context.

**Hypothesis 3.** Perceived intimate partner control will not significantly and directly be related to psychological adjustment (*Path C*).

Path C predicted a significant direct effect between intimate partner behavioral control and intimate partner acceptance, which was supported and the direction was negative. This finding was coherent with a few previous study in the literature. For instance, Rohner and Khaleque (2008) investigated the impact of perceived acceptance-rejection and behavioral control by intimate male partners and parents remembered in childhood on the psychological adjustment of 88 heterosexual dating adult females. They came up with the result that neither paternal nor maternal remembered behavioral control was significantly
associated with psychological adjustment of females. Then, the researchers decided to compute a partial correlation by controlling perceived intimate partner acceptance. Results showed that the influence of intimate partner control on psychological adjustment disappeared. So, perceived intimate partner behavioral control made no direct contribution to psychological adjustment of females, it was just an artifact of the correlation with perceived acceptance. Due to the limitation of the statistical technique they used or some other reasons not specified, they did not test the predictive role of intimate partner behavioral control on psychological adjustment. They just dropped behavioral control from further consideration in the analyses. Khaleque, Rohner, and Laukkala (2008) also reported a non-significant association between intimate partner control and psychological adjustment, then decided not to enter it into multiple regression analysis.

A surprising and exceptional finding was obtained in the study by Eryavuz (2006), which aimed to predict psychological adjustment from perceived remembered parental and intimate partner acceptance-rejection/control. That was the independent and unique contribution of perceived intimate partner control on the variance of women’s psychological adjustment, but not men’s. Nevertheless, Gökmen (2001) reported no association between intimate partner control and women’s psychological adjustment. The behavioral control issue in marriage and dating relationship (not psychological control or not in the context of relational abuse) needs to be illuminated with more studies. At least, it can be assumed that a third variable would be operating between intimate partner control and psychological adjustment, meaning that when a spouse perceives being behaviorally controlled by the husband or wife, s/he could have cognitively processed this as a sign of disrespect or disregard, or even lack of trust. Thereby, the spouse may feel anger/hostility towards the husband or wife, or this situation may decrease self-esteem; which are components of psychological adjustment conceptualized in IPARTheory. Even so, it would be too early to draw a conclusion on the issue.
**Hypothesis 4.** Perceived intimate partner acceptance will significantly and directly be related to psychological adjustment (*Path D*).

Path D predicted a significant direct effect of intimate partner acceptance on psychological adjustment. The hypothesis was supported and the direction was positive. This finding buttress a central tenet of IPARTTheory, that perceived acceptance in intimate relationships significantly contributes to, or accounts for psychological adjustment in a positive way. It could be said that this finding is the most consistent one in the literature reporting such an association regardless of gender and culture (e.g., Khaleque, 2004; Khaleque, Shirin, & Uddin, 2011; Parmar, Ibrahim & Rohner, 2008; Rohner, 2008; Varan, Rohner, & Eryüksel, 2008; Rohner, Melendez, & Kraimer-Rickaby, 2008). A few exceptions in the literature take part showing no unique and independent contribution of intimate partner acceptance on psychological adjustment for both males and females (e.g., Parmar & Rohner, 2008), for females only (e.g., Eryavuz, 2006) and for males only (e.g., Rohner, Uddin, Shamsunnaher, & Khaleque, 2008). A detailed look in these three studies disclosed the information that the first two (Eryavuz, 2006; Parmar & Rohner, 2008) were conducted with a very small sample size (56 men and 59 women; 24 men, 58 women respectively), which could have affected the statistical power of the analyses. The second one (Eryavuz, 2006) reported significant and independent predictive role of intimate partner control, but not acceptance on psychological adjustment level of women participants only. Yet, association between the two was recognized for male participants in the second (Eryavuz, 2006), and for female participants in the third one (Rohner, Uddin, Shamsunnaher, & Khaleque, 2008). The authors of the third article partially discussed this finding in the context of the critical importance of mother-child relationship in Japanese culture, where affectional and emotional bond between mother and child is the core of family relationships.
In sum and to date, most of the studies done are in the same direction concluding that perceived intimate partner acceptance does account for psychological adjustment level of individuals in positive way. This connection may result from the same situation as discussed in hypothesis 4; that was the argument of being accepted a basic human need. In that context, feelings of being accepted, loved, cared, regarded and empathized by one’s spouse may boost her/his self-esteem and self-adequacy, foster emotional availability and stability, promote positivity and decrease aggression/hostility. Most of the mainstream psychology theories (e.g. Psychoanalytic, Attachment, Gestalt Theories) have met in the middle with regards to the central importance of quality of relationships (especially with significant others) on psychological well-being in all periods of human development. This is all to say, being accepted, cared, loved, nurtured may inspire a better psychological adjustment through cognitive processes and templates embodying a safer world belief, more positive evaluation of self; and through expanded capacity to relate with others along with experiencing less disruptive feelings.

**Hypothesis 5.** Perceived intimate partner acceptance will significantly and directly be related to marital adjustment (*Path E*).

Path F predicted a significant direct effect of intimate partner acceptance and marital adjustment. The hypothesis was confirmed and the direction was positive. It is the most spectacular finding of the current study in such a way that the variance in marital adjustment was by far the best explained through intimate partner acceptance directly. Apparently, such a strong association was surprising for the researcher, yet illuminating. This finding is in keeping with previous research showing that the more one feels accepted by his/her spouse or intimate partner, the better his/her marital adjustment is. Past research studies, though limited, coherently showed that partners in a marriage or dating relationship self-reported better relationship outcomes (measured on different but related variables like marital adjustment, marital satisfaction, relationship satisfaction
etc.) if they perceive to be accepted by their intimate partners or spouses (e.g., Bozkuş, 2014; Eryavuz, 2006; Karpat, 2010; Öztürk, 2013; Varan, 2005). However, nearly all of those studies reported the results of group difference statistics. In other words, they divided participants into two groups as being satisfied or not in their marriage or dating relationship and then compared the scores of perceived intimate partner acceptance-rejection questionnaire of each group.

So far, the attempts to design studies based on prediction have been limited on the association between intimate partner acceptance and marital adjustment. Nevertheless, Rohner (2008) explained the warmth dimension of intimate partner acceptance as encompassing affectional bond, love, nurturance, comfort, trust, support, empathy, self-verification, respect, shared responsibility, sensitivity, equality, and the behaviors (physical, verbal, and symbolic) being showed to communicate or express these feelings to the partner. In this respect, the marriage literature is quite prosperous that documented robustly the positive impact of these factors on marital quality related constructs like marital adjustment, marital satisfaction, and marital happiness (e.g. Allen & Thompson, 1984; Çağ & Yıldırım, 2013; İnal, 2014; Mcdonald, Olson, Lanning, Goddard, & Marshall, 2018; Sacco & Phares, 2001; Öztürk, 2017; Weger 2005; Wilcox & Nock, 2006). Then, it could be speculated that such a strong association would be an outcome of the construct per se, that is acceptance being connected with or harbouring a lot of factors in itself as mentioned above. It would not be too wrong to say that acceptance can be evaluated as an umbrella term encompassing many feelings which are proved to be benchmarks of a good-functioning marriage relationship. Besides, the need to feel accepted by significant others is a basic human need that has been strongly emphasized by many theorists to date (e.g., Bowlby, 1969/1982; Rohner, 1986).

Additionally, conjugal context has apparently the potential to represent or constitute the most significant other for many of us, except for parent-child
context. Prominent in this regard is another but most likely facet in an array of possible explanations of the strong association between intimate partner acceptance and marital adjustment: the central importance of the need to feel accepted by significant others. Feelings and related behaviors, encapsulated in intimate partner acceptance that were mentioned previously, may foster constructive dyadic interactions in such a way that yielding couples being satisfied, reaching on a consensus on matters, expressing affection, and engaging joint activities in their marriages.

**Hypothesis 6.** Psychological adjustment will significantly and directly be related to marital adjustment (Path F).

Path E assumed a significant direct effect of psychological adjustment on marital adjustment. The hypothesis was confirmed and the direction was positive. In addressing the the relation between psychological adjustment and marital adjustment, the study replicated a number of findings. The literature regarding the association between psychological adjustment and marital adjustment is quite satisfactory, given the fact that the direction of the association is bilateral. In the context of IPARTheory, there are studies showing that participants in maritally satisfied group had significantly reported better psychological adjustment than those in maritally not satisfied group (Bozkuş, 2014; Eryavuz, 2006; Karpat, 2010; Öztürk, 2013; Varan, 2005). However, no empirical finding to date was encountered examining the predictive role of psychological adjustment as measured in IPARTheory on any variable pertaining to marital quality. Out of the IPARTheory context, current literature yielded converging results, such that a better psychological adjustment, measured with various questionnaires and conceptualized based on different theoretical perspectives, has been linked to better relationship outcomes and vice versa (e.g., Akdağ, 2014; Donnellan, Larsen-Rife, & Conger, 2005; Henry, Thornberry, & Lee, 2015; Oliver, 2000; Yeşiltepe, 2011). What consistently claimed in those studies is that a spouse with a better psychological adjustment express less negativity,
be emotionally available, attribute more positive self and other statements, develop and sustain intimacy, and act autonomously.

Prolux, Helms, and Buehler (2007) reported the average weighted effect size $r$ as .37 for cross sectional and .25 for longitudinal effects from 93 analyzed studies on the association between marital quality and personal well-being. In the current study, controlling for the impact of intimate partner acceptance and control, effect size was much less and small in magnitude according to the standards of Cohen (1986). This result may be linked to the statistical procedure. In path analysis based on regression, variables having more predictive power on the dependent variable may diminish the effects of other independents. It was obvious that the variance intimate partner acceptance accounted for marital adjustment was well ahead the other predictors in the current study. Adding to the literature, it can be speculated that for this study, the extent to which one perceives acceptance from the spouse matters more than psychological adjustment for a better marital adjustment.

**Hypothesis 7.** Perceived intimate partner control will indirectly and significantly be related to psychological adjustment through perceived intimate partner acceptance.

The hypothesis was confirmed. The literature has not produced consistent results on this indirect association, but findings parallel to this conclusion exists. For example, perceived intimate partner control appeared to make a significant contribution to adults’ psychological adjustment primarily through the mechanism of perceived acceptance-rejection in Rohner and Khaleque’s (2008) study. In other words, the influence of partner behavioral control on psychological adjustment seemed to be almost entirely mediated by perceived partner acceptance both in cognitive and emotional aspects. This can be meaningful in the sense that a behaviorally controlling partner may demand compliance with his/her directives and rules, and s/he may become angry if the
spouse refuses. Then, feeling of anger may be perceived as a sign of rejection for the partner who refused compliance. Or, even if the spouse did not refuse the rules and directives, s/he may think to be not respected for his/her preferences and decisions; which in turn may lead to feel not accepted. However, an opposite conclusion drawn in the study of Eryavuz (2006) was that psychological adjustment level of women explained directly by perceived intimate partner behavioral control, not perceived intimate partner acceptance. This finding is actually an exception showing a non-significant contribution of perceived intimate partner acceptance on psychological adjustment for women only.

**Hypothesis 8.** Perceived intimate partner control will indirectly and significantly be related to marital adjustment through perceived intimate partner acceptance.

The hypothesis was confirmed. As previously discussed in hypothesis 2, direct negative association between intimate partner control and intimate partner acceptance could have stemmed not only from being a sign of interference to the quest for independence and autonomy in the marriage relationship, but also from the likelihood of triggering aggression on behalf of the controlling partner due to non-compliance to the controlled spouse. Thus, the attempts or acts of controlling behavior of a partner could have attributed by the spouse as being not accepted for his/her decisions, preferences, feelings, and thoughts etc. This could in turn impinge upon marital adjustment of the controlled partner in a negative way. To date, no empirical finding has attempted to explore a possible mediating variable between intimate partner control and marital adjustment. Hence, this finding of the current study was discussed only with literature showing direct and binary associations, that is nonsignificant one between intimate partner control and marital adjustment (e.g., Eryavuz, 2006; Gökmen, 2001) and significant one between intimate partner acceptance and marital adjustment (e.g., Eryavuz, 2006; Khaleque, Rohner, & Laukkala, 2008; Rohner & Khaleque, 2008).
Gökmen (2001) yielded a contradictory finding with the current study as such, that men but not women perceiving more control and dependency from their spouses reported significantly better marital satisfaction than those with less control and dependency perception. Six percent of the variance was explained by perceived control and dependency from the wives of men’s marital satisfaction level. The author discussed this result from two possibilities; 1) If the husband from high educational background perceived controlling behaviors of his wife as attempts to develop or encourage more egalitarian mannerism, then the literature has already confirmed its’ association with marital satisfaction, 2) In Eastern cultures, being controlled by a significant other may interpreted as expression of love and concern. This finding of Gökmen (2001) seemed to be at odds with findings from other studies, especially with participants from middle and upper middle socioeconomic groups, conducted in the West and in Turkey, most of which have agreed upon the negative impact of controlling behaviors in a marriage relationship.

**Hypothesis 9.** Perceived intimate partner acceptance will indirectly and significantly be related to marital adjustment through psychological adjustment.

This finding suggested and found support that perceptions of an accepting intimate partner relationship was associated with increased level of self-reported psychological adjustment, which in turn contributed to higher levels of marital adjustment in married individuals. It has always been obvious that many social scientists have acknowledged the central importance of quality of intimate relationships on the psychological functioning or well-being of the individual. In line with this argument, a better psychological adjustment has been shown to be related with higher satisfaction and adjustment in a marriage relationship (e.g., Akdağ, 2014; Donnellan, Larsen-Rife, & Conger, 2005; Henry, Thornberry, & Lee, 2015; Oliver, 2000; Yeşiltepe, 2011). The effect size of the proposed mediational association of this finding was quite small, but significant ($B = .03, SE = .01, p < .01, 95 \% CI [.019, .046]$). Yet, the direct association of
intimate partner acceptance on psychological adjustment was moderate and of psychological adjustment on marital adjustment was small in effect size. This picture would be an outcome of the statistical procedure used in the present study, that because intimate partner acceptance by itself was a very strong predictor of marital adjustment, the predictive role of psychological adjustment both direct and indirect ways on marital adjustment could have diminished. Given the fact that no mediational association of intimate partner acceptance and marital adjustment via psychological adjustment was proposed and tested in the literature, it was impossible to elaborate on this finding by comparison with similar and distinct ones.

**Hypothesis 10.** Perceived intimate partner control will indirectly and significantly be related to marital adjustment through perceived intimate partner acceptance and psychological adjustment consecutively.

The hypothesis was supported. Being the last and significant finding of the study, it was assumed that a less controlling or even non controlling partner could be perceived as accepting by the spouse, which in turn contributed to the psychological adjustment of that spouse and at last, a better psychological adjustment yielded the perception pertaining to a higher marital adjustment. Although very small in effect size ($B = -0.01, SE = .00, p < .01, 95\% CI [-.023, -.006]$), this sequential association accounting for marital adjustment has been predicated. Such a link has not been proposed yet, which made it unlikely to discuss in the light of the literature.

**5.2 Implications for Theory, Research, and Practice**

This study incorporates many implications for theory, research, and practice. To begin with implications for theory, IPARTTheory, originally aimed to explore parent-child relationship, is a growing theory studying intimate relationships on the basis of perceived acceptance- rejection and control along with consequences
and correlates of the two. In the context of intimate partner relationships, theoretical postulates have not accumulated empirical evidence to the extent that drawing robust conclusions could be likely. Therefore, the current study expanded and added to the existing yet limited scientific knowledge pertaining to intimate partner acceptance-rejection and control. To cite the most prominent ones, it has verified once again the basic postulate of IPARTheory that perceived acceptance-rejection from a significant other, not limited to parent-child relationship, plays an important role in the psychological adjustment of an individual. Besides and the most unique implication of this study for IPARTheory was to explore control dimension, which has been quite underrepresented in the context of intimate partner relationship up to now.

To date, existing yet too few studies on behavioral control dimension of intimate partner relationships in the context of IPARTheory were unable to go beyond reporting descriptive correlations. Most of them measured control dimension but excluded it in further analyses. The study has not only put the behavioral control dimension under the microscope, but also has advanced the understanding of its role in marital adjustment via introducing a mediational process, that was intimate partner acceptance. As a first attempt to propose and test such a model, perceived behavioral control seems to operate through perceived intimate partner acceptance on the associations with psychological and marital adjustment. In other words, perceived behavioral control by intimate partner was comprehended as a sign of rejection by the spouse regardless of gender, which in turn diminished the psychological and marital adjustment level of that spouse. In the parent-child and parent-adolescent relationship context, moderate or firm behavioral control by parent, provided that it not be permissive or restrictive, has been mostly shown to be associated with positive psychological outcomes on behalf of children and adolescents. However, in the context of intimate partner relationship like marriage, the current study has revealed that perceived behavioral control of any magnitude had a negative impact on both psychological adjustment and marital adjustment of married individuals. This
finding might be a worthwhile stimulus for future studies to gain a deeper understanding of the dynamics that behavioral control exerts in romantic relationships including but not limited to marriage.

In terms of research implications, obtained evidence in the current study regarding the remarkable contribution of perceived intimate partner acceptance accounting for marital adjustment has been quite illuminating. Although there are a few empirical finding aimed to compare maritally satisfied and not satisfied groups on the scores of perceived intimate partner acceptance, they measured marital satisfaction with one question as “Are you satisfied in your current marriage?”. In the current study, marital adjustment was measured with the Dyadic Adjustment Scale, which was justified as being a highly valid and reliable instrument designed to evaluate marital quality in a comprehensive way. 75% of marital adjustment was explained mostly by intimate partner acceptance and partially by intimate partner control and psychological adjustment. Such an amount is quite spectacular and giving a strong clue to crack the secret of a happy marriage. Indeed, it can be speculated that perceived intimate partner acceptance seemed to be the crux of marital quality. What is implied in this finding is the central importance of feeling accepted by the spouse in a marriage relationship. Such a high variance of marital adjustment explained mostly by intimate partner acceptance indicates in a way the power of encapsulation of the “acceptance” construct by itself. In other words, feeling accepted in the context of a marriage relationship symbolizes many other feelings herewith like affection, love, respect, care, support, and empathy etc.

With regards to the implications for practice, the current study basically unearthed the significance of partners’ expression of behaviors communicating acceptance towards their spouses, which is characterized by feelings of love, affection, empathy, care, concern, understanding, appreciation, and validation on marital adjustment of them. For psychological counselors working with couples especially, this finding can be integrated into their practice by focusing
on the ways through which couples may exhibit more acceptance-related behaviors towards each other. Moreover, both for prevention and intervention purposes, skills training can be designed to foster the mutual use of behaviors (physical, verbal, and nonverbal expressions) that contribute to the feelings of acceptance in each spouse. The current study explicitly showed that perceived acceptance from an intimate partner had a tremendous impact on the marital adjustment of the spouse. Therefore, the attempts to enhance communication between couples that trigger the feelings of acceptance would be worthwhile as well as functional. Therefore, counselors would also contribute to the psychological adjustment of couples, which in this study was shown to be related with marital adjustment, too.

Another practical implication of this study was about perceived behavioral control by an intimate partner in a marriage relationship. Kind of behaviors exhibited towards behaviorally controlling the intimate partner were obviously interpreted as a rejection, or no behavioral control was perceived as being accepted in the marriage relationship. Besides, behavioral control negatively and indirectly through acceptance was associated with psychological adjustment and marital adjustment of husbands and wives. Psychological counselors may use this finding to increase the awareness of husbands and wives on the counter-productive role of behavioral control in marriage.

The current study also indicated the direct role of psychological adjustment, in case of controlling the effect of perceived intimate partner acceptance and control, on marital adjustment. What is implied in this finding could be the likelihood that if a psychological counselor work through with the client, on an individual basis, to support or boost psychological adjustment of him/her, this will in effect enhance marital adjustment of the client as well. Last but not the least, less behavioral control and more acceptance-related behaviors as well as a better psychological adjustment would be among the counseling process goals.
for those practitioners who are willing to work on individuals and or couples with marital adjustment problems.

5.3 Recommendations for Future Research

The present findings of this study suggest several avenues for further study. Before outlining directions for future progress, certain limitations of this study should be considered in interpreting the findings. Firstly, no matter how robust the correlation between intimate partner acceptance and marital adjustment, however, it does not speak to the issue of causation. A more promising means of addressing potential causal relations would be to examine this association with longitudinal studies. Not for causality, but for more powerful predictions, the model proposed in the current study is recommended to be retested with latent variables by using statistical procedures of structural equation modeling. Secondly, the current study was a first attempt to propose a model in which intimate partner control had an indirect effect on psychological and marital adjustment through the mediator role of perceived intimate partner acceptance. Keeping in mind that empirical studies on perceived behavioral control dimension of IPARTthery are quite limited, even none except one (e.g., Eryavuz, 2006), the current study could be regarded as a small but distinctive drop in the ocean. In brief, further studies are urgently needed to shed more light on the role of behavioral control in romantic relationships, provided that it be not restricted to marriage relationship.

Another noteworthy recommendation for future research could be the need for cross-cultural studies on perceived behavioral control by an intimate partner. So to speak, there might be cultural differences in the perception of behavioral control by an intimate partner. The fact, that the participants of the current study might have interpreted the attempts of their spouses’ behavioral control as a sign of rejection, does not guarantee the same pattern in every single marriage relationship. Although perceived acceptance dimension of the IPARTthery was
robustly and consistently shown to produce similar outcomes regardless of culture, there are many grey areas and the picture becomes more complicated when it comes to perceived behavioral control, even in children and adolescents. In this context, further investigation may provide a thorough understanding of behavioral control.
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Aşağıda, yetişkin kişilerin, yakın bir ilişki içerisindeki davranışlarıyla ilgili bazı cümleler yer almaktadır. Her cümleyi dikkatlice okuyun ve okuduğunuz cümlelerin eşinizin size karşı davranışlarınızı ne kadar iyi anladığını düşünün. Testi, cümleler üzerinde fazla oyalanmadan, içinizden gelen cevapları işaretleyerek, hızlı bir şekilde doldurun. Cevaplarınızı eşinizden beklediğiniz davranışlara göre değil, bu kişinin size gerçekte gösterdiği davranışlara göre verin. Lütfen her soruyu cevaplayın.

1) Eşim, benim hakkına güzel şeyler söyler.
9) Eşim, dışarı çıkacağım zaman nereye gideceğini tam olarak bilmek ister.
13) Eşim, kızdığı zaman bana bağırır.
43) Eşim, onun sinirine dokunduğumu söyler.
46) Eşim, bir şeyi iyi yaptığında, benimle ne kadar gurur duyduğunu söyler.
57) Eşim, benden uzak durmaya çalışır.
60) Eşim, benim ne düşündüğümü önem verir ve düşünüklerim hakkında konuşmamdan hoşlanır.
73) Eşim, beni mutlu etmeye çalışır.

APPENDICES

A. INTIMATE PARTNER ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION/CONTROL QUESTIONNAIRE (IPAR/CQ) / EŞ KABUL-RED/KONTROL ÖLÇEĞİ
B. ADULT PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT QUESTIONNAIRE (PAQ)  
(YETİŞKİN KİŞİLİK DEĞERLENDİRME ÖLÇEĞİ)

Aşağıdaki cümleleri dikkatlice okuyup, kendiniz için en doğru bulduğunuz, en uygun cevabını işaretleyiniz. Lütfen tüm soruları yanıtlayınız.

|------------------|--------------|----------------|--------------------------|

1) İnsanlara karşı kızgınım.
8) Öfkemi kontrol etmekte zorlanıyorum.
9) Hasta olduğum zaman, insanların benim için üzülmesi hoşuma gider.
10) İyi bir insan olduğumu ve başkalarının saygısını hak ettiğimi düşünüyorum.

saklamayı tercih ederim.
17) Kendimi gerçekten değersiz hissediyorum.
18) Yetersizlik duyguları bir çok şeyimi engelliyor.
19) İnsanlarla ilişkilerim doğal ve sıcak.
24) Kendimden oldukça memnunum.
25) Yaptığım işlerde başarılı olduğunu düşünüyorum.
45) Bir işe yaramadığımı ve hiçbir zaman da yaramayacağını düşünüyorum.
46) Kendimi, tanıdığım insanlar kadar yetenekli bulmadığım için kendimden memnun değilim.
55) Bir an neşeli ve mutlu oluyorum, bir sonraki an keyifsız veya mutsuz.
63) Dünyayı temelde güvenli ve yaşamı hoş bir yer olarak görürüm.
Birçok insanın ilişkilerinde anlaşmazlıklar vardır. Lütfen aşağıda verilen maddelerin her biri için siz ve eşiniz arasındaki anlaşma veya anlaşamama ölçüsünü aşağıda verilen düzeylerden birini seçerek belirtiniz.

|-----------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|----------------------------------|----------------------|

16) Ne sıklıkla boşanmayı, ayrılımayı düşünürsünüz?
18) Ne sıklıkla eşinize olan ilişkinizin genelde iyi gittiğini düşünürsünüz?
19) Eşinize güvenir misiniz?
20) Evlendiğiniz için hiç pişmanlık duyarsınız?
21) Ne sıklıkla eşinizle münakaşa edersiniz?
31) Aşağıda ilişkinizdeki farklı mutluluk düzeyleri gösterilmektedir. Orta noktadaki “mutlu” birçok ilişkideki yaşanan mutluluk düzeyini gösterir. İlişkinizi genelde değerlendirdiğinizde mutluluk düzeyinizi en iyi şekilde belirtecek olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

- Aşırı mutsuz
- Oldukça mutsuz
- Az mutsuz
- Mutlu
- Oldukça mutlu
- Aşırı mutlu
- Tam anlamıyla mutlu
D. PERSONAL INFORMATION FORM

1) Yaşınız:............
2) Cinsiyetiniz: □ Kadın □ Erkek
3) Kaç yıldır evlinsiniz?............
4) Bu sizin kaçınıncı evliliğiniz?.......... 
5) Şu anki evliliğinizden çoğunuz var ise kaç tane?............... 
6) Eğitim düzeyiniz?
   □ İlkokul
   □ Ortaokul
   □ Lise
   □ Meslek Yüksek Okulu
   □ Üniversite
   □ Yüksek Lisans
   □ Doktora
E. MIDDLE EAST TECHICAL UNIVERSITY HUMAN SUBJECTS
ETHICS

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonuçu

Gönderen: ÖDTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (IAEK)

İş: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

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F. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

EŞ KABUL-RED/KONTROL, PSİKOLOJİK UYUM VE EVLİLİK UYUMU ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİLER

1. GİRİŞ


Evlilik uyumu, evliliğe ilişkin etkileşim ya da işleyişin göstergesi olarak kabul edilen ve yaygın olarak araştırılan bir kavramdır. Evlilik doyumu, evlilik başarısı, evlilik kalitesi, evlilik mutluluğu gibi farklı terimler de alanyazında benzer amaçlarla kullanılmaktadır. Bu durum zaman zaman kavram karmaşasına neden olmuş ve evlilik işleyişine gönderme yapacak, üzerinde fikir birliği sağlanmış, işevuruk tanımlaması yapılmış bir kavramın olmayış pek çok yazar...


Kişilerarası Kabul-Red Kuramının kabul-red dışında bir de kişinin yakınlık ilişkisi içerisinde davranışsal boyutta ne denli kontrol edildiğini ile ilişkili olan algılanan kontrol boyutu bulunmaktadır. Kuramı geliştiriren Ronald Rohner’in kontrol boyutundan çok, kabul-red boyutuna olan kişisel merakı nedeniyle gerek kuramsal gerek ampirik bilgiler daha çok kabul-red boyutuna odaklanmıştır. Çocuk ve ergenlerin ebeveynlerinden algıdıkları orta düzeyde kontrolün onların psikolojik gelişimleri için olumlu etkisi olacağını gösteren bazı
araştırmalar olmasına karşın (örn; Li, Zhange, & Wang, 2015; Matos-Frances, 2006; Sorkhabi & Middaugh, 2014), evlilik ilişkisinde çiftlerin birbirlerinden algıdıkları davranışsal kontrolün olması bağılanılarına ilişkin alanyazında neredeyse hiç araştırma yer almamaktadır. İlişki şiddeti alanyazında psikolojik kontrol ile evlilik işleyişi arasındaki olumsuz ilişki pek çok çalışmadada gösterilmiş olsa da, Kişilerarası Kabul-Red Kuramı bağlamındaki davranışsal kontrol, duygusal şiddetin bir türine gönderme yapmak amacıyla tasarlanmamıştır. Davranışsal kontrol boyutunun evlilik ilişkisi içerisindeki rolünü anlamak için daha pek çok sistematik çalışmaya ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır.


Tüm bu bilgiler ışığında, bu araştırmada Kişilerarası Kabul-Red Kuramı çerçevesinde evli bireylerde algılanan eş kabul-red, kontrol, psikolojik uyum ve evlilik uyumu arasındaki ilişkiler incelenmiştir.

1.2 Araştırmaın Amacı

Bu araştırmının amacı, evli bireylerden oluşan 624 katılımcının eş kabul-red, eş kontrol, psikolojik uyum ve evlilik uyumu düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkileri incelemektir. Bu doğrultuda esitten algılanan davranışsal kontrol ile psikolojik uyum ve evlilik uyumu arasındaki beklenen ilişkiye algılanan eş kabulünün aracılık etmedeki rolünün incelenmesi de amaçlanmıştır. Araştırmaada aşağıdaki soruya yanıt aranmıştır:
1. Eş kabul-red, eş kontrol ve psikolojik uyum düzeyi değişkenlerinin kullanılmasıyla önerilen model evlilik uyumunu ne ölçüde açıklamaktadır?

1.3 Araştırmaın Hipotezleri

Yukarıda belirtilen amaç doğrultusunda aşağıdaki hipotezler test edilmiştir:

1. Algılanan eş kontrolü ile evlilik uyumu arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde ve doğrudan bir ilişki yoktur.

2. Algılanan eş kontrolü ile algılanan eş kabulü arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde ve doğrudan bir ilişki vardır.

3. Algılanan eş kontrolü ile psikolojik uyum arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde ve doğrudan bir ilişki yoktur.

4. Algılanan eş kabulü ile psikolojik uyum arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde ve doğrudan bir ilişki vardır.

5. Algılanan eş kabulü ve evlilik uyumu arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde ve doğrudan bir ilişki vardır.

6. Psikolojik uyum ve evlilik uyumu arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde ve doğrudan bir ilişki vardır.

7. Algılanan eş kontrolü ile psikolojik uyum, algılanan eş kabulü aracılığı ile istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde ve dolaylı olarak ilişkilidir.

8. Algılanan eş kontrolü ile evlilik uyumu, algılanan eş kabulü aracılığı ile istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde ve dolaylı olarak ilişkilidir.

10. Algılanan eş kontrolü ile evlilik uyumu, sırasıyla algılanan eş kabulü ve psikolojik uyum aracılığı ile istatistiksel olarak anlamlı düzeyde ve dolaylı olarak ilişkilidir.

1.4 Araştırmaın Önemi


Dahasi, bu araştırmanın bulguları ve doğurgularının alanda çalışan psikolojik danışmanlar için bir kaynak niteliği taşıyabilmesi mümkündür. Evli çiftlere yönelik psikolojik danışma hizmeti veren psikolojik danışmanlar, eşlerin birbirlerinden kabul algılamasına yardımcı olacak davranışları daha çok sergilemelerini sağlayacak ve teşvik edecek müdahaleler planlayarak, onların psikolojik uyumlarını da desteklemiş olacaktır. Böylelikle, eş tarafından kabul algılanan ve psikolojik uyumu artmış bir birey, evlilik ilişkisinde de daha iyi bir uyum gösterebilecektir.

2. YÖNTEM

2.1 Araştırmanın Deseni
Bu araştırmanın amacı, evli bireylerden oluşan 624 katılımcının eş kabul-red, eş kontrol, psikolojik uyum ve evlilik uyum düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkileri incelemektir. Araştırmanın amacı doğrultusunda ilişkisel araştırma deseni kullanılmıştır.
2.2 Örneklem
Araştırmanın örneklemi Ankara ve İstanbul gibi büyükşehirlerde yaşayan 624 evli birey oluşturmaktadır. Örneklem, kolay ulaşılabilirlik yöntemi ile seçilmiştir. Katılımcıların 360’ı kadın (%57.7), 264’ü (%42.3) erkektir. Katılımcıların yaşları 20 ile 63 arasında değişmektedir ($\text{Ort} = 36.82$, $\text{Ss} = 8.19$). Eğitim düzeyi incelendiğinde, katılımcıların 16’sı (%2.6) ortaokul, 48’i (%7.7) lise, 31’i meslek yüksek okulu (%5), 344’ü (%55.1) üniversite, 129’u (%20.7) yüksek lisans ve 56’sı (%9) doktora mezunudur. Ortalama evlilik süresi 9.29 yılıdır ($\text{Ss} = 7.99$).

2.3 Veri Toplama Araçları

Bu araştırmada veri toplama araçları olarak Eş Kabul-Red/Kontrol Ölçeği (EKRÖ/K; Rohner, 2001), Kişilik Değerlendirme Ölçeği (KİDÖ; Rohner, 2005), Çift Uyum Ölçeği (Spainer, 1976) ve Katılımcı Bilgi Formu kullanılmıştır.

2.3.1 Eş Kabul-Red/Kontrol Ölçeği (EKRÖ/K)


2.3.2 Kişilik Değerlendirme Ölçeği (KİDÖ)


2.3.3 Çift Uyum Ölçeği

Çift Uyum Ölçeği, Spainer (1976) tarafından çiftilerin ilişki kalitesini ölçmek amacıyla geliştirilmiştir. 32 madden oluşan ölçekte eşler arası tatmin, fikirbirliği, bağımlılık ve duygusal ifadeden oluşan dört alt boyut yer almaktadır. Ölçeğin kimi maddeleri beşli, altılı ve yedili Likert tipi maddelerden, kimisi ise
“Evet” ve “Hayır”dan oluşan ikili maddelerden oluşmaktadır. Ölçekten alınan yüksek puanlar daha iyi düzeyde bir evlilik uyumunun varlığını işaret etmektedir.


### 2.3.4 Katılımcı Bilgi Formu

Katılımcı Bilgi Formu, katılımcıların yaş, cinsiyet, eğitim durumu, evlilik süresi, çocuk sayısı gibi demografik özelliklerine ilişkin bilgilerini toplamak amacıyla araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilmiştir (*Form için bknz* EK-D).

### 2.4 Veri Toplama Süreci ve İşlem

2.5 Veri Analizi

Bu araştırmanın amacı, evli bireylerden oluşan 624 katılımcının eş kabul-red, eş kontrol, psikolojik uyum ve evlilik uyum düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkileri incelemektir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda önerilen modeli test etmek amacıyla AMOS paket programı kullanılarak Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi’nin (YEM) bir türü olan yol analizi uygulanmıştır.

2.6 Çalışmanın Sınırlılıkları

Bu çalışmanın bulgularını değerlendirirken birtakım sınırlılıkların göz önünde bulundurulması gerekmektedir. Öncelikle, rastgele örnekleme yöntemi seçilmemesi sonucu genellenebilmesini mümkün kılmamaktadır. Ayrıca, özbildirime dayalı ölçü araçlarının kullanılanması da sosyal istenirlik gibi sorunları ortaya çıkarmış olabilir. Bir diğer sınırlılık da katılımcıların çok büyük bir kısının yüksek eğitim seviyesine sahip olmasıdır.

3. BULGULAR

Yol analizinin çalışma verilerine uygun olup olmadığını değerlendirmek amacıyla hesaplanan uyum değerleri Tablo 4.3’te verilmiştir. Tüm uyum değerlerinin mükemmel uyum aralığındada olduğunu gözlemiştir (kikare/serbestlik derecesi oranı 1.504, CFI .999, TLI .997, SRMR .0132 ve RMSEA .028).

Modelde önerilen doğrudan ve doyamalı yolların anlamlı olup olmadığını test etmek için 1000 farklı örneklemden elde edilen Bootstraping yöntemi kullanılmış ve sonucu ortaya çıkan beta yüklüleri (β) incelemiştir. Şekil 4.1’de görüleceği üzere, araştırmanın başlangıcında oluşturulan tüm hipotезler doğrulanmıştır. Doğrudan etkilere bakıldığında, algılanan eş kontrolü ile eş kabulü arasında olumsuz yönde ve güçlü bir ilişki, algılanan eş kontrolü ve psikolojik uyum arasında anlamlı olmayan bir ilişki, algılanan eş kontrolü ve
evlilik uyumu arasında anlamlı olmayan bir ilişki, algılanan eş kabulü ve psikolojik uyum arasında pozitif yönde ve orta düzeyde bir ilişki, algılanan eş kabulü ve evlilik uyumu arasında pozitif yönde ve güçlü bir ilişki, psikolojik uyum ve evlilik uyumu arasında pozitif yönde ve düşük düzeyde bir ilişki ortaya çıkmıştır.

Dolaylı etkilere bakıldığında ise, algılanan eş kontrollü ve psikolojik uyum ile algılanan eş kontrollü ve evlilik uyumu arasındaki ilişki evlilik uyumunun aracı rolü olduğu gözlenmiştir. Ayrıca, algılanan eş kontrollü ve evlilik uyumu arasındaki ilişki evlilik uyumunun aracı rolü olduğu belirtilmiştir. Algılanan eş kabulü ve evlilik uyumu arasındaki ilişki psikolojik uyumun aracı rolü olduğu belirtilmiştir. Son olarak, algılanan eş kabulü ve evlilik uyumu arasındaki ilişki psikolojik uyumun aracı rolü olduğu belirtilmiştir.

Tablo 4.4’te görüldüğü üzere, algılanan eş kontrollü, algılanan eş kabulüne ilişkin varyansın %24’ünü, algılanan eş kontrollü ve algılanan eş kabulü psikolojik uyum varyansının %8’ini ve tüm bu değişkenler hep birlikte evlilik uyumu toplam varyansının %75’ini açıklamıştır.

4. TARTIŞMA

Bu araştırmanın amacı, evli bireylerden oluşan 624 katılımcının eş kabul-red, eş kontrol, psikolojik uyum ve evlilik uyum düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkileri incelemektir. Bu amaç doğrultusunda söz konusu değişkenler arasında pek çok doğrudan ve dolaylı etkinin yer aldığı bir model test edilmiş ve öne sürülen tüm hipotezler doğrulanmıştır.

Eşten algılanan kontrol ile evlilik uyumu arasında doğrudan bir ilişki çıkmamıştır (Hipotez 1). Bu hipotez, araştırmacının algılanan eş kabulü değişkenini kontrol etikten sonra (kısımsal korelasyon) eş kontrolü ve evlilik uyumunun arasındaki ilişkinin ortadan kaybolması üzerine formüle edilmiştir.


Eşten algılanan kontrol ile psikolojik uyum arasında doğrudan bir ilişki çıkmamıştır (Hipotez 3). Rohner ve Khaleque (2008) de eş kabulünün kontrol ettikten sonra eş kontrolü ile psikolojik uyum arasındaki ilişkinin kaybolduğunu gözlemlemiş ve bu iki değişkenin üçüncü bir araci değişken vasıtasıyla bağlantılı olabileceği öne sürmüş ancak bunu test etmek için herhangi bir girişimde

olsun, kabul kavramının kapsayıcı, pek çok diğer kavramı da içinde barındıryor olmasından kaynaklanıyor olabilir. Hatta, algılanan eş kabulünün bir şemsiye kavram olarak iyi bir evlilik işleyişi ile ilintili olan başka bir çok duyguyu barındırdığı söylenebilir.


Algılanan eş kontrolü ile evlilik uyumu arasındaki ilişkiye algılanan eş kabulü aracılık etmiştir (Hipotez 8). Hipotez 2’nin tartışmasında belirtildiği üzere, eşten algılanan kontrolü kişinin evlilik ilişkisini içinde ihtiyaç duyduğu bağimsızlık ve otonomiye bir müdahale olarak yorumlaması kadar, kontrol etmek isteyen eşe kontrol edilmeye çalışılan eşin itirazi karşısında ortaya çıkan bir öfke de söz
konusu olabilir. Her iki durumda da kontrol edilen eşin evliliğine olan uyumu olumsuz yönde etkilenebilir.


4.2 Kuram, Araştırma ve Uygulamaya Yönelik Doğurgular

Bu çalışmanın Kişilerarası Kabul-Red Kuramı açısından en önemli doğurgusu, daha önceki pek çok çalışmada yetince ele alınmamış olan kontrol boyutunu incelemesi ve psikolojik uyum ile evlilik uyumu değişkenleri ile ilişkisinde eş kabulünün araci etkisi olduğunu göstermiş olmasıdır. Bir diğer doğurgu da yakın ilişkide algılanan kabulün kişinin psikolojik uyumu ile ilişkili olduğu şeklindeki kuramın temel saylantısını bir kez daha doğrulamış olmasıdır.


4.3 Gelecekteki Araştırmalar İçin Öneriler

Her ne kadar eşten algılanan kabul ile evlilik uyumu arasında güçlü bir ilişki bulunmuş olsa da, bu durum iki değişkenin arasında bir nedensel ilişkisi olduğunu göstermemektedir. Olası nedensel ilişkileri ortaya koymak için konuya ilişkin boylamsal araştırmaların yapılması önerilmektedir.

İkinci olarak, bu çalışma önerdiği ve test ettiği model bağlamında bir ilk adım niteliği taşıyor olsa da, konuyu aydınlatmak amacıyla daha fazla çalışmaya ihtiyaç duyulmaktadır. Özellikle eşten algılanan kontrol değişkeni ile ilgili
yalnızca evlilik ilişkisi ile sınırlamayıp, diğer romantik ilişkilerde de çalışılması önerilmektedir.

Bu çalışma, gözlenen değişkenler ile çalıştığı için, sonraki çalışmalarda gözlenmeyen (latent) değişkenlerle modelin yeniden test edilmesi önerilmektedir. Son olarak, eşten algılanan davranışsal kontrol boyutunun kültürel dinamiklerden etkilenmesi söz konusu olabilir. Eşten algılanan kabul boyutu her ne kadar evrensel özellikler gösterse de kontrol boyutunda benzer bir netlik oluşmamıştır. Bu nedenle, kontrol değişkeni açısından gelecekteki araştırmaların kültürelarası çalışmalarına yer vermesi yerinde olacaktır.
APPENDIX G

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü X

Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü

Enformatik Enstitüsü

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Aracı İyiaydın
Adı : Ayşegül
Bölümü : Eğitim Bilimleri

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : The Associations Among Intimate Partner Acceptance-Rejection/Control, Psychological Adjustment and Marital Adjustment

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans X Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. X

2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. 

3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ:

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