ROLE OF LOCUS OF CONTROL AND CRITICAL THINKING IN HANDLING DISSATISFACTIONS IN ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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ABSTRACT

ROLE OF LOCUS OF CONTROL AND CRITICAL THINKING IN HANDLING DISSATISFACTIONS IN ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS OF UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

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In the present study, the role of locus of control and critical thinking in handling dissatisfactions in the romantic relationships of university students was examined. Five hundred and eighty university students (373 females, 207 males) from different faculties of five universities located in Ankara voluntarily participated in the study. Convenient sampling procedure was used in all phases of the study. A pilot study was conducted to adapt My Responses to Relationship Problems Scale (MRRPS) into Turkish. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Multidimensional Scaling (MDS) were utilized to assess factorial and dimensional structure of MRRPS. Results revealed MRRPS to be psychometrically satisfactory. In the main study, four separate, moderated regression analyses were conducted to assess the predictive role of locus of control, critical thinking, and their interaction on exit, voice, loyalty and neglect responses. Results revealed that locus of control significantly predicted exit, voice and neglect responses. Participants with external locus of control had significantly higher exit and neglect scores whereas participants with internal locus of control had significantly higher voice scores. In addition,
critical thinking significantly predicted exit and voice scores. Participants with lower levels of critical thinking disposition had higher exit scores whereas participants with higher levels of critical thinking had significantly higher voice scores. Findings of the present study were discussed in the framework of locus of control, critical thinking and close relationships.

Keywords: Locus of Control, Critical Thinking, Romantic Relationships, Dissatisfaction in Romantic Relationships, Exit, Voice, Loyalty, Neglect, Adolescence.
ÖZ

KONTROL ODAĞININ VE ELEŞTİREL DÜŞÜN MENİN ÜNİVERSİTE ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN ROMANTİK İLİŞKİLERİNDEKİ DOYUMSUZLUKLARI ELE ALIŞ BİÇİMLERİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ROLÜ

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puanlarının anlamlı düzeyde yüksek olduğu, içsel kontrol odaklı olan katılımcıların ise anlamlı biçimde yüksek dile getirme ortalamasına sahip oldukları görülmüştür. Son olarak, terk etme ve dile getirme puanlarının eleştirel düşünme tarafından anlamlı olarak yordandığı belirlenmiştir. Eleştirel düşünme yakınılığı yüksek olan katılımcıların, dile getirme puanlarının düşük olanlardan, eleştirel düşünme yakınılığı düşük olan katılımcıların ise terk etme puanlarının yüksek olanlardan daha yüksek ortalama sahip olduğu bulunmuştur. Araştırmanın bulguları yakın ilişkiler, kontrol odaklı ve eleştirel düşünme literatürü ışığında tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Sözcüklər: Kontrol odaklı, eleştirel düşünme, romantik ilişkiler, yakın duygusal ilişkilerde doyumsuzluk, terk etme, dile getirme, sadakat, ihmal, ergenlik.
To My Wife, Işıl
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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study
The aim of the present study is to examine relationships between critical thinking, locus of control and responses to dissatisfaction in close romantic relationships of Turkish university students. Considering the role of dispositions in the responses of dissatisfaction in close relationships, the present study focuses on two personality dispositions, critical thinking and locus of control, in understanding the dissatisfaction in adolescent romantic relationships.

1.1.1 Romantic Relationships in Adolescence
Romantic relationships are often conceptualized as friendship, which is a freely chosen association, marked by passion, commitment, and intimacy (Sternberg, 1986). However, the nature and functions of romantic relationships in adolescence are not the same as adult romantic relationships since adolescence is a transitional period characterized by several physical, cognitive, and socioemotional changes. Therefore, as Furman (2002) mentioned, many facets of adolescent romance still need to be explored.

Early romantic experiences are believed to play a vital role not only in identity and intimacy development but also in shaping the course of subsequent romantic relationships and marriage in adulthood (Erikson, 1968). Largely based on this theoretical proposition, a bulk of research has been carried out in the literature investigating the different aspects of adolescent romantic relationship (Furman, 2002; Shulman & Scharf, 2000; Zimmer-Gembeck, 2002).
From the developmental perspective, the onset and the nature of romantic relationships in adolescence are expected to be different across cultures. Some researchers point out that dating and having a romantic relationship appears to be a highly emphasized normative behavior of adolescents in Western cultures (e.g., Zimmer-Gembeck, 2002; Zimmer-Gembeck, Siebenbruner & Collins, 2001). Although, there is still no consensus on the onset of romantic relationships, research mostly suggested that first romantic relationships are formed during adolescence especially around the ages of 14-15 (e.g., Shulman & Scharf, 2000). Zimmer-Gembeck (2002) argued that varying findings about the onset of romantic relationships during adolescence could partly be a result of differing definitions and interpretations of terms such as “dating, going steady, romantic involvement, and romantic relationships” (p.218).

The nature of romantic relationships also changes developmentally (Furman, 2002). As young people move from early adolescence to young adulthood, their romantic relationships become more important in their social world. Connolly and Goldberg (1999; as cited in Shulman & Seiffge-Krenke, 2001) defined four phases in order to explain the developmental route of adolescent romance.

*Initiation phase* is characterized by physical attraction. In this phase, the major objective is to strengthen one’s self concept and gain confidence in one’s ability to interact with potential partners in a romantic way. Individuals in this phase are mainly concerned by how they feel, how they act and how their behavior is perceived and accepted by peers. The second phase is *affiliative phase* in which boys and girls come together within mixed-gender groups. The major characteristic of this phase is companionship rather than intimacy. The third phase is marked by presence of *intimate romantic relationships* in which qualities of interaction between partners become similar to that of a dyadic relationship in adulthood and a couple is formed. During this phase, adolescents put a greater emphasis on intimacy with the romantic partner.
Deeper mutual feelings are shared and partners may engage in sexual activity. The role of peer group in forming and regulating romantic relationships typically decreases. In the last phase, committed relationships are established. This phase is usually overlapped with the later stages of adolescence. These relationships are long-term and characterized by mutual physical attraction, desire for shared intimacy, readiness and ability to show caring behaviors. Several research findings support the validation of these phases and provide empirical evidence regarding the developmental nature of romantic relationships (e.g., Furman, 2002; Shulman & Kipnis, 2001).

Another line of research emphasized the positive role of romantic relationships in adolescent personality development such as the development of self-identity, gender-role identity, self-esteem and sexuality (Furman & Shaffer, 2003). Romantic relationships also positively contribute to the development of romantic self-concept. Having a romantic relationship and its related qualities were found to lead to the feelings of self-worth (Connolly & Konarsky, 1994).

Researchers emphasized some additional main functions of romantic relationships in the life of the adolescent (Grinder, 1966; Skipper & Nass, 1966; as cited in Dusek, 1987). Socialization function of romantic relationships allows the adolescent to develop and learn a number of social skills to communicate with the other sex. Recreation process provides opportunities for entertainment. Participative eagerness refers to dating in order to avoid boredom and loneliness. Independence assertion function refers to breaking the rules of adult authority and status seeking function refers to achieving the desired status in society. Sexual gratification allows an appropriate and acceptable way of having sexual contact. Finally, mate selection which is related to long-term outcomes of the process and may reflect the evolutionary aspect of dating.
Evidence suggests that there are some gender differences regarding romantic relationships in adolescence. For instance, results of a study (Schulman & Scharf, 2000) showed that girls emphasized more attachment and care in their romantic relationships than boys. Feiring (1999) also reported that self-disclosure and support in describing romantic relationships are more important for girls as compared to boys. Connolly and Johnson (1996) found that girls perceived their romantic relationships as more supportive than boys.

Research findings regarding adolescent romance support the notion that the romantic relationship experienced during adolescence is critical because of its role in (a) enhancing the behavioral repertoires to make the adjustment easier to the adult life and (b) being open to creating or consolidating their representations about how relationships are formed and how they work. More specifically, romantic relationship might be expected to provide the most appropriate ground for the adolescents to deal with three major developmental tasks (Erikson, 1968; Feldman & Gowen, 1998). These tasks are (a) developing a unique identity, (b) building relationship skills and developing intimacy in interacting with the opposite sex, and (c) handling new sexual desires and impulses. Thus, by experiencing romantic relationships, adolescents are expected to be equipped with interpersonal relationship skills and learn to use them in romantic relationships which make them be mature enough in their later intimate relationships like marriage.

However, in adolescent romantic relationships, the nature of commitment or affiliation is quite different from other types of close relationships in terms of being short-lived and having lack of depth and complexity which characterize long-term committed relationships. For this reason, the dissatisfaction experienced in the adolescent romantic relationship may result in separation more readily than in adult romantic relationships.
Numerous studies are conducted to investigate many important aspects of romantic relationships (e.g., Feldman & Gowen, 1998; Furman & Shaffer, 1999; Furman, Simon, Shaffer, & Bouchev, 2002). As in many interpersonal interactions, conflicts or dissatisfactions can inevitably arise in close relationships. “How do partners react when they experience dissatisfactions in their relationships?” is an important question to understand the nature of romantic relationships. Do partners passively wait for conditions to improve, do they prefer discussing problems openly or do they terminate their relationships?

Researchers (Gaines et al., 1997; Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982) maintained that when individuals hurt, anger, or upset one another, two types of responses can be expected: relationship-maintaining and relationship-undermining. Kammrath and Dweck (2005) stated that “When one partner has transgressed against another, the injured party is faced with an accommodative dilemma to respond in a way that maintains and affirms the relationship, at a potential cost to the self, or to respond in a way that satisfies self-interest but erodes and undermines the relationships” (p. 3). Examples for relationship-maintaining behaviors are voice and loyalty responses, whereas examples for relationship-undermining behaviors are exit and neglect responses.

Rusbult, Johnson, and Morrow (1986a) proposed that the domain of responses to problematic situations in romantic relationships should be delineated and classified in order to understand the nature of dissatisfactions and conflicts. Accordingly, “in the absence of such a typology, it is difficult to develop a comprehensive theory-based understanding of reactions to decline” (p. 46). Rusbult and Zembrodt (1983) were able to provide a taxonomy of the domain of dissatisfactions in romantic relationships by employing a multidimensional scaling methodology. Their work clearly suggested four main response categories: exit, voice, loyalty and neglect. This response typology will be elaborated in the following section.
1.1.2 Responses to Dissatisfactions: Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect

Rusbult and Zembrodt (1983) developed a model to classify primary categories of reaction to decline in undergraduates’ dating relationships and responses in adult relationships. These categories were largely based on Hirschman’s (1970) classic work, *Exit, Voice and Loyalty: Responses to Decline in Firms, Organizations, and States*. In addition to Hirschman’s three response categories, the study of Rusbult and Zembrodt (1983) revealed a fourth category named as neglect. Rusbult, Zembrodt, and Gunn (1982) introduced the following definitions and examples regarding these responses:

*Exit* refers to ending the relationship or behaving in an actively destructive manner (e.g., formally separating, moving out of a joint residence, deciding to ‘just be friends, getting a divorce, actively harming the relationship, threatening to leave; statements like “I told him I could not take it any more, and that it was over.” “It drove me crazy so I left.”).

*Voice* refers to actively and constructively attempting to improve conditions (e.g., discussing problems, compromising, seeking help from a professional or from a friend, generating solutions, asking the partner what is bothering him or her, trying to change oneself or change the partner; statements such as “We talked things over and worked things out.” “I wrote him a letter to find out what was going on.”).

*Loyalty* refers to passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve (e.g., supporting the partner when others criticize him/her, continuing to wear symbols of the relationship, praying for improvement; sentences such as “I loved her so much that I ignored her faults.”, “I just waited to see if things would get better, and went out with him when he asked me.”).

*Neglect* refers to passively allowing conditions to deteriorate (e.g., ignoring the partner or spending less time together, refusing to discuss
problems, treating the partner badly; sentences such as “Mostly my response was silence to anything he might say, ignoring him if we were around people, etc.” “I did not really care whether the relationship ended or got better. I think I just kind of coped. I played duplicate bridge and read a lot.”).

Figure 1. Categories of responses to dissatisfaction


As illustrated in Figure 1, exit, voice, loyalty and neglect responses differ from one another along two dimensions. First, responses differ in terms of constructiveness versus destructiveness. In this classification, constructiveness versus destructiveness refers to the impact of a behavior on the relationship,
not to its impact on individual. For example, a separation behavior (exit) is
destructive to the future of a relationship, although it may be a constructive
reaction for an individual who is in an abusive relationship. Thus, voice and
loyalty responses are constructive responses which are intended to maintain a
relationship. On the other hand, exit and neglect responses are destructive to a
relationship.

The second dimension is *activity* versus *passivity*. Activity versus
passivity refers to the impact of a reaction on the immediate problem, not to the
character of the behavior itself. For example, walking to a local bar to avoid
discussing things involves activity, yet this behavior is passively neglectful in
regard to the couple’s problem. Thus, exit and voice responses are active
responses where the individual takes direct action with respect to the problem
at hand. In contrast, loyalty and neglect are passive responses.

The taxonomy of responses to dissatisfactions was utilized in many
studies (e.g., Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986ab; Gaines et al., 1997) and its
theoretical and practical values were supported by empirical findings. The
same taxonomy was also employed to specify the dependent variables of the
present study to investigate dissatisfaction responses of adolescents in their
romantic relationships in relation to two personality traits - locus of control and
critical thinking disposition. The following section introduces the concept of
critical thinking and its possible connections with romantic relationships.

1.1.3 Critical Thinking Disposition

In 1990, under the sponsorship of American Philosophical Association, a
cross-disciplinary panel completed a two-year *Delphi* project, and reached a
consensus on the definition of the concept of critical thinking as follows;

We understand critical thinking to be purposeful, self-regulatory
judgment which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation and
inference, as well as, explanation of the evidential, conceptual,
methodological, criteriological, or contextual considerations upon which that judgment is based... Critical thinking is essential as a tool of inquiry. As such, critical thinking is a liberating force in education and a powerful resource in one’s personal and civic life...While not synonymous with good thinking, critical thinking is a pervasive and self-rectifying human phenomenon (American Philosophical Association, 1990).

The characteristics of critical thinking summarized above imply that critical thinking is obviously based on a rational use of available data and requires engaging in various cognitive processes such as problem-solving, integrating data or making correct judgments. These characteristics allow us to make a theoretical link between critical thinking and other cognitive processes involved in close relationships.

Attributions and beliefs are among these cognitive processes. Several studies emphasized the role of cognitive processes involved in relationship-maintaining and relationship-undermining decisions (e.g., Kelley, 1983). For instance, McClintock (1983) emphasized the role of attributional processes in close relationships. According to the author, people do not simply perceive their own behaviors or that of their partners, they usually engage in additional inferential steps. They attach a meaning to observed events by making attributions about underlying intentions and plans of the actor or to the causal influences of previous events in interaction stream. Such attributions have implications for subsequent interpretations and behaviors. The actors in interaction often have different information as the sources of their judgments. Therefore, they may draw different conclusions about cause-effect connections between events. In such circumstances, attributional differences may lead to dissatisfactions or conflicts.

Fincham, Harold, and Ganor-Phillips (2000) stated that attribution-satisfaction association in the close relationship literature is the one of the most robust phenomena. An average of 80 percent of the relevant research supports
the role of attributions in relationship satisfaction. For instance, in a study of
dating couples, it was found that individuals attributed their own negative
behaviors to situational causes but their partner’s negative behaviors to
personal or dispositional causes (Orvis, Kelley, & Butler, 1976; cited in
Hendrick, 1995).

Beliefs as subjective probabilities about the truth status of facts (Bem,
1970) are also important cognitive structures which influence romantic
relationships. For instance, Sprecher and Matts (1999) proposed that
individuals enter a romantic relationship with pre-existing beliefs about how
relationships should be like. They found that romantic beliefs were positively
correlated with relationship quality (love, satisfaction, and especially
commitment) for both men and women. Thus, authors concluded that general
positive beliefs about relationships tended to be associated with positive
feelings and experiences (love, satisfaction, commitment).

To sum up, the way individuals think about the nature of a relationship
(beliefs) and the way they make sense of it (attributions) are important factors
which can influence the course of an ongoing relationship. Individuals with
high critical thinking disposition or skills can be expected to hold verifiable
beliefs about or functional attributions of their relationships. Thus, it can be
proposed that Critical Thinking as a disposition or skill may affect the response
tendencies of individuals when they face with relationship dissatisfaction.

1.1.3.1 Critical Thinking: Skill Versus Disposition

Although Delphi project brought a consensus on definition of critical
thinking, there is still an ongoing debate in the literature regarding whether
critical thinking is a disposition or a set of skills (Facione, Facione, &
Giancarlo, 1992; Facione, Facione, & Giancarlo, 2000; Clifford, Boufal, &
Kurtz, 2004). Contemporary approaches to critical thinking assert that
discussions on critical thinking must include both critical thinking skills and
dispositions. In the traditional line of research, assessment of critical thinking has centered mainly on critical thinking skills and excluded critical thinking dispositions.

The term *critical thinking disposition* refers to a person’s internal motivation to think critically when faced with problems to solve, ideas to evaluate or decisions to make. These values, attitudes and inclinations are dimensions of one’s personality which relate to the likelihood of a person to approach problem identification and problem solving by using reasoning (Giancarlo, Blohm, & Urdan, 2004). Delphi project offers a rich description of an ideal critical thinker and summarizes some characteristics which may be interpreted as one’s general tendency (i.e., disposition).

The ideal thinker is habitually inquisitive, well-informed, trustful of reason, open-minded, flexible, fair-minded in evaluation, honest in facing personal biases, prudent in making judgments, willing to reconsider, clear about issues, orderly in complex matters, diligent in seeking relevant information, reasonable in the selection criteria, focused on inquiry, and persistent in seeking results which are as precise as the subject and the circumstances of inquiry permit. (American Philosophical Association, 1990).

Although there is a debate on whether or not critical thinking disposition and skills are different and distinct constructs, there is a consensus among critical thinking experts that several cognitive skills are the core of critical thinking disposition: interpretation, analysis, evaluation, inference, explanation, and self-regulation (Facione, 2004). Facione, Giancarlo, Facione, and Gainen (1995) defined critical thinking disposition as “… a constellation of attitudes, a set of intellectual virtues, or … a group of habits of mind…” which make the individual be able to use “… their cognitive powers of analysis, interpretation, inference, evaluation, explanation, and self-monitoring meta-cognition to make powerful judgments about what to believe or what to do” in a given content (p. 3).
Previous studies regarding critical thinking mostly focused on its associations with educational variables (e.g., McBride & Bonnette, 1995; Zoller et al. 2000), with personality traits (e.g., Clifford, Boufal, & Kurtz, 2004) and with decision-making (e.g., Hicks, Merritt & Elstein, 2003).

The result of a study (McBride & Bonnette, 1995) showed that a series of critical thinking exercises increased the critical thinking abilities of a group of at-risk students. Clifford, Boufal and Kurtz (2004) found that critical thinking scores of the college students were positively and significantly correlated with their openness to experience scores. A study carried out by Klaczynski, James, Fauth and Swanger (1998) revealed that critical thinking was associated with identity development of adolescents.

In sum, critical thinking is closely linked to cognitive processes. For this reason, it can be expected to influence behavioral tendencies of individuals in a relationship. However, control beliefs are also crucial in explaining behavioral tendencies (Bandura, 2001). A specific control-related construct, locus of control, is introduced in the next section.

1.1.4 Conceptualization of Locus of Control
The concept of locus of control has its origin in social learning theory of Rotter (1954, 1966). In general, locus of control refers to a personality or dispositional variable reflecting the tendency to perceive events as being either a consequence of one’s own actions or a consequence of outside factors such as fate, chance or powerful others that are beyond one’s personal control (Bearinger & Blum, 1997; Marks, 1998).

Rotter’s (1966) original locus of control classification places generalized beliefs concerning who or what influence consequences on a bipolar dimension from internal to external control. Internal locus of control is the term used to describe the belief that control for future outcomes resides primarily in oneself.
That is, people with internal locus of control believe that outcomes are consequences of their own actions rather than luck, fate or others. They also believe that their own experiences are controlled by their own skills and effort. By contrast, external locus of control refers to the expectancy that control of outcomes is outside of oneself. People who tend to have external locus of control tend to attribute their experiences and outcomes to external factors such as fate, chance or luck (Lefcourt, 1982).

1.1.4.1 Expectancy-Value Theory and Locus of Control

Locus of control is grounded in expectancy-value theory, which explains human behavior as determined by the perceived likelihood of an event or outcome occurring contingent upon the given behavior and the value placed on that event or outcome. The likelihood of a given behavior increases when expectancy and a value interact under certain circumstances (e.g., Feather, 1990). More specially, according to Marks (1998), this theory states that if someone values a particular outcome and that person believes that exerting a particular response will bring that outcome, he is more likely to produce that particular action.

Within this behaviorist view, Rotter (1966) emphasized the crucial role of reinforcements in relation to internal and external locus of control. Accordingly, effects of positive and negative reinforcements in a learning process can be understood on the basis of individuals’ beliefs in internal and external locus of control. People with internal locus of control are more likely to change their behaviors after presentation of a negative or a positive reinforcement than are people with external locus of control. The internal locus of control people perceive the reinforcement as more meaningful and influential because they believe that they have control over reinforcement: they change their behavior to increase or decrease reinforcement. On the other hand, the external locus of control people are less likely to change their behaviors because they do not believe that changing their behaviors would have an effect
on reinforcements. Instead, they believe that outcomes are primarily results of outside factors such as chance, fate or other people.

The relationship between locus of control and different aspects of close relationships has also been investigated in marriage literature. Studies indicated that internal locus of control was positively associated with higher marital satisfaction. (e.g. Camp & Ganong, 1997; Madden & Janoff-Bulman, 1981). Miller et al. (1986) found that partners with internal locus of control were more active, engaged in problem-solving behaviors more frequently, and more satisfied in their relationships than partners with external locus of control. This study also indicated that internals were more effective in communicating and achieving their desired goals.

Myers and Booth (1999) explained the link between high locus of control (i.e., internal) and higher marital quality by suggesting four underlying processes. The first process is related to locus of control and motivation of marital success. Individuals with higher locus of control over marital events may be more motivated and may work harder to achieve marital success. Second, higher levels of locus of control may lead to handling and negotiating marital events more effectively. Third, they are more likely to search and find effective ways of dealing with marital constraints. Fourth, positive outcomes may reinforce future actions: the positive results of dealing with a problem will reinforce taking future action when new problems are encountered.

Based on the findings of all these studies, it can be concluded that internal locus of control might be one of the important determinant in regulating satisfaction experienced by the partners in their close relationships.

1.1.5 Theoretical Framework of the Study
The present study aims to integrate three theoretical concepts which have some overlapping components; critical thinking and locus of control as being
independent variables and a taxonomy of conflict behaviors (exit, voice, loyalty and neglect) in romantic relationships as a being dependent variable.

Within the context of social learning framework, considering the relationship between cognitive processes and behaviors, in the present study, it was proposed that critical thinking disposition and locus of control might increase our understanding regarding adolescents’ responses to dissatisfaction in their romantic relationships.

As it was previously explained, critical thinking is based on cognitive processes of individuals and is related to decision making processes (Goldstein & Hogarth, 1997). The most important characteristic of critical thinking process is asking why questions in situations where individuals need to reach a judgment, to make a decision, or reasoning about the associations of events, concepts or phenomena. These why questions do not only provide answers for the topic at hand but also help individuals to question causalities embedded in those answers (Facione & Facione, 2002). According to Chaffee (1994), critical thinking is a reflection of rationality onto our daily life and may have positive effects on our decision making and problem solving processes.

One of the main emphases of critical thinking models is that it leads to effective solutions (Lundquist, 1999). Braman (1999) emphasized that critical thinking is not solely an activity which may be used in academic situations but is also an effective tool which may be utilized in every situation where peaceful solutions are needed. According to him understanding other parties in a conflict situation is a crucial component of the critical thinking and what is important in a conflict situation is not getting the most benefit or having a superior position over the conflicting parties, but coming to a mutually benefiting position.
It is possible to find further evidence in literature supporting the relationship between critical thinking and decision making processes. In a study with Turkish university students, Kökdemir (2003) found that students who were high in critical thinking disposition provided more rational answers to decision making problems as compared to a low critical thinking disposition group. The study also revealed that the latter group used heuristics more than available data in decision making process. Bailey (1997) found that individuals who were high on need for cognition tended to make more detailed questioning in decision making process as compared to individuals who are low in need for cognition. Therefore, the time required for making a decision was shorter for the individuals with low need for cognition. In the light of these findings, one can argue that people with high critical thinking disposition might handle relationships problems more effectively because of their well-developed decision-making and problem solving abilities.

Critical thinking also involves some skills which may have direct effects on the quality of interpersonal relationships. For instance, for a person in a close relationship, it is important to differentiate between proven ideas or facts and assumptions (one of the core prerequisites of critical thinking) (Facione & Facione, 2002). If parties in a romantic relationship rely solely on their assumptions rather than the facts, the conflict and communication problems would become inevitable. In the same vein, excluding irrelevant information from facts is another skill needed in close relationship problems.

It is possible to argue that levels of critical thinking disposition and skills may lead to differentiation in the behavioral repertoire of individuals in a romantic relationship. Since the process of critical thinking involves a series of active and self-regulatory activities, individuals who have higher levels of these skills and dispositions may behave in active and constructive ways (Facione & Facione, 2002). In other words, it is more likely that these
individuals may tend to engage in cognitive processes and behaviors which may result in positive outcomes.

On the other hand, individuals with low level of critical thinking disposition and skills may have a limited collection of conflict resolution behaviors in their repertoire. One of the main assumptions that came out of the literature summarized in this section is that if critical thinking is positively related to decision making-processes and problem solving (e.g., Chaffee, 1994, Bailey, 1997), it may also be related to behaviors of individuals when they experience dissatisfaction in their romantic relationships. As a result, one can propose a relationship between critical thinking disposition and responses to dissatisfaction in close relationships which includes a continuous decision making and problem-solving processes. How people behave in such situations may be based on partly how they process contextual and interpersonal information.

The second construct that falls into the scope of the present study is locus of control. The present study utilized Rotter’s (1966) conceptualization of locus of control which involves a bipolar dimension from internal to external control. There are only a limited number of studies which addressed the effects of locus of control on response tendencies in romantic involvements. Morrow (1985) in two successive studies predicted that internality/externality would affect response tendencies along with the activity/passivity dimension, with individuals who feel a greater sense of control over events in their lives exhibiting greater tendencies to actively behave in problem situations. More specifically, Morrow predicted that internals would have a tendency to react actively (i.e., exit or voice). On the other hand, externals were expected to engage in relatively more passive reactions in dissatisfaction situations. The predictions of these studies received only weak support. In one of the two studies, internal locus of control was found to be positively correlated with voice and negatively correlated with loyalty.
Other studies indicated that locus of control construct is related to different aspects of close relationships (e.g., Camp & Ganong, 1997; Madden & Janoff-Bulman, 1981; Miller et al., 1986; Myers and Booth, 1999). Since locus of control includes individuals’ beliefs about whether success or failure is caused by factors internal or external to them, possible associations between locus of control and close relationships are not unexpected. Also, locus of control beliefs may have some implications on subsequent behaviors. For instance, attributing sources of dissatisfaction in a relationship to internal or external factors may determine the kind of behaviors that people exhibit. Therefore, it is possible to argue that individuals’ locus of control orientation might affect how individuals react to dissatisfaction. More specifically, locus of control may be a determinant of exit, voice, loyalty and neglect behaviors exhibited in the face of a relationship problem.

Although, the interactions of locus of control on critical thinking were not studied extensively, the literature provides findings that may be interpreted as an evidence for the relationship between two constructs. In two separate studies, Williams and Stack (1972) as well as Ducette and Wolk (1973) have found that internals are quicker at extracting cues that facilitate the making of accurate judgments than are externals. Also, internals are capable of better recall of performances and are more likely to make use of information for drawing estimates of their subsequent performances than externals. These findings are very consistent with the definition of critical thinking which emphasizes importance of truth-seeking and analyticity (Facione & Facione, 1992). In addition, externals have been found to be more dogmatic (Sherman, Pelletier, & Ryckman, 1973) and more likely to believe in supernatural (Randall & Desrosiers, 1980; Scheidt, 1973) and astrological-like phenomena (Jorgenson, 1981) than internals. Several studies also found a significant positive correlation between external locus of control and paranormal beliefs (e.g., Peltzer, 2002, Allen & Lester, 1994; Tobacyk, Nagot, & Miller, 1988).
Again, this group of findings seems to be related to truth-seeking and overall critical thinking (Facione & Facione, 1992).

The dependent variable of the present study was typologies of responses to dissatisfaction: exit, voice, loyalty and neglect (Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982). As mentioned before, this taxonomy of behavior was used in many studies to test the investment model of relationships (Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982; Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, Slovik, & Lipkus, 1991). This model proposes that reactions of individuals in a romantic relationship to dissatisfactions vary in terms of some variable: previous satisfaction with the relationship, size of investment to the relationship and quality of the possible alternatives. A body of findings revealed that investment size and satisfaction level is positively correlated with voice and loyalty and negatively correlated with exit and neglect responses (e.g., Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982).

The present study aimed to explore mainly effects of locus of control and critical thinking on reactions to dissatisfaction in romantic relationships. The importance of exit, voice, loyalty and neglect taxonomy in this study was that it provided a well established theoretical ground for the reactions to dissatisfaction.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The major aim of this study is to explore unique and combined effects of critical thinking and locus of control on reactions to dissatisfaction in romantic relationships.

Specifically, the present research attempted at answering the following questions:
What are the effects of gender, critical thinking, and locus of control on each of the reactions to dissatisfaction in romantic relationships identified as exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect?

Are there interaction effects of gender, critical thinking, and locus of control on each of the reactions to dissatisfaction in romantic relationships identified as exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect?

Depending on these questions, the hypotheses of the present study are operationalized as follows:

1. Internal locus of control is expected to predict higher levels of voice and loyalty responses, whereas external locus of control is expected to predict exit and neglect responses.

2. Higher levels of critical thinking disposition are expected to predict voice and loyalty responses, whereas lower levels of critical thinking disposition are expected to predict exit and neglect responses.

3. A locus of control \times critical thinking interaction is expected to predict reactions to dissatisfaction. Internal locus of control and high critical thinking disposition will jointly predict voice and loyalty responses, whereas external locus of control and low critical thinking disposition will jointly predict exit and neglect responses.

4. In addition, possible two- and three-way interaction effects of gender, locus of control, and critical thinking on the dissatisfaction responses will be explored.
1.3 Significance of the Study

The present study aims to understand the effects of critical thinking and locus of control on individuals’ reactions to dissatisfaction in romantic involvements. Most of the studies about critical thinking aimed to explore the construct itself (e.g., Facione & Facione, 1992; Facione, Giancarlo, Facione, & Gainen, 1995; Watson & Glaser, 1980), its relationship with paranormal beliefs (e.g., Hergovich & Arendasy, 2004), its effects on decision making (e.g., Shin, 1998; Hoffman & Elwin, 2004) and academic achievement in educational settings (e.g., Giancarlo, Blohm, & Urdan, 2004; Mcbridge & Bonnette, 1995; Myrick, 2002; Myrick & Yonge, 2004).

The Delphi Project (1990) and other research apparently revealed the scientific value of critical thinking. It was interesting that the proliferation of critical thinking studies continued its development in some major disciplines and fields such as nursing and education (e.g., Giancarlo, Blohm, & Urdan, 2004; Mcbridge & Bonnette, 1995; Myrick, 2002; Myrick & Yonge, 2004). There seem to be a lack of studies examining the links between critical thinking and various cognitive and behavioral processes in close relationships. One of the most important contributions of the present study would be addressing this issue and bringing critical thinking in the domain of close relationships and into the attention of researchers.

Similarly, although effects of locus of control were studied in close relationships (e.g., Camp & Ganong, 1997; Madden & Janoff-Bulman, 1981; Miller et al., 1986; Morrow, 1985; Myers & Booth, 1999), none of the previous studies investigated its effects together with critical thinking in romantic relationships. Literature presented above provides adequate evidence indicating that critical thinking and locus of control are related variables in terms of cognitive processes. Therefore, the present study would be one of the pioneering studies that investigates the combined effects of critical thinking and locus of control in romantic relationships.
This study also adapted a behavior taxonomy which classifies reactions to dissatisfaction in romantic relationships in a Turkish sample. In the Western literature, the taxonomy of exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect behaviors was previously proposed and the validity and reliability of the construct was empirically demonstrated during the 1980s (e.g., Rusbult, Zembrodt, & Gunn, 1982; Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986ab; Rusbult, Morrow, & Johnson 1987). It was believed that the evidence obtained from a Turkish sample would be a first attempt in this area and make a contribution to Turkish literature.

In terms of counseling implications, the results of the present study would help counselors more accurately to handle the problems of adolescents’ romantic relationships by assessing and predicting the tendencies toward exit, voice, loyalty and neglect.

Research findings also suggest that both critical thinking (e.g., McBride & Bonnette, 1995; Kökdemir, 2003) and locus of control (Manger, Eikeland, & Asbjørnsen, 2002) can be learned and enhanced through interventions. Therefore, the results of the present study are expected to provide valuable theoretical information and practical implications for counseling practices.

To summarize, it is possible to conclude that there are converging evidences indicating conceptual relationships between the variables of this research. However, none of the studies have empirically addressed the effects of locus of control and critical thinking together on the reactions to dissatisfaction in romantic relationships. Therefore, the most important contribution of this study to existing literature would be to combine these constructs and to test their effects on romantic involvements.
1.4 Definition of Terms

The most frequently used basic terms of the study were conceptualized and presented below.

**Conflict:** Conflict is “an interpersonal process that occurs whenever the actions of one person interfere with the actions of another” (Peterson, 1983, p. 365).

**Critical thinking disposition:** Critical thinking is purposeful, self-regulatory judgment which results in interpretation, analysis, evaluation and inference as well as explanation of evidential, conceptual, methodological, criteriological or contextual considerations upon which judgment is based (Facione & Facione, 1992).

**Locus of control:** Locus of control refers to a personality or dispositional variable reflecting the tendency to perceive events as being either a consequence of one’s own actions or a consequence of outside factors such as fate, chance or powerful others that are beyond one’s personal control (Rotter, 1966).

**Internal locus of control:** Internal locus of control is the term used to describe the belief that control for future outcome resides primarily in oneself. That is, people with internal locus of control believe that outcomes are consequences of their own actions rather than luck, fate or others. They also believe that their own experiences are controlled by their own skills and effort (Rotter, 1966).

**External locus of control:** External locus of control refers to expectancy that control is outside of oneself. People who have external locus of control tend to attribute their experiences and outcomes to external factors such as fate, chance or luck (Rotter, 1966).
Exit: Exit refers to ending the relationship or behaving in an actively destructive manner (e.g., formally separating, moving out of a joint residence, deciding to ‘just be friends, getting a divorce, actively harming the relationship, threatening to leave) (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986a).

Voice: Voice refers to actively and constructively attempting to improve conditions in a relationship when dissatisfaction exists (e.g., discussing problems, compromising, seeking help from a professional or from a friend, generating solutions, asking the partner what is bothering him or her, trying to change oneself or change the partner) (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986a).

Loyalty: Loyalty refers to passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve in a relationship when dissatisfaction exists (e.g., supporting the partner when others criticize him or her, continuing to wear symbols of the relationship, praying for improvement) (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986a).

Neglect: Neglect refers to passively allowing conditions to deteriorate in a relationship when dissatisfaction exists (e.g., ignoring the partner or spending less time together, refusing to discuss problems, treating the partner badly) (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986a).
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The following section introduces the research on main variables of the present study. Since the reported research regarding the relationships among these variables is limited, the majority of the findings summarized in this section cover the conceptualization of the constructs.

2.1 Research on Conflict in Romantic Relationships in Adolescence

Research on conflict in adolescent romantic relationships investigates different aspects of conflict such as social functioning and conflict (e.g., Joyner & Udry, 2000), conflict resolution patterns and duration of the relationship (e.g., Shulman, Tuval-Mashiach, Levran, & Anbar, 2005) and conflict negotiation tactics (e.g., Feldman & Gowen, 1998).

In the literature, the longevity of romantic relationships in adolescence and its relation to conflict resolution patterns have been the interest of many researchers. For example, Shulman, Tuval-Mashiach, Levran, and Anbar (2005) carried out a 2-year longitudinal study with late adolescent couples and investigated the relationship between conflict resolution patterns and duration of relationships. Their research identified three conflict resolution patterns: downplaying, integrative and conflictive patterns. Adolescents belonging to the downplaying pattern put greater efforts to minimizing or denying the existence of the conflict. The integrative pattern represents partners who are good at negotiating disagreements and able to arrive at a compromise. The conflicting pattern consists of adolescents for whom conflict leads to a further escalation of new conflicts within an emotionally laden context. Results showed that participants who demonstrated higher capabilities of conflict management were involved in relationships of a longer duration. The authors suggested that
partners who are able to negotiate differences in a constructive manner within a positive atmosphere establish a romantic relationship which is mutually rewarding and satisfying. The findings also indicated that the conflictive couples lacked conflict management skills. Their conflict resolution patterns were usually confrontational, lacking respect for each other, and combined with expressions of negative affect. As expected, results of the study revealed that mean duration of relationships of conflictive couples was 3 months which was significantly shorter than integrative couples.

In a similar vein, Feldman and Gowen (1998) investigated how adolescents deal with conflict in their romantic relationships with a sample of 869 high school students. Principal component analysis revealed six conflict negotiation tactics: compromise, distraction, avoidance, overt anger, seeking social support, and violence. Conflict negotiation tactics also varied with demographic characteristics of participants. In general, older adolescents used compromise more than younger ones; girls used compromise, overt anger more and distraction less than boys. In the study, self-esteem, mature and immature defense mechanisms, and internalizing and externalizing problem behaviors were found to be associated with the use of conflict tactics. In multiple regression analysis, externalizing the problem best predicted overt anger and violence tactics, and internalizing problems best predicted avoidance and distraction. On the other hand, mature defense mechanism was the best predictor of seeking social support and compromise tactics.

Results of these two studies suggested that the use of constructive conflict negotiation skills contribute to the quality and duration of the romantic relationships in adolescence. However, there is another study which yielded no significant relationship between conflict and satisfaction. For example, Fitzpatrick and Sollie (1999) examined the influence of distal factors that reflect orientations toward relationships (relationship standards, attachment motivation, and autonomy motivation) and proximal motivation that represents
patterns of interaction (self-disclosure, socioemotional behaviors, conflict tactics) on the satisfaction of romantic relationships of dating individuals. The study was carried out in two phases (Time 1 and Time 2) within six months period. The results indicated that two of the three distal factors (attachment motivation and autonomy motivation) and the two of the three interpersonal factors (self-disclosure and positive socioemotional behaviors) were related to satisfaction at Time 1. At Time 2, respondents who continued their relationships over six months had significantly higher mean scores on attachment and self-disclosure at Time 1 than did respondents whose relationships had dissolved. Conflict tactics did not have a significant effect on either relationship quality or relationship stability. The researchers suggested that this inconsistent finding with past research might be related with the cognitive strategies that the partners engaged in in minimizing the effects of negative behaviors.

Finkel and Campbell (2001) investigated the role of self-control on accommodative behaviors of dating individuals in a series of four studies. Accommodation refers to willingness, when a partner has engaged in a potentially destructive behavior, to inhibit impulses toward destructive behaviors and instead respond constructively. The researchers defined self-control as dispositional and “in-the-moment” self-regulatory strength depletion. In all four studies, dispositional-self control was positively associated with accommodative behaviors. Two of the studies revealed that “in-the-moment” self-regulatory strength depletion decreased the likelihood that a partner would exhibit accommodative behaviors. In general, authors concluded that construct of self-control lies at the heart of relationships. Individuals who are able to control themselves and engage in accommodative behaviors in the face of dissatisfaction will contribute to the establishment of long-term and well-adjusted relationships.
Several studies indicated that relationship problems in dating couples were associated with attachment orientations of individuals. A study by Creasey and Hesson-McInnis (2001) found that adolescents with more insecure attachment orientations reported less use of positive and more use of negative conflict management strategies than more secure adolescents did. Anxious and avoidant adolescents also engaged in negative tactics in conflicts. Adolescents with more insecure attachment orientation reported more negative affect during disagreements and less confidence in coping during arguments.

In sum, studies summarized above mostly indicate that control beliefs, emotional disposition, and conflict tactics have consistent patterns of relationships with relationship functioning. In the following section, the focus will shift toward Rusbult and Zembrodt’s (1983) model of responses to dissatisfaction to develop the review provided in this section.

2.2 Research on Dissatisfaction Behaviors: Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect

The typology of conflict behaviors (exit, voice, loyalty and neglect) was studied mostly within the framework of investment model which was proposed by Rusbult (1980). The investment model aims to examine the processes by which individuals persist within interpersonal relationships. Specifically, this model conceptualizes commitment as an intention to remain in a relationship. According to the investment model there are three basic determinants of commitment, which are satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size. Satisfaction level refers to positive and negative emotions experienced in a relationship. Quality of alternatives refers to the perceived desirability of the best available alternative to a relationship. Finally, investment size refers to the magnitude and importance of the resources that are attached to a relationship. The investment model was tested in various studies regarding romantic relationships (e.g., Davis, Williams, Emerson, & Houd-Bryant, 2000; Gaineset et al., 1997; Rusbult, Martz, & Agnew, 1998).
Rusbult, Zembrodt, and Gunn (1982) investigated the relationship between three variables of investment model and responses to dissatisfaction in four successive studies. Findings of the study revealed that when prior satisfaction with the relationship was high, voice and loyalty responses were more probable whereas when the prior satisfaction was low, exit and neglect responses were more probable. Similarly, higher levels of investment size were associated with voice and loyalty responses and lower levels of investment were associated with exit and neglect responses. Finally, more attractive alternatives promoted exit responses. Although findings of this study supported the main predictions of the investment model, a weak relationship was obtained between the quality of alternatives and voice or neglect reactions.

In the same line of research, Rusbult, Johnson, and Morrow (1986a) provided evidence for the investment model and the validity of taxonomy of the dissatisfaction behaviors. The authors found that greater prior satisfaction with relationships and greater investment of resources were associated with tendencies to react to problems with constructive responses (voice and loyalty) and lesser prior satisfaction and investment were related to tendencies to react destructively (exit and neglect). Higher quality of alternatives promoted exit responses and inhibited loyalty responses. Severity of the problems experienced in relationships also affected the pattern of conflict responses. Greater problem severity encouraged exit and voice responses while discouraging loyalty. As expected, voice and loyalty responses (constructive) resulted in more positive outcomes, better immediate consequences, greater later satisfaction and commitment. On the other hand, exit and neglect responses (destructive) produced less favorable consequences.

Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, Slovik, and Lipkus (1991) examined the accommodation process in close relationships by utilizing the taxonomy of exit, voice, loyalty and neglect. This study revealed that individuals were generally more willing to accommodate to the extent that they felt more
committed to their relationships. Accommodation was also higher when individuals were more satisfied, believed that alternatives were poor and had invested much to their relationships. In addition, psychological femininity and partner’s perspective taking increased the likelihood of accommodative behaviors.

Rusbult, Johnson, and Morrow (1986b) investigated the relationship between the typology of responses and distress in a dating relationship with a sample of 68 couples. Results of the study showed that couples who engaged in higher levels of destructive responses (i.e., exit and neglect responses) had poorer functioning in the relationships. The findings of the study indicated that better functioning in the relationship was related to the degree of partners’ attributions of greater constructive and lesser destructive problem-solving style to the other partner. Couple distress was found to be greater when individuals reacted destructively and failed to react constructively if their partners engaged in destructive problem-solving responses.

Results of Rusbult, Johnson, and Morrow’s (1986b) study yielded some gender differences regarding problem-solving styles of the partners. As compared to male participants, females were more likely to engage in voice and loyalty and less likely to engage in neglect. In general, results of this study suggested that how individuals perceived the partners’ responses in conflict was as important as how couples actually responded in reaction to conflict.

Finally, Le and Agnew (2003) conducted a meta-analytic study to investigate the determinants (satisfaction level, quality of alternatives, and investment size) of commitment. The study included 52 research papers with a total sample of 11,582 individuals. Results showed that all three determinants are correlated significantly with commitment in romantic relationships.
In sum, this conceptualization of responses to dissatisfactions in romantic relationships seems to be a reliable and valid classification across studies. Although it was used within the investment model framework (Rusbult, 1980) it can also be utilized in studies that aims to explore different aspects of romantic relationships.

2.3 Research on Critical Thinking

As it was mentioned in the Introduction section, a cross-disciplinary international panel of 46 experts completed a two year Delphi project under the sponsorship of the Committee on Pre-College Philosophy of the American Philosophical Association (American Philosophical Association, 1990) to understand the nature of critical thinking. Although this project yielded a valuable conceptualization of critical thinking in the field of instruction and educational assessment, the experts in the Delphi project maintained that focusing on only critical thinking skills is not adequate for instructional purposes and proposed a wider concept of critical thinking disposition. In the last four decades many attempts have been made to construct and measure critical skills and dispositions (Kurfiss, 1988; Norris & Ennis, 1989; Jones, 1993; cited in Facione, Facione, & Giancarlo, 2000).

Facione and Facione (1992) evaluated the concept of critical thinking covering the affective and attitudinal dimensions (one’s opinions, beliefs, and attitudes in relation to critical thinking). In their study, they have written multiple pilot item prompts for each phrase of the consensus description of the ideal thinker (based on the Delphi Project). The pilot version of the scale was administered to 164 students form Canada and USA. Seventy five items were chosen for the final version of the scale and the scale named The California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI). CCTDI consisted of seven subscales which are Truth-seeking, Open-mindedness, Analyticity, Systematicity, Critical thinking-confidence (Critical Thinking-Confidence), Inquisitiveness and Maturity. In 1992 and 1993 the final version of CCTDI was
administered to two additional samples of 1019 college students. This study also provided further evidence for the validity and reliability of CCTDI (Facione & Facione, 1992).

Giancarlo, Blohm, and Urdan (2004) were interested in the measurement of critical thinking disposition in adolescents as illustrated with four successive studies. The results of their studies provide support for the California Measure of Mental Motivation (abbreviated as CM3). The CM3 consisted of four dimensions which were learning orientation, creative problem solving, mental focus and cognitive integrity. This study was based on the assumption that critical thinking is a disposition and provided not only evidence that critical thinking disposition exists in adolescents but also a valuable tool for assessing this construct. In this study, dimensions of CM3 were correlated with well-known measures of students’ motivation and academic achievement. For example, learning orientation and creative problem solving dimensions of CM3 were found to be positively correlated with desire to develop one’s abilities through learning and mastery, a strong sense of self-worth and academic ability and sense of flexibility in terms of modifying behaviors. The authors concluded that “CM3 assess the extent to which individuals perceive themselves as willing and inclined to approach challenging problems in a systematic, innovative, open-minded, and inquisitive way.” (p.360)

Ben-Chaim, Ron, and Zoller (2000) adapted CCTDI to Hebrew and used in Israeli eleventh-grade science students. They used different type of schools (urban, rural, and technical) and established a baseline for CCTDI scores. Their study revealed a significant positive correlation of CCTDI with an instrument measuring formal reasoning skills (GALT, no other information is provided) and with an instrument measuring scientific reasoning procedures (TIPS II). In general, the result of this study supported the psychometric quality of critical thinking disposition measured by CCTDI over cultures and its validity by significant correlations with other instruments measuring similar domains.
Yeh (2002) attempted to adapt CCTDI into Chinese for the purpose of nursing education. Students from Taiwan and USA served as samples of the study. The researcher concluded that although there was evidence for construct and content validity for the Chinese version of CCTDI, the scale needed to be improved.

Zhang (2003) investigated the contribution of thinking style to critical thinking disposition. This study was based on Sternberg’s (1988, 1997; cited in Zhang, 2003) theory of mental self-government which was one of the many theories of intellectual styles. Thinking style within this conceptualization intends to describe how one prefers to think about the information as one is learning it or after one already knows it. Although, the theory describes 13 different thinking styles along with five dimensions, these styles fall into mainly two groups. Type 1 thinking styles generate creativity and require higher levels of cognitive complexity such as legislation, judicial, hierarchical, global and liberal thinking styles. Type 2 thinking styles include norm-confirming tendencies in thinking and require lower levels of cognitive complexity such as executive, local, monarchic and conservative thinking styles. The CCTDI was used to measure critical thinking disposition in study. As the researcher hypothesized, multiple regression analyses indicated that thinking styles have significant contributions to critical thinking disposition. The author suggested that thinking styles are important variables that contribute to critical thinking and should be considered noteworthy in curriculum development and in nonacademic program development.

In sum, first, it is clear from the aforementioned studies that although there is a nurturing relationship between critical thinking skills and dispositions, they are different constructs and have distinct properties. Second, the CCTDI is a powerful tool for measuring critical thinking disposition defined on the basis of the Delphi Project (American Philosophical
Association, 1990). Third, the CCTDI has good psychometric properties and its content and construct validity were demonstrated across cultures and samples.

It is obvious that critical thinking is strongly related to all kinds of education because of the cognitive aspects of the concept itself. Following research findings examine different aspects of critical thinking in educational settings.

Kreber (1998) attempted to explore the extent of students’ willingness and their perceived capacity to engage in self-directed learning. She also proposed that students’ ability to think critically could be explained by their psychological type. In this study, psychological type was defined in terms of Jung’s conceptualization. The results indicated that extraverted intuition is a strong predictor of students’ tendency to engage in self-directed learning. Although there was a significant relationship between self-directed learning and critical thinking, psychological type did not appear to be a predictor of critical thinking ability.

McBride and Bonnette (1995) found that critical thinking scores of a group of at-risk students increased after a series of critical thinking exercises. Also, teachers who engaged in critical thinking activities used certain behaviors more than others in structuring the learning environment.

Ishiyama, McClure, Hart, and Amico (1999) investigated how student characteristics influence their evaluation of teaching strategies, specifically with respect to critical thinking disposition, locus of control, gender, major and class rank. The results revealed findings contrary to the literature. As compared to group-based instruction methods, students who have a higher critical thinking disposition rated lecture methods higher than students with a lesser disposition. On the other hand, locus of control, gender and year in the school had no relationship with teaching strategy evaluation.
Klaczynski, James, Fauth, and Swanger (1998) attempted to identify social and cognitive predictors of identity status with an adolescent sample. They described four identity statuses which were originally defined by Marcia (1980; cited in Klaczynski, James, Fauth, & Swanger, 1998). These identity statuses varied along two dimensions: the extent to which whether or not individuals have experienced an identity crisis and the extent to which individuals have committed themselves to an ideological and interpersonal possible self. At the extremes Marcia placed the *identity achieved status* (experienced a crisis and made commitments) and the *identity diffused status* (no crisis, no commitment). Between the extremes lie the *foreclosed status* (no crisis, high degree of commitment) and the *moratorium status* (currently experiencing a crisis but has not made commitments). They also gathered information about individuals’ reliance on experiential or rational processing and formal operational ability. The results showed that perceived rationality predicted identity achievement and diffused scores better than both critical thinking dispositions and formal operational abilities. Thus, they proposed that for adolescents who are in diffused and foreclosed identity status, successful transition to identity achievement may be provided through a shift from experientially-based processing to rationally-based processing.

In a study of 207 university students, Mills and Blankstein (2000) examined the relations among perfectionism, aspects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and motivated learning strategies. It was found that self-oriented perfectionism was significantly related to students’ motivation and learning strategies in positive and adaptive ways. On the other hand, socially prescribed perfectionism was related in negative and maladaptive ways. For the academic tasks self-oriented perfectionists were motivated primarily by extrinsic compensation but socially prescribed perfectionists were motivated by recognition from others. As for the differences in critical thinking, self-oriented perfectionism was associated positively with intrinsic goal orientation for a specific course, task value, and critical thinking whereas socially prescribed
perfectionism was associated with test anxiety and decreased probability of help-seeking behaviors.

Summers and McMann (1997) considered critical thinking in an institutional context. According to the authors traditional human services are usually designed to deal with a single problem of an individual or family such as a long-term illness, substance abuse, job training, and the like. However, some families are not served by these services because their problems and needs are multiple and complex. In order to provide a method to guide staff they emphasized the importance of critical thinking in serving families with multiple challenges and problems.

Nursing literature is an important source of critical thinking research. There are some basic reasons why nurses need to have critical thinking dispositions and critical thinking skills. First of all, expert nurses perform many similar tasks while providing care automatically. Thus, they gain a scripted behavior repertoire. However, when they face a problem situation in which automatic or scripted behaviors are not functional they may experience difficulties in the interventions they intened to make. Secondly, novice nurses need reflective judgments because each situation is relatively novel. Therefore, identifying problems, selecting appropriate scripts, evaluating the effectiveness of a given scripts, creating proper interventions or a new script is related to nurses’ levels of critical thinking disposition and skills. In sum, nursing practices demand unexpected interventions and nursing educators have been attempting to integrate critical thinking in nursing education (Facione, 1995).

Shin (1998) studied the relationship between critical thinking skills and clinical decision-making of 234 nurses from baccalaureate and associate degree programs. The baccalaureate group was significantly higher on both critical thinking and decision-making than the associate degree group. The overall critical thinking score measured by Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal
was positively related to clinical decision-making. On the other hand, Hoffman and Elwin (2004) found negative correlation between critical thinking and confidence in decision-making using the same measurement strategy. One possible explanation for this finding could be related to the time spent in searching for the possible answers. People who think critically may spend more time in searching for alternatives and their confidence in decision-making may decrease.

Yeh and Chen (2005) conducted a quasi-experimental study to examine effects of an interactive videodisc (IVS) program used in clinical settings. Nursing students \( n = 126 \) from Taiwan served as the sample and CCTDI was used to measure critical thinking. The participants were given a two-hour lecture on critical thinking and unlimited self-learning opportunity using IVS. The results showed differences in all dispositions toward critical thinking, except for the inquisitiveness, between before and after the IVS program. This finding suggests that nurses can be educated by virtual scenarios simulating real cases prior to clinical practice and developing their critical thinking dispositions during their education may positively contribute to their effectiveness in clinical practice.

In another cross-sectional study, Profetto-McGrath (2003) investigated the relationship between critical thinking disposition and critical thinking skills of baccalaureate nursing students. The sample of the study consisted of 228 Canadian nursing students from all four years of baccalaureate education. As a measurement of critical thinking The California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST) and CCTDI were used. CCTST scores of the sample slightly increased from Year 1 to Year 4 except for the Year 3. However, the mean differences between groups were not statistically significant. Among the subscales of CCTDI, only systematicity subscale yielded significant difference. Systematicity scores were higher for third and fourth year students than first
and second year students. The results also indicated a positive significant correlation between critical thinking disposition and skills.

The summarized studies suggest some similarities across findings regarding critical thinking. First, it is clear that there is a growing interest in critical thinking in education and CCTDI is the only measurement tool that measures critical thinking disposition. Second, the idea that dispositions and skills are correlated seems to be supported by research. Finally, critical thinking seems to be related to a wide variety of cognitive processes such as decision making and judgments.

2.4 Research on Locus of Control and Close Relationships

Although the role of locus of control as a personality characteristic was studied in various areas of psychology, a brief review of literature shows that studies that examine its roles in close relationships, especially regarding unmarried couples are very limited (Myers & Booth, 1999). Therefore, some of the findings presented in this section come from the marriage literature.

Myers and Booth (1999) argue that high locus of control is related to higher marital quality. According to the authors this association may be the result of four related process. First, people with higher locus of control over marital events may be more motivated and may work harder to achieve marital success. Second, individuals with higher level of locus of control are more effective in negotiating marital events. Third, they are more likely to search and find effective ways of dealing with marital constrains. Fourth, the positive results of dealing with a problem will reinforce taking future action when new problems are encountered.

Doherty (1981) argues that spouses with higher levels of locus of control are generally better at gathering information and are more achievement-oriented. Thus, in the marriage these individuals utilize a more assertive, task-
oriented approach to marital problem solving. On the other hand, individuals with lower levels of locus of control behave in a more passive manner or adopt an aggressive and reactive approach when they face marital problems. Madden and Janoff-Bulman (1981) examined the role of levels of locus of control on marital satisfaction with 32 married women aged 25-35 and found that wives who had higher levels of control reported higher levels of marital satisfaction. In general, the studies that utilized a general measure of locus of control reported that high levels of locus of control were associated with greater effort and more commitment to solve marital problems and to the marriage itself. In turn, marital quality was high among those individuals who had higher levels of locus of control (Madden & Janoff-Bulman, 1981).

Several studies also examined the relationship between levels of locus of control and divorce. The main idea underlying this line of research was that spouses with high levels of locus of control would be more likely to engage in active control over their marriage and initiate divorce as a result of their active control (Pettit & Bloom, 1984). However, this proposition was not supported by research findings. Doherty (1983) found no significant relationship between the likelihood of divorce and the levels of locus of control. Similarly, another study with a sample of 892 males indicated that levels of locus of control were not significant predictors of marital stability (Constantine & Bahr, 1980).

Myers and Booth (1999) examined the role of locus of control in marital strains and marital quality with a longitudinal methodology. The results indicated that higher levels of positive marital quality and lower levels of negative marital quality were associated with higher levels of marital locus of control. The effects of marital locus of control on marital quality and changes in marital quality were partly explained by individual differences in marital strains. Spouses with low levels of marital locus of control were more likely to report the marital strains and poorer marital quality. Finally, they found that negative effects of marital strains on marital quality and changes in marital
quality were fewer at higher levels of marital locus of control. The authors concluded that marital locus of control is a kind of coping resource that spouses can utilize to buffer negative consequences of marital strains and stress.

Camp and Ganong (1997) examined spousal locus of control orientation and marital satisfaction in married couples. Couples in the study were divided into four groups in terms of their marital locus of control scores. Therefore, four categories were obtained: both partners were external marital locus of control (E/E), both partners were internal marital locus of control (I/I), and partners with dissimilar locus of control orientations (E/I, I/E). Researchers hypothesized that individuals in I/I and E/E groups would have higher marital satisfaction than those in E/I and I/E groups (similarity hypothesis). Second, individuals in I/I group would have significantly higher marital satisfaction than individuals in any other groups (internality hypothesis). Analyses indicated that husbands and wives who both have higher internal locus of control were significantly more satisfied with their marriages than any other groups. Internal husbands married to external wives were more satisfied than all external individuals but internal wives married to external husbands were only satisfied more than people in E/E marriages. In the dissimilar couples, external wives married to internal husbands were less satisfied than their husbands. In general, data indicated that internals were more satisfied than externals regardless of gender and partners’ locus of control orientation. Therefore, similarity hypothesis was not supported in this study. On the other hand, internality hypothesis was supported by data.

2.5 Research on Locus of Control and Critical Thinking

Locus of control and critical thinking are the concepts which are based mainly on cognitive processes. The literature review indicates that there is a lack of research investigating the relationship between locus of control and
critical thinking. However, some studies provide findings that indirectly support the relationship between locus of control and critical thinking.

This line of research mainly investigates the relationship between locus of control and paranormal beliefs. The term paranormal is used to describe phenomena which violate basic limiting principles of science (Peltzer, 2002). Therefore, it can be predicted theoretically there must be a relationship between locus of control and paranormal beliefs. Some research findings provide support for this prediction.

Peltzer (2002) investigated the relationship between paranormal beliefs and some personality characteristics of black South African students. Paranormal beliefs in general were highly associated with chance locus of control, powerful others and internal locus of control. Groth-Marnat and Pegden (1998) carried out research and examined the relationship between personality correlates and paranormal beliefs. Results indicated that external locus of control was associated with a greater number of paranormal beliefs. Moreover, people with external locus of control orientation have been found to be more dogmatic (Sherman, Pelletier, & Ryckman, 1973) and more likely to believe in the supernatural (Randall & Desrosiers, 1980; Scheidt, 1973) and astrological like phenomena (Jorgenson, 1981). Several studies also found a significant positive correlation between external locus of control and paranormal beliefs (e.g., Allen & Lester, 1994; Tobacyk, Nagot, & Miller, 1988).

Finally, paranormal beliefs and locus control relationship was also investigated in a Turkish sample. Dağ (1999) found a small but significant positive correlation between locus of control and beliefs in paranormal. Also, paranormal beliefs predicted locus of control affectively. The author suggested that paranormal beliefs as a personality system bring a kind of control feeling.
To sum up, the literature review reveals a need for research on the effects of critical thinking and locus of control on relationship dissatisfactions. The present study is an initial attempt at investigating these relationships. In the following chapter, the methodology of the present study will be detailed.
CHAPTER III

METHOD

This chapter introduces methodological procedures regarding sampling, instruments, data collection procedures and data analyses. The sampling section deals with sampling procedures and demographic characteristics of the sample. In the instruments section psychometric properties of scales used in the study are presented. The data collection section introduces the method utilized in the data collection. The last section presents data analysis methods and results.

3.1 Participants

Convenient sampling procedure was used in the main study. The sample consisted of 580 university students (373 females, 207 males) from different faculties of three state (Hacettepe, Ankara and METU) and two private (Bilkent and Başkent) universities located in Ankara. The distribution of female and male participants by universities is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of Participants by Universities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Başkent University</td>
<td>124</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>107</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle East Technical University</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ankara University</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hacettepe University</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bilkent University</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>207</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Since the random sampling procedure was not used in this study, the
distribution of students by faculties in each of these universities was not
representative either. Therefore, regardless of the universities, the number of
female and male students by faculties was presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Distribution of Participants by Faculties

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Faculty</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>36.5</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>67.2</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arts and Sciences</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>170</td>
<td>29.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>12.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medicine</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Law</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Architecture</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pharmacy</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health Sciences</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The age range of the total sample was between 17 and 29, with the mean
age of 21.11 (SD = 1.76). The mean ages for females and males were 20.93
(SD = 1.68) and 21.29 (SD = 1.86), respectively.

In the present study, questions were asked regarding participants’
experiences of romantic relationships. The vast majority of the sample reported
that they had one or more relationships in the past or in the present. Further
frequency analyses revealed 562 unique number of participants who reported
past or present relationships (96.89%). Only 3.1% of the participants (n = 18)
reported that they have never had a romantic relationship and they were
excluded from the data in the analysis.
The participants were also asked to report the length of their continuing relationships and length of the longest one they had in the past. The means and standard deviations of the length of romantic relationship are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations of the Length of Romantic Relationship by Gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Relationship*</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The length of the continuing romantic relationship</td>
<td>19.96</td>
<td>16.73</td>
<td>17.69</td>
<td>16.39</td>
<td>19.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The length of the longest romantic relationship in the past</td>
<td>15.63</td>
<td>14.19</td>
<td>16.04</td>
<td>15.06</td>
<td>15.79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Numbers are presented in months.

As seen in Table 3, the length of romantic relationships of the participants, either in the past or in the present, changes approximately between 15 and 20 months.

**3.2 Instruments**

In the present study four instruments were used. These instruments were a Demographic Data Form (DDF) developed for this study; My Responses to Relationship Problems Scale (MRRPS), California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI), Rotter’s Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (IELCS). The next sections introduce the psychometric properties of the scales and adaptation studies conducted in the present study.

**3.2.1 Demographic Data Form (DDF)**

DDF was developed to gather information about the participants, including gender, age and faculty. Participants were also asked some questions such as whether or not they were involved in any romantic relationship, and the length of their previous and present romantic relationships.
3.2.2 My Responses to Relationship Problems Scale (MRRPS)

My Responses to Relationship Problems Scale (MRRPS; Appendix A) was originally developed by Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, Slovik, and Lipkus (1991) and revised by Kilpatrick, Bissonnette, and Rusbult (2002) to measure individual’s possible response tendencies to dissatisfactions in romantic relationships. In the present study, the revised version of MRRPS was used. MRRPS is a 16-item 9-point Likert type scale with the response alternatives ranging from 0 = never to 8 = always. The scale yields 4 scores based on the dimensions of voice, loyalty, exit and neglect. These dimensions are presented below.

*Exit* dimension includes 4 items assessing the ways of ending the relationship or behaving in an actively destructive manner (e.g., thinking about formally separating or reacting in an equally destructive manner).

*Voice* dimension includes 4 items measuring actively and constructively attempting to improve conditions (e.g. trying to solve problems, compromising or trying to patch things up).

*Loyalty* dimension includes 4 items assessing passively but optimistically waiting for conditions to improve (e.g. waiting for things to get better or forgiving partner and forgetting what was happened).

*Neglect* dimension includes 4 items measuring passively allowing conditions to deteriorate (e.g. getting away for awhile and avoiding dealing with the problem or ignoring and trying to spend less time with partner.)

The possible scores that can be obtained from each of these dimensions changed between 0 and 32. The higher scores indicate higher use of the relevant response tendencies.
3.2.2.1 Previous Findings Regarding Reliability and Validity of MRRPS

The original version of MRRPS (Rusbult, Verette, Whitney, Slovik, & Lipkus, 1991) included 24 items and aimed at assessing individuals’ tendencies toward accommodation in close relationships. In the development of the scale, 5 successive studies, 3 of which were cross-sectional surveys, were conducted. In these studies, structured and open-ended questions were used to measure accommodative behaviors based on the response categories of exit, voice, loyalty and neglect. In the three cross-sectional studies, constructive and destructive dimensions were defined by the combinations of four response categories, i.e., voice plus loyalty for constructive and exit plus neglect for destructive reactions. Cronbach alpha reliabilities were reported as .80, .75, and .78 for constructive reactions and .92, .91, and .92 for destructive reactions. Although, reliabilities of constructive reactions measured in these studies were lower than those of destructive reactions, all alphas were statistically considered as at the acceptable levels. In these studies, researchers also reported the correlations between the ratings of the open-ended items and the structured self-report measures of each dimension. The two measures of destructive ($r = .46, p < .001$) and constructive ($r = .63, p < .001$) reactions were significantly positively correlated. It was also found that destructive and constructive reactions were negatively correlated: The open-ended measure of destructive reactions was negatively correlated with the open-ended and structured constructive measures, $r = -.80$, and -.33, respectively ($p < .001$), and the structured measure of destructive reactions was negatively correlated with the open-ended and structured constructive measures, $r = -.48$ and -.20, respectively ($p < .001$).

A 16-item version of MRRPS (Kilpatrick, Bissonnette, & Rusbult, 2002) was used in a six-wave longitudinal study. MRRPS was utilized in the Time2, Time4 and Time6 measures of the study. In these three steps, items of destructive dimensions of the scale were reversed and a total score for the scale
was obtained to calculate the internal consistency of the total scale. The internal consistency for the total scale in three different times were .87, .87 and .87 respectively. Researchers also calculated test-retest reliabilities for Time2-Time4 and Time4-Time6. The results revealed test-retest reliabilities for Time2-Time4 as .84 and Time4-Time6 as .80.

Since reliability and validity evidence reported in both studies (Rusbult et al., 1991; Kilpatrick, Bissonnette, & Rusbult, 2002) revealed good psychometric properties, the decision was made to utilize the scale in the present study. The following section introduces the adaptation studies and the results of validity and reliability findings of the Turkish version of MRRPS.

### 3.2.2.2 Adaptation Study of MRRPS

In the present study, MRRPS was translated from English to Turkish by two counselors who were fluent in English and one professional translator who was also a psychology graduate. Back-translation process of the MRRPS was omitted because of the difficulty of translating the idioms or phrases (e.g., “trying to patch things up” or, “I sulk and try to stay away from my partner…”) used in the scale. For this reason, the best appropriate translation of each item was selected together by the author and the supervisor after the translation process was completed.

A pilot study was conducted on the final form of MRRPS to obtain the validity and reliability information. In the pilot study, a questionnaire packet consisting of a demographic sheet, MRRPS, and Conflict Behaviors Questionnaire adapted by Tezer (1986) based on the definitions of Thomas (1976) were administered to 326 (164 females, 162 males) students who attended the Faculty of Economics and Administrative Sciences of Başkent University (See Appendix B for the instruments used in pilot study). The mean age of the total sample was 21.14 with the standard deviation of 1.46. The
mean ages of female and male students were 20.92 ($SD = 1.43$) and 21.36 ($SD = 1.47$), respectively.

3.2.2.3 Validity Studies of MRRPS

Construct and concurrent validity studies were carried out for the Turkish version of MRRPS. As for the construct validity, both multidimensional scaling (MDS) and confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were conducted. The relationships between the dimensions of MRRPS and five conflict behaviors (Tezer, 1986) were considered as the evidence of the concurrent validity of MRRPS. The results were presented in the following sections.

3.2.2.4 Construct Validity of MRRPS

Multidimensional scaling and confirmatory factor analyses were conducted as evidence of the construct validity of MRRPS.

3.2.2.5 Multidimensional Scaling (MDS)

In the pilot study, first, the multidimensional scaling analysis was conducted. Since the taxonomy of exit, voice, loyalty and neglect behaviors was developed by utilizing multidimensional scaling (Rusbult & Zembrodt, 1983), the same method was followed in the present study.

MDS is considered as an alternative to traditional factor analysis. The goal of the MDS is to detect meaningful underlying dimensions that allow the researcher to explain observed similarities or dissimilarities (distances) between the investigated objects (Davison, 1983; Kruskal & Wish, 1978; Mead, 1992). In this study, items of MRRPS were analyzed in terms of their similarities and dissimilarities. In factor analysis, the similarities between objects (e.g., variables or items) are expressed in the correlation matrix. In MDS, variables are arranged in a space with a particular number of dimensions (two dimensions in this study: constructive-destructive and active-passive). The goodness of the fit of data points in the stimulus space is determined by
the stress value. Stress values closer to 0.00 indicate a better fit (Davison, 1983; Kruskal & Wish, 1978; Mead, 1992).

Metric MDS was employed to discover the structural configuration of the MRRPS items. Results are presented in Figure 2. As expected, a two-dimensional configuration was observed with a stress value of 0.20, indicating an acceptable fit of data points to a two-dimensional space. As can be seen from Figure 2 items of MRRPS created proper dimensions. As expected, items of Exit (c2, c5, c10, c13) and Neglect (c4, c7, c9, c16) were separated in MDS. Loyalty items were split. Two items were in expected quadrant (c12, c15). However, two items of Loyalty (c3, c6) appeared together with items of Voice (c1, c8, c11, c14). Stress value of 0.20 indicates that MRRPS has the evidence of construct validity.

![Figure 2. MDS Output of the MRRPS](image-url)
3.2.2.6 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

After multidimensional scaling analysis, in the pilot study, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed to assess the psychometric properties of MRRPS. Before presenting CFA results, it would be useful to introduce some important terms of CFA. For the purpose of the study, a measurement model for MRRPS was constructed. Measurement model is a kind of CFA where latent variables are accepted as general factors. In other words, the purpose of the measurement model is to explore the relationship between observed indicators and latent variables or factors. The measurement model specifically aims to describe how well the observed indicators measure the latent variables.

The method of CFA produces measurement models in which observed variables define latent variables and CFA is also used for evaluating construct validity. CFA has some advantages over other multivariate statistics. First, CFA allows researchers to test alternative hypothesized models. Second, CFA provides valuable information about how well a factor structure accounts for the observed data and proposes alternative models to fit the model being tested. In the present study, several fit indexes were used which were Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual (SRMR) and Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). In general, expected values for GFI, AGFI, and CFI are above .90; RMSEA, SRMR index values are below .05 (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996).

In the present study, model fit was assessed on the basis of goodness-of-fit indices. Based on the theory, modification indices, model fit, a nested series of modifications were made to this model to estimate an “optimal” and “preferred” CFA models. As can be seen in Table 4 after modifications proposed by the model were made, an improvement on fit indices were observed. Figure 3 presents path diagram of MRRPS items.
Table 4 presents Goodness-of-fit information for CFA of MRRPS with and without modifications.

Table 4. Goodness-of-fit Information for CFA of MRRPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Models</th>
<th>$X^2$</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>$X^2$/df</th>
<th>GFI</th>
<th>AGFI</th>
<th>RMSEA</th>
<th>S-RMR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Model 1 (without modif.)</td>
<td>368.56</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model 2 (with modif.)</td>
<td>234.03</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>0.87</td>
<td>0.071</td>
<td>0.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Standardized lambda-x values, standard errors, t-values, and squared multiple correlations of the observed variables of MRRPS are presented in Table 5.
Table 5. Standardized Lambda-x values, Standard Errors, t-values, and Squared Multiple Correlations of the Observed Variables of MRRPS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Voice</th>
<th>Standardized Lambda-x (λx)</th>
<th>SE</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>When my partner is upset and says something mean, I try to patch things up and solve the problem</td>
<td>.59</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>9.89</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>When my partner is rude or inconsiderate, I try to resolve the situation and improve conditions</td>
<td>.75</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>12.84</td>
<td>.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>When my partner behaves in an unpleasant or thoughtless manner, I calmly discuss things with my partner</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>8.97</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>When my partner is angry with me and ignores me for awhile, I talk to my partner about what's going on, trying to work out a solution</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.72</td>
<td>8.53</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>When my partner is rude or inconsiderate, I remain loyal and wait for things to get better</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.63</td>
<td>9.45</td>
<td>.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>When my partner behaves in an unpleasant or thoughtless manner, I forgive my partner and forget about it</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td>7.93</td>
<td>.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>When my partner is angry with me and ignores me for awhile, I hang in there and wait for my partner's mood to change - these times pass</td>
<td>.54</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>8.27</td>
<td>.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>When my partner is upset and says something mean, I give my partner the benefit of the doubt and forget about it</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>5.40</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>When my partner is angry with me and ignores me for awhile, I consider breaking up</td>
<td>.37</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>When my partner is upset and says something mean, I feel so angry that I want to walk right out the door</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>11.46</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>When my partner is rude or inconsiderate, I begin to think about ending our relationship</td>
<td>.55</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>8.90</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>When my partner behaves in an unpleasant or thoughtless manner, I do something equally unpleasant in return</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>7.84</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neglect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>When my partner behaves in an unpleasant or thoughtless manner, I do something else for awhile and avoid dealing with the situation</td>
<td>.17</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>When my partner is angry with me and ignores me for awhile, I get away for awhile and avoid dealing with the problem</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>.85</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>When my partner is upset and says something mean, I sulk and try to stay away from my partner for awhile</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>8.30</td>
<td>.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>When my partner is rude or inconsiderate, I ignore the whole thing and try to spend less time with my partner</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>7.40</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CFA of MRRPS indicated a satisfactory model fit for MRRPS items, except Item 4 in Neglect dimension which produced the smallest loading (.17) and the smallest squared multiple correlation value (.02). However, in order to keep the scale in its original form, Item 4 was not removed from the scale and was kept in the relevant subscale. It was decided that the scale has satisfactory psychometric properties to be used in this study. Correlations among MRRPS dimensions are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Correlations Among MRRPS Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Loyalty</th>
<th>Exit</th>
<th>Neglect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voice</td>
<td>.50*</td>
<td>-.49*</td>
<td>-.20*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=326)</td>
<td>(n=326)</td>
<td>(n=326)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>-.38*</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=326)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(n=326)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exit</td>
<td>.32*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=326)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* P < .01

Correlations among subscales indicated that there were positive significant relationships between constructive dimensions (voice and loyalty, \( r = .50 \)) and destructive dimensions (exit and neglect, \( r = .32 \)). The correlations between constructive and destructive dimensions also yielded significant negative correlations except for the loyalty-neglect pairs (\( r = .10 \)). In general, correlations among dimensions suggested statistically satisfactory relationships.

3.2.2.7 Concurrent Validity of MRRPS

For the concurrent validity of MRRPS, the correlations were calculated between the four dimensions of MRRPS and five Conflict Behaviors. Table 7 presents correlations among MRRPS factors and conflict behaviors.
Table 7. Correlations Between Factors of MRRPS and Conflict Behaviors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Forcing</th>
<th>Avoiding</th>
<th>Accommodating</th>
<th>Comprimising</th>
<th>Collaborating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voice</strong></td>
<td>-.27**</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.20**</td>
<td>.33**</td>
<td>.18**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=321)</td>
<td>(n=321)</td>
<td>(n=320)</td>
<td>(n=320)</td>
<td>(n=320)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Loyalty</strong></td>
<td>-.17**</td>
<td>-.27**</td>
<td>.27**</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>.14*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=321)</td>
<td>(n=321)</td>
<td>(n=320)</td>
<td>(n=320)</td>
<td>(n=320)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Exit</strong></td>
<td>-.24**</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.17**</td>
<td>-.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=321)</td>
<td>(n=321)</td>
<td>(n=320)</td>
<td>(n=320)</td>
<td>(n=320)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Neglect</strong></td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.23**</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=321)</td>
<td>(n=321)</td>
<td>(n=320)</td>
<td>(n=320)</td>
<td>(n=320)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* *p < .05 ** p < .01

Theoretically, voice and loyalty factors of MRRPS (constructive dimension) are expected to have positive correlations with constructive conflict behaviors (accommodating, compromising, and collaborating) and negative correlations with destructive conflict behaviors (forcing and avoiding). The correlations between MPPRS subscales and conflict behaviors showed that most of the correlations were significant and that they were theoretically in the expected directions, particularly for Voice and Loyalty subscales. Although there were non-significant correlations in Exit and Neglect subscales, significant moderate correlations were found between Exit and Forcing ($r = -.24$), Exit and Compromising ($r = -.17$), and Neglect and Avoiding behaviors ($r = .23$) might be accepted as a certain degree of evidence regarding the validity of these subscales.

### 3.2.2.8 Reliability of MRRPS

Reliability estimates for the subscales of MRRPS were calculated by using Cronbach alpha formula. These coefficients for Voice, Loyalty, Exit, and Neglect subscales were .73, .59, .69, .57 respectively. Although the coefficients for Loyalty and Neglect were low to moderate, overall, these coefficients were accepted as evidence for the internal consistencies of the subscales.
To sum up, MDS, CFA, concurrent validity results, and reliability analyses indicated that MRRPS is a statistically reliable and valid instrument to be used in the present study.

3.2.3 The California Critical Thinking Disposition Inventory (CCTDI)

CCTDI was developed as a result of Delphi project, a cross-disciplinary panel, carried out by American Philosophical Association in 1990 (Facione, Facione, & Giancarlo, 1998). CCTDI consists of 75 Likert-type items and participants are asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with each statement on a continuum ranging from 1 to 6. Higher scores indicate a higher disposition of critical thinking. The items included in CCTDI express familiar opinions, beliefs, values, expectations or perceptions without using technical vocabulary or jargon specific to critical thinking. CCTDI has empirically tested seven sub-scales and measures individuals’ tendency toward critical thinking. The seven scales of CCTDI are presented below.

*The Truth-Seeking Scale (Trt)* aims to measure being motivated to seek the truth, asking questions, and to be honest and objective about inquiry even if the evidences do not support one’s interests or preconceived opinions. The truth-seeker would rather pursue the truth rather than win the argument.

*The Open-Mindedness Scale (Opm)* targets the disposition of being open-minded and tolerant of different views by considering the possibility of one’s own biases. The open-minded people show respect to rights of others to hold differing opinions.

*The Analyticity Scale (Anl)* targets the disposition of being alert to potentially problematic situations, predicting possible results or consequences, prizing the reason and the use of evidence even if the problem turns out to be challenging or difficult. The analytical people are alert to both conceptual and
behavioral problems, and continuously look out for anticipatory interventions. Reason-giving and fact-finding are important components of being analytical in terms of critical thinking disposition.

_The Systematicity Scale (Sys)_ aims to measure the disposition toward organized, orderly and focused inquiry. No specific organization is given priority on the CCTDI (e.g. linear or non-linear). The systematic person wants to approach specific issues, questions or problems in an orderly, focused and organized manner.

_The Critical Thinking Self-Confidence (Scf)_ refers to the level of trust one places in one’s reasoning process. Critical Thinking self-confident persons trust themselves to make good judgments and believe that others trust them as well because they believe others look up to them to resolve problems, decide what to do and bring a reasonable approach to inquiry.

_The Inquisitiveness Scale (Inq)_ aims to measure one’s own intellectual curiosity. The inquisitive person values being informed, wants to know things work and values learning even if the immediate payoffs are not directly observable.

_The Maturity Scale (M)_ aims to measure how disposed a person is to make reflective judgments. The scale mainly addresses cognitive and epistemic development.

Cronbach Alpha’s reliabilities of the original version of CCTDI changed between .71 and .80. Cronbach Alpha’s for the total scale was .91 with a sample of 567 persons (Facione, Facione, & Giancarlo, 1998).

CCTDI was adapted to Turkish by Kökdemir (2003). The adaptation study was conducted with 913 Başkent University students (468 females and
PCA results revealed 51 items with 6 components. These components were Analyticity Scale (10 items), Open-Mindedness Scale (12 items), Inquisitiveness Scale (9 items), Critical Thinking Self-Confidence Scale (7 items), Truth-Seeking Scale (7 items), and Systematicity Scale (6 items) with the exception of Maturity Scale in the original version. Cronbach Alpha’s for these components changed between .61 and .78. For the total scale, Cronbach Alpha coefficient was .88.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) results of CCTDI-T carried out by Kökdemir (2003) indicated satisfactory psychometric properties. Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI), Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI) and RMR values were .86, .84, and 0.049, respectively. Additional validity evidence was also reported with the correlations calculated between CCTDI-T subscales and Need for Cognition Scale which was adapted to Turkish by Gülgöz and Sadowski (1995). As for the subscales, correlations changed between .25 and .50. It was found to be .55 for the total score of CCTDI-T.

Although the Turkish version of CCTDI consists of 6 sub-scales, in the present study, the standard total score of CCTDI was used since this study mainly dealt with the participants’ overall tendency toward critical thinking disposition rather than its specific components. Therefore, in the present study, factor structure of CCTDI was not re-evaluated. However, the Cronbach Alpha coefficient calculated in the pilot study was found .84 for the total scale which was similar to the coefficient obtained in the original version of CCTDI.

3.2.4 Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (IELCS)

The concept of locus of control was originally proposed by Rotter in the 1960s and refers to the extent to which individuals believe that they can control events that affect them. The Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (IELCS) was developed by Rotter in 1966. It consists of 29 items that measure locus of control on an internal-external continuum. Each item is presented with two
statements indicating internal and external beliefs and participants are asked to choose one of these statements that they believe to be true. Six out of 29 items are filler items which are not scored. Higher scores in IELCS indicate high external locus of control and lower scores indicate higher internal locus of control.

IELCS was adapted to Turkish by Dağ (1991) in a sample of university students. In adaptation study item-total correlations of the scale varied between .08 and .41. Internal consistency of the scale calculated by Cronbach Alpha was .71 \((n = 532)\). KR-20 reliability of the scale with a sample of 99 people was .68. Test-retest reliability of IELCS with 23 days interval was .83. In the adaptation study, the results of Principal Component Analysis revealed 7 factors. These factors explained 47.7 % of the total variance. These factors were (1) lack of chance control, (2) external control over political events, (3) chance control, (4) lack of control over school performance, (5) lack of control over interpersonal relationships, (6) belief in faith, and (7) lack of control over political events. Dağ (1991) also reported that the internal locus of control component of IELCS yielded a negative significant correlation \((r = -.29)\) with Rosenbaum’s Learned Resourcefulness Schedule and the external locus of control component of IELCS had a positive significant correlation \((r = .21)\) with General Expectations Score (GSI) of Symptom Check List-90-R.

### 3.3 Data Collection Procedure

In the pilot study, DDF, MRRPS and Conflict Behaviors Scale were used in collecting data. The data were collected in class sessions on the basis of voluntary participation. The data collection procedure in this phase took approximately 10 minutes.

In the main study, DDF, MRRPS, CCTDI and IELCS were printed on two pages of paper (See Appendix C). One paragraph introducing the purpose of the study was presented at the beginning section of the DDF. All data were
collected during class hours on the basis of voluntary participation. This phase of the data collection took approximately 25 minutes.

3.4 Statistical Analyses

In the present study moderated regression analysis was utilized to test the predictive power of gender, locus of control and critical thinking on exit, voice, loyalty, and neglect responses, separately. Prior to all analyses, interaction terms for independent variables were created following the procedures described in Aiken and West (1991) by centering the independent variables around their means before creating interaction terms. In the centering procedure, the mean of each independent variable was subtracted from individual scores to create the centered variables. Centering was done to prevent multicollinearity problem in moderated regression (Aiken & West, 1991).

In data analyses Statistical Package for Social Sciences-12.0 were utilized to perform descriptive statistics and moderated regression analyses. To perform Confirmatory Factor Analysis, Lisrel 8.30 software was utilized.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

This chapter presents the results of the study. As it is presented in the data analysis section, four separate moderated regression analyses are conducted to test the hypotheses. Firstly, the means and standard deviations of, and the correlations between the dependent and independent variables are displayed. Secondly, the results of multiple regression analysis are presented.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations among Variables

Table 8 presents means, standard deviations and the number of participants of exit, voice, loyalty, neglect, critical thinking and locus of control.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MRRPS Subscales</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th></th>
<th>Male</th>
<th></th>
<th>Total</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exit</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.76</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.69</td>
<td>546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>4.48</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>1.74</td>
<td>546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neglect</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.46</td>
<td>546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Thinking</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>251.31</td>
<td>24.28</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>245.69</td>
<td>26.88</td>
<td>546</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locus of Control</td>
<td>349</td>
<td>13.88</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>197</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>544</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Table 8, among the subscales of MRRPS, voice had the highest ($M = 4.45$) and exit had the lowest mean ($M = 2.91$). As for independent variables, critical thinking and locus of control scores of females is slightly higher than males.
Table 9 presents correlations among subscales of MRRPS (exit, voice, loyalty and neglect), critical thinking and locus of control for the total sample.

Table 9. Correlations Among Subscales of MRRPS, Critical Thinking and Locus of Control for the Total Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Voice</th>
<th>Loyalty</th>
<th>Neglect</th>
<th>Critical Thinking</th>
<th>Locus of Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exit</td>
<td>-.49*</td>
<td>-.33*</td>
<td>.32*</td>
<td>-.27*</td>
<td>.16*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td>(n=544)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice</td>
<td>.54*</td>
<td>-.12*</td>
<td>.25*</td>
<td>-.13*</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td>(n=544)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>.13*</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.15*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td>(n=544)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neglect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>.15*</td>
<td></td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=546)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(n=544)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.17*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(n=544)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* *p < 0.01

As it can be seen in Table 9, Pearson correlation analysis revealed mostly significant and theoretically expected correlations among dimensions of MRRPS. In general, zero-order correlations indicated that critical thinking was significantly associated with only active responses. While higher critical thinking scores were positively associated with voice, lower critical thinking scores were negatively correlated with exit responses. As for locus of control, destructive responses (exit and neglect scores) were associated with external locus of control, whereas voice was correlated with internal locus of control.

Correlations among the variables of the study for females and males are presented in Tables 10 and 11, respectively.
Table 10. Correlations Among Subscales of MRRPS, Critical Thinking and Locus of Control for the Females

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Voice</th>
<th>Loyalty</th>
<th>Neglect</th>
<th>Critical Thinking</th>
<th>Locus of Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exit</td>
<td>-.45*</td>
<td>-.31*</td>
<td>.27*</td>
<td>-.23*</td>
<td>.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td>(n=347)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice</td>
<td>.47*</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>.21*</td>
<td>-.23</td>
<td>-.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td>(n=347)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>.17*</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neglect</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.16*</td>
<td>.20*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td></td>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td>(n=349)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.01

Similar to the pattern in zero-order correlations, critical thinking was associated with active responses for females as well. Higher critical thinking was associated with voice, and lower critical thinking was associated with exit responses. Different from the zero-order correlations, only neglect scores were significantly related with external locus of control for females.

As seen in Table 11, a pattern of relationships similar to zero-order correlations was observed between critical thinking and dissatisfaction responses for the male subsample. Critical thinking was associated only with exit and voice responses. As for the locus of control, different from the females, all dissatisfaction responses except the neglect responses were significantly associated with locus of control.
Table 11. Correlations Among Subscales of MRRPS, Critical Thinking and Locus of Control for the Males

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Voice</th>
<th>Loyalty</th>
<th>Neglect</th>
<th>Critical Thinking</th>
<th>Locus Of Control</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Exit</td>
<td>-.54**</td>
<td>-.38**</td>
<td>.41**</td>
<td>-.35**</td>
<td>.29**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voice</td>
<td>.65**</td>
<td>-.16*</td>
<td>.30**</td>
<td>-.21**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>-.11</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neglect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-.16*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(n=197)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < 0.05 ** p < 0.01

4.2 Results of Regression Analysis

Regression results of the study were organized according to dimensions of MRRPS. For this reason regression analyses were reported separately for Exit, Voice, Loyalty and Neglect. Descriptive statistics for variables was given at the beginning of each section.

4.2.1 Results of the Exit Responses

In the analysis, Exit scores were regressed on Critical Thinking, Locus of Control and gender. In step one, Critical Thinking, Locus of Control and Gender were entered as main effects. Then, in step two, interaction terms Critical Thinking × Locus of Control, Gender × Critical Thinking and Gender × Locus of Control and Critical Thinking × Locus of Control × Gender were entered. After step 1, main effects explained .09 of the variance, $R = .31$, $F(3, 538) = 18.344$, $p < .001$. Locus of Control and Critical Thinking, but not Gender, and significantly predicted Exit scores. In step 2, addition of two- and
three-way interactions did not significantly improved the predictive power of
the model, $\Delta F(4,534) = 1.350$, n.s. However, inspection of coefficients
revealed that Critical Thinking and Locus of Control remained as significant
main effects.

In addition, a significant Gender × Locus of Control interaction was
found ($\beta = .09$, $p < .05$). Interaction plot (Figure 4) suggested that for male
participants Exit scores were higher when locus of control orientation was
external rather than internal (simple slope $\beta = .30$, $p < .001$). Similarly, for
female participants Exit scores were higher when locus of control orientation
was external rather than internal (simple slope $\beta = .21$, $p < .001$).

![Figure 4. Interaction Plot of Gender × LC Variables](image)
Relevant regression statistics for the Exit model is presented in Table 12.

Table 12. Regression Statistics for Exit Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>$\beta$</th>
<th>$T$</th>
<th>$R$</th>
<th>$R^2$</th>
<th>Adjusted $R^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Locus of Control</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>2.892**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Thinking</td>
<td>-.26</td>
<td>-6.118***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.234</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locus of Control × Critical Thinking</td>
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<td>.101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Locus of Control</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>2.126*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Critical Thinking</td>
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<td>-.534</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Locus of Control</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>2.927</td>
<td>.32***</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

4.2.2 Results of the Voice Responses

In the analysis, Voice scores were regressed on Critical Thinking, Locus of Control and Gender. In step one, Gender, Critical Thinking and Locus of Control were entered as main effects. Then, in step two, Gender × Locus of Control, Gender × Critical Thinking, Critical Thinking × Locus of Control and Gender × Locus of Control × Critical Thinking interactions were entered. After step 1, main effects explained .07 of the variance, $R = .27$, $F(3, 538) = 14.414$, $p < .001$. Locus of Control and Critical Thinking, but not Gender, and significantly predicted Voice scores. In step 2, addition of two-way and three way interactions did not significantly improved the predictive power of model, $\Delta F(4,534) = 1.130$, n.s. Therefore, variations in Voice scores can be attributed to variations in the Locus of Control and Critical Thinking variables. Relevant regression statistics for the Voice model is presented in Table 13.
### Table 13. Regression Statistics for Voice Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Locus of Control</td>
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<td>-2.39*</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Critical Thinking</td>
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<td>5.54**</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locus of Control × Critical Thinking</td>
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<td>.646</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Locus of Control</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Critical Thinking</td>
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<td>.840</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>4.464</td>
<td>.29**</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* p < .05 ** p < .001

### 4.2.3 Results of the Loyalty Responses

In the analysis, Loyalty scores were regressed on Critical Thinking, Locus of Control and gender. In step one, Gender, Critical Thinking and Locus of Control were entered as main effects. Then, in step two, Gender × Locus of Control, Gender × Critical Thinking, Critical Thinking × Locus of Control and Gender × Locus of Control × Critical Thinking interactions were entered. In both of the two steps neither main effects nor interaction effects significantly predicted Loyalty scores. Relevant regression statistics for the Loyalty model is presented in Table 14.
Table 14. Regression Statistics for Loyalty Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
</tr>
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<tr>
<td>Locus of Control</td>
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<td>-.822</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Critical Thinking</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>1.844</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.647</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locus of Control × Critical</td>
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<td>1.104</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thinking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Locus of Control</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-1.602</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Thinking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Critical Thinking</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Locus of Control</td>
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<td>.030</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Thinking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Locus of Control × Critical Thinking</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.030</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>3.126</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: All coefficients are nonsignificant.

4.2.4 Results of the Neglect Response

In the analysis, Neglect scores were regressed on Critical Thinking, Locus of Control and Gender. In step one, Gender, Critical Thinking and Locus of Control were entered as main effects. Then, in step two, Gender × Locus of Control, Gender × Critical Thinking, Critical Thinking × Locus of Control and Gender × Locus of Control × Critical Thinking interactions were entered. After step 1, main effects explained .02 of the variance, \( R = .15, F(3, 538) = 4.514, p < .001 \). Locus of Control, but not Critical Thinking and Gender, significantly predicted Neglect scores. In step 2, addition of two-way and three way interactions did not significantly improve the predictive power of the model, \( \Delta F(4,534) = .49, n.s. \). Therefore, variations in Neglect scores can be attributed to variations in the Locus of Control variable. Relevant regression statistics for the Neglect model is presented in Table 15.
Table 15. Regression Statistics for Neglect Model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>β</th>
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<th>R</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Locus of Control</td>
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<td>3.236**</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Thinking</td>
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<td>-.870</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.660</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locus of Control ×</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.799</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Thinking ×</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Locus of Control</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.358</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender × Critical Thinking</td>
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<td>-1.09</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Gender × Locus of Control</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Control × Critical Thinking</td>
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<td>3.428</td>
<td>.16*</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
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* p < .05 ** p < .01
CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION, IMPLICATION AND RECOMMENDATION

The present study examined the role of locus of control and critical thinking in the responses to dissatisfactions in the adolescent romantic relationships. For this purpose, three hypotheses were tested. First, it was hypothesized that internal locus of control was expected to predict higher levels of voice and loyalty responses, whereas external locus of control was expected to predict exit and neglect responses. Second, higher levels of critical thinking disposition were expected to predict voice and loyalty responses, whereas lower levels of critical thinking disposition were expected to predict exit and neglect responses. A locus of control × critical thinking interaction was expected to predict reactions to dissatisfaction. Specifically, internal locus of control and high critical thinking disposition was expected to jointly predict voice and loyalty responses, whereas external locus of control and low critical thinking disposition was expected jointly to predict exit and neglect responses. Finally, Gender × locus of control interaction predicted exit scores. In this section results of the study were discussed in the light of previous findings and current literature.

5.1 Discussion Regarding Dissatisfaction Responses

In this section, regression results regarding categories of each dissatisfaction responses will be discussed.

5.1.1 Discussion Regarding Exit Responses

Results showed that Locus of Control and Critical Thinking significantly predicted Exit scores. As hypothesized, external Locus of Control was a significant predictor of Exit scores. In addition, participants with lower Critical Thinking scores had higher Exit scores. However, Locus of Control × Critical
Thinking interaction did not significantly predict Exit scores. Finally, Gender × Locus of Control interaction predicted Exit scores.

Participants who received high locus of control scores (i.e., externals) had high exit scores. This result can be explained in several ways. People with high external locus of control might have attributed sources of dissatisfactions in their relationship to external factors, i.e., to their romantic partner. In other words, they may have perceived their partners as sources of problematic situations or dissatisfactions. Such an externalization may decrease their commitment and the energy they invest in the relationship. Consequently, participants with external locus of control may exhibit exit behaviors for the purpose of ending their dissatisfying relationship with a partner who is perceived as the sole cause of dissatisfaction.

Another explanation may be related to the potential consequences of beliefs in locus of control construct. According to Skinner (1996) people may behave in different ways if they perceive control as impossible. Under such circumstances “…they withdraw, retreat or escape or otherwise become passive…”(Skinner, 1996; p. 556). Supporting this idea, Finkell and Campbell (2001) demonstrated that higher trait self-control led to constructive relationship behaviors and lower trait self-control led to destructive relationship behaviors. In addition, individuals’ appraisals of whether the stressful situation is controllable and whether their resources are adequate to exert control may influence the kind of coping they will show (Compas, Banez, Malcarne, & Worsham, 1991; Folkman, 1984). Skinner and Wellborn (1994) proposed that appraisal of low control may lead to confusion, escape, pessimism and passivity. In the light of these finding, one can argue that dissatisfactions and problematic situations in romantic relationships may affect perceptions of control. If individuals in romantic relationships perceive that dissatisfaction situations are not under control, they may react by exhibiting escape behaviors (exit) especially if they have external orientations.
In the present study, level of critical thinking disposition was also found to be the predictor of exit behavior. It was expected that some characteristics of individuals with low critical thinking disposition may hinder effective relationship functioning. As stated by Facione (2004), characteristics such as approaching problems with uncertainty or overly simplistic manner; and insisting on detailed and complicated solutions which are ineffective and unapplicable may make the problematic situations inevitably more difficult for the individuals with low critical thinking disposition.

Another possibility is that lower level of critical thinking disposition may lead to engaging in behaviors that may elicit problem behaviors more frequently, thus leading to relationship dissatisfaction which in turn leads to exit behaviors. As stated in American Philosophical Association (1990) these individuals are not open-minded, flexible, honest in facing personal biases, clear about issues, focused in inquiry and fair-minded in evaluation. Therefore, their potential for exaggerating trivial problems may increase. Similarly, lower level of critical thinking disposition may make it difficult to handle problematic behaviors of the partner. If such situations are not handled effectively, they may frequently create negative emotions, which may decrease relationship satisfaction and lead to exit responses.

Overall, the findings of the present study seemed to support the notion that individuals with lower critical thinking disposition engage in exit responses because they experience difficulties in finding solutions to relationship problems and dissatisfactions.

Results also revealed a significant Gender × Locus of Control interaction in predicting Exit scores. For male participants, Exit scores were higher when locus of control orientation was external rather than internal. Similarly, for female participants, Exit scores were higher when locus of control orientation was external. Since the mean difference between male and female participants
was small, the significant effect of Gender × Locus of Control interaction may be attributed to differences in the locus of control orientation rather than gender.

5.1.2 Discussion Regarding Voice Responses

Results showed that Locus of Control and Critical Thinking significantly predicted Voice scores. As hypothesized, internal Locus of Control was a significant predictor of Voice scores. In addition, participants with higher Critical Thinking scores had higher Voice scores. However, Locus of Control × Critical Thinking interaction did not significantly predict Voice scores.

The first explanation for the Locus of Control main effect on Voice scores can be related to the way that the individuals with internal locus of control perceive their behavior-outcome contingencies. It is possible that they could attribute dissatisfactions in their relationships to their own behaviors. That is, they would search for possible sources of dissatisfactions by examining their own behaviors instead of focusing on external sources. Such an attitude may increase the likelihood of focusing on the sources of relationship dissatisfactions and generating solutions for the problems. Searching for sources of dissatisfactions itself is a good manifestation of willingness to stay in an ongoing relationship. Thus, voice behaviors may be interpreted as a natural consequence of this motivation. As a result, one can argue that internals are more motivated and inclined to exhibit voice behaviors.

The second explanation might be that internal locus of control enhances individuals’ communication skills and increases the likelihood of voice behaviors. Lefcourt, Martin and Fick (1985) found that people with internal locus of control are more attentive listeners, more skilled in social interaction and more sensitive to social cues that manifest meaning inherent in a social situation. These characteristics of internals can facilitate their management of relationship problems in a constructive manner. Thus, application of good
communication skills in a romantic relationship is a way of exhibiting voice behaviors.

The final explanation regarding locus of control may be related to the potential consequences of beliefs in locus of control construct. According to Skinner (1996), when people perceive that they have control over the situation, they exert effort, try hard, initiate action, and persist whenever failures or setbacks occur. They approach a situation with interest, optimism, sustained attention, problem solving, and action orientation. In the present study, participants with higher locus of control may have manifested voice behaviors because they perceived control over dissatisfaction situations and persistently tried to overcome difficulties in their relationships. Thus, appraisal of control over the problem situations might have led to voice behaviors. Supporting this explanation, Skinner and Wellborn (1994) proposed that appraisal of high control should lead to information seeking, planning, preventative efforts and direct action. These are positive behaviors in a relationship and may be considered as active voice responses.

Having a higher level of critical thinking disposition may also facilitate overcoming dissatisfactions or problematic relationship situations. According to Facione (2004), people with high critical thinking disposition are open-minded regarding divergent world views, flexible in considering alternatives and opinions, fair-minded in appraising reasoning, honest in facing their own biases, prejudices, stereotypes or egocentric tendencies. Since they are open to change or revise their point of views, people with high critical thinking may honestly evaluate both their own and the other’s viewpoint. Supporting this assumption, Clifford, Boufal, and Kurtz (2004) found that critical thinking scores of the college students were positively and significantly correlated with their openness to experience scores.
The way that openness construct was conceptualized and measured in Clifford et al. (2004) study is of special concern for explaining the critical thinking effect on voice behaviors. In Clifford et al.’s study, openness was conceived as a construct with six related components. Two of these components, ideas and values, were strongly correlated with critical thinking scores. The ideas component refers to intellectual curiosity, open-mindedness and willingness to consider new ideas. Values refer to independence of judgment and tendency to consider new ethical, social and political viewpoints. Obviously, these characteristics can be facilitative in handling relationship problems. To put it in another way, the reason that the participants with higher level of critical thinking disposition reported more voice behaviors can be that their critical thinking disposition might facilitate their understanding of their partners’ viewpoints. Consequently, they can elaborate on creative solutions to their relationship problems which result in dissatisfactions.

Similarly, critical thinking disposition may also facilitate communication skills between partners. In the literature, there is evidence that good communication skills positively contribute to relationship maintenance and satisfaction (e.g., Davis & Oathout, 1987; Halford, Sanders, & Behrens, 2001). For instance, partners with high critical thinking disposition can be more likely to elaborate on feedbacks. By doing so, they may change their viewpoints and accompanying behaviors when necessary. Honestly evaluating feedbacks form partners may eventually lead to cognitive and behavioral changes and may positively contribute to relationship satisfaction.

5.1.3 Discussion Regarding Loyalty and Neglect

Regarding loyalty and neglect, only one prediction was supported: participants with external locus of control orientation had significantly higher Neglect scores than the participants with internal locus of control orientation. As previously mentioned, people with external locus of control may have attributed sources of their dissatisfactions to external factors such as fate, luck
or the other partner. In a similar vein, neglect behaviors may be the result of pessimism and passivity that externals experience in their relationships (Skinner & Wellborn, 1994). When they are expected to behave in a certain way, externals experience difficulty in taking control over the situation. As a result, if they can not exert exit behaviors in dissatisfying circumstances, they are more likely to engage in neglect behaviors by leaving the responsibility of action to their partners.

Except for the prediction that external locus of control would lead to neglect behaviors, the results of the present study did not reveal any significant prediction regarding loyalty behaviors. This result may be due to the nature of passive responses. Rusbult, Johnson and Morrow (1986a) proposed that as compared to active responses, loyalty and neglect behaviors are more subtle responses. They proposed that individuals approach the active responses more rationally, “…carefully considering what is to be gained by voicing or lost by exiting…” (p.59). Thus, passive behaviors may not be accurately reported by the participants.

5.2 General Discussion

In the present study locus of control and critical thinking significantly predicted active responses but failed to predict passive responses except for the neglect.

A possible explanation for why results of the present study revealed significant effects only for active responses may be related to the educational level of the participants. Rusbult, Johnson, and Morrow (1986a) found that individuals with greater education are more likely to react to dissatisfactions in an active manner (exit and voice) and less likely to respond in a passive fashion (loyalty and neglect). Therefore, prevalence of exit and voice behaviors among the participants may be the result of their educational level.
Another characteristic that may contribute to the results is the marital status of the sample. Rusbult, Johnson, and Morrow (1986a) found that married persons are less likely to react actively than passively to dissatisfaction in their relationship. Our sample consisted of single individuals. The interdependence in romantic relationships may not be so powerful as compared to interdependence in marriages. Therefore, the likelihood of active responses (especially for exit) may increase when dissatisfaction emerges in romantic relationships. Also, for university students, alternative romantic relationships are more readily available so this availability may increase the likelihood of exit behaviors.

5.3 Implications for Counseling

Relationship problems and dissatisfactions in romantic relationships are issues commonly held in counseling practices. These problems may stem from many sources and may require different kinds of interventions. Regardless of professionals’ orientation, counselors mainly aim to understand the problematic situation as a whole. Therefore, predisposing factors, antecedents and maintaining factors related to the problematic situation become important in this process.

Individuals with external locus of control tend to exhibit higher level of exit behaviors in their relationships. Such a tendency can be expected to create negative consequences and threatens the future of the relationship. Information about clients’ locus of control orientations can provide preventative cues for the counselors about the possibility of exit behaviors that clients may exhibit. If an individual has an external locus of control orientation, counselors can predict the possibility of exit behaviors and plan their interventions in the light of this possibility. In addition, they can directly intervene in exit behaviors and aim to decrease their frequency or try to prevent further occurrences of those behaviors.
Another implication related to exit behaviors may be working on clients’ locus of control and intervening indirectly to exit behaviors. Locus of control construct is related to individuals’ perception of control over their life events and can change as a result of naturally occurring events or therapeutic interventions (Lefcourt, 1982). There is evidence enhancing this point of view that locus of control can be increased through training (e.g., Manger, Eikeland & Asbjornsen, 2002). Some researchers even suggested that increasing internal locus of control is the primary goal of all counseling approaches (Mark, 1998). Therefore, it is possible to make a change in clients’ beliefs about behavioral control and shift their orientation from external to internal with respect to relationship functioning.

Some researchers previously emphasized the role of attributions in relationship satisfactions (e.g., McClintock, 1983; Fincham, Harold, & Ganor-Phillips, 2000). In counseling practices, working on locus of control and shifting it from external to internal may increase clients’ attributions to sources of dissatisfactions or problems. This may heighten clients’ awareness about the link between their behaviors and dissatisfactions, leading to subsequent behavior change. A combination of interventions which aim to change destructive behaviors into constructive behaviors and external locus of control into internal locus of control can be argued to increase the effectiveness of counseling process. Therefore, in the light of the previous findings and present study, it is possible to propose that as externals progress towards becoming internals, their attributions for the possible sources of dissatisfactions can be expected to change in a positive way.

Considering voice behaviors and their positive and relationship-maintaining nature (e.g., Rusbult, 1987; Rusbult, Zembrod, & Gunn, 1982), in the counseling process, individuals’ positive behavioral, cognitive and emotional characteristics are to be paid attention to. As a relationship-maintaining factor, voice responses might be accepted as one of the desired
cluster of behaviors. Thus, any existing voice behaviors can be supported by the counselor to maximize the couple’s functioning.

As for critical thinking, counselors can design interventions aiming to improve the critical thinking disposition of the clients. Enhancing the critical thinking dispositions of partners may positively contribute to their relationships (Clifford, Boufal, & Kurtz, 2004). It can be proposed that enhancing critical thinking may increase openness to experience in individuals. Therefore, critical thinking may be utilized in counseling to increase individuals’ open-mindedness and flexibility, and these characteristics would contribute not only to the relationship functioning but also the counseling process.

Camp and Ganong (1997) successfully summarize the role of critical thinking and locus of control in romantic relationships: “It is commonly accepted among family therapists and other practitioners that clients must be helped to examine their own assumptions and beliefs about their relationship, assess their own role in their interpersonal problems, take personal responsibility for their contributions, and make commitment to changing those attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors that maintain these behaviors.” (p.630).

5.4 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

The present study has a number of limitations. Some of these limitations are related to generalizability of the findings. First, the use of self-report measures instead of experimentations or actual behavioral observations makes it impossible to draw causal inferences. Second, all measurement tools utilized in the present study are self-report measures and prone to validity problems. For example, when they are asked questions regarding their romantic relationships, participants might have provided misinformation about their actual behaviors, beliefs or perceptions because of social desirability concerns. Third, the sample of the present study consisted of university students and
represents only university students. Therefore, the results of this study should be generalized cautiously.

Although this study examined the role of locus of control and critical thinking on behavior categories related to dissatisfactions in romantic relationships, data were collected only from one partner because of the practical reasons such as the possibility of having a small sample of dating couples. For this reason, it was impossible to evaluate the interactional nature of relationship dissatisfactions.

Locus of control was measured by Rotter’s (1966) IELCS, which places individuals on a continuum of beliefs about personal control. As compared to the general measures of control beliefs, measures of specific control constructs may be more helpful in understanding beliefs in control in a given relationship context (e.g., Miller et al., 1983). Since a dating-specific locus of control scale is not available, we utilized a general measurement of locus of control.

Future research should focus on the temporal sequencing of the responses when dissatisfactions emerged. For instance, individuals may engage in loyalty or voice behaviors at the beginning of a dissatisfaction episode, and then they may shift towards neglect or exit behaviors. Exchange features of the response categories also need attention in future research. That is, how is a partner likely to respond if the other partner engages in neglect or other dissatisfaction behaviors? Examining the effects of some other variables related to dissatisfactions such as severity of situation or demographic characteristics of partners will also contribute to the knowledge on romantic relationships.
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students: a comparison of stress, critical thinking ability and


APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

ORIGINAL FORM OF MRRPS

Please read each of the following statements concerning the manner in which your partner responds to problems in your relationship. Use the following scale to record a response for each item.

Response Scale:

(A 0 to 8 scale, with anchors "Partner Never Does This," "Partner Seldom Does This," "Partner Sometimes Does This," "Partner Frequently Does This," and "Partner Constantly Does This")

| Voice | 1. When my partner is upset and says something mean, I try to patch things up and solve the problem. |
| Exit  | 2. When my partner is angry with me and ignores me for awhile, I consider breaking up.                  |
| Loyalty | 3. When my partner is rude or inconsiderate, I remain loyal and wait for things to get better.              |
| Neglect | 4. When my partner behaves in an unpleasant or thoughtless manner, I do something else for awhile and avoid dealing with the situation. |
| Exit  | 5. When my partner is upset and says something mean, I feel so angry that I want to walk right out the door. |
| Loyalty | 6. When my partner behaves in an unpleasant or thoughtless manner, I forgive my partner and forget about it. |
| Neglect | 7. When my partner is angry with me and ignores me for awhile, I get away for awhile and avoid dealing with the problem. |
| Voice | 8. When my partner is rude or inconsiderate, I try to resolve the situation and improve conditions. |
| Neglect | 9. When my partner is upset and says something mean, I sulk and try to stay away from my partner for awhile. |
| Exit  | 10. When my partner is rude or inconsiderate, I begin to think about ending our relationship.               |
| Voice | 11. When my partner behaves in an unpleasant or thoughtless manner, I calmly discuss things with my partner. |
| Loyalty | 12. When my partner is angry with me and ignores me for awhile, I hang in there and wait for my partner's mood to change - these times pass. |
| Exit  | 13. When my partner behaves in an unpleasant or thoughtless manner, I do something equally unpleasant in return. |
| Voice | 14. When my partner is angry with me and ignores me for awhile, I talk to my partner about what's going on, trying to work out a solution. |
| Loyalty | 15. When my partner is upset and says something mean, I give my partner the benefit of the doubt and forget about it. |
| Neglect | 16. When my partner is rude or inconsiderate, I ignore the whole thing and try to spend less time with my partner. |
APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE OF THE PILOT STUDY

Cinsiyetiniz: K [ ] E [ ]
Yaşınız:__________
Fakülteniz:_______________
Bölümünüz:______________
Şu anda çıktığınız bir kişi (partneriniz/flörtünüz) var mı? E [ ] H [ ]

Cevabınız evet ise ne kadar süredir (ay veya yıl olarak belirtiniz)
birliktesiniz?_______ ay/yıl
BÖLÜM I
Aşağıda romantik ilişkilerinizde yaşadığıınız sorunlara verdiğiınız tepkilerle ilgili 16 madde verilmiştir. Lütfen her maddeye yer alan ifadeyi dikkatle okuyunuz ve partneriniz/flörtününüz/çıktığınız kişi ile sorun yaşadığınızda bu tepkiyi ne kadar siklikla gösterdiğinizi belirten seçeneklerden size uygun olan birini seçip çarp (X) koyarak belirtiniz.

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<tr>
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Partnerniz/flörtünüz/çıktığınız kişi...

1. keyifsziken beni kıracak bir şey söylediğinde, durumu düzeltmeye ve sorunu çözmeye çalışırsın. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
2. bana öfkelendiğinde ve bir sure beni görmezlikten geldiğinde, ayrılrıyorum ve durumun düzeltmesini beklerim. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
3. bana karşı kaba ya da düşüncesiz davranırsan, ona sadık kalırın ve durumun düzeltmesini beklerim. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
4. düşüncesiz veya hoş olmayan biçimde davranırsan, bir süre başka bir şey yaparım ve durumla ilgilenmekten kaçınırsın. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
5. keyifsziken beni kıracak bir şey söylediğinde, o kadar öfkelenirim ki çığıp gitmek isterim. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
6. düşüncesiz veya hoş olmayan biçimde davranırsan, onu affederim ve olanları unuturum. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
7. bana öfkelendiğinde ve bir sure beni görmezlikten geldiğinde, bir sure uzak dururum ve sorunu ilgilenmekten kaçınırsın. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
8. bana karşı kaba ya da düşüncesiz davranırsan, durumu düzeltmeye ve koşulları iyileştirmeye çalışırsın. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
9. keyifsziken beni kıracak bir şey söylediğinde, surat asarım ve bir sure ondan uzak kalmaya çalışırsın. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
10. bana karşı kaba ya da düşüncesiz davranırsan, ilişkini bitirirsin ve bu sorunu ona sakın bir biçimde tartışır. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
11. düşüncesiz veya hoş olmayan biçimde davranırsan, olup bitenin onu sakin bir biçimde tartıştır. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
12. bana öfkelendiğinde ve bir sure beni görmezlikten geldiğinde, öylece durup onun öfkesinin geçmesini beklerim. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
13. düşüncesiz veya hoş olmayan biçimde davranırsan, ben de onunki kadar hoş olmayan bir şey yaparım. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
14. bana öfkelendiğinde ve bir sure beni görmezlikten geldiğinde, bir çözüm bulmaya çalışarak onunla ne olup bitigi hakkında konuşur. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
15. keyifsziken beni kıracak bir şey söylediğinde, yanlış anlaşmayı varsayıp olmayan üstünde durur. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
16. bana karşı kaba ya da düşüncesiz davranırsan, bütün olayları boş verir ve onunla daha az zaman geçirmeye çalışırsın. 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

97
BÖLÜM II

Romantik ilişkilerde kişilerin isteklerinin birbiriyle bağdaşmadığı durumların ortaya çıkması, yani anlaşmazlıkların olması kaçınılmazdır. Aşağıda bu anlaşmazlık durumlarında insanların gösterebileceği davranışları ifade eden 5 madde verilmiştir. Lütfen her maddede yer alan ifadeyi dikkatle okuyunuz ve partneriniz/flörtünüz/çıktığınız kişi ile aranızda anlaşmazlıklar çıktığında bu tepkiiyi ne kadar siklikla gösterdiğiniz belirtirseniz, size uygunsuz birini seçip çarpı (X) koyarak belirtiniz.

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<td>Çok az</td>
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<td>Fazla</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Partnerim/flörtüm/çıktığım kişiyile bir anlaşmazlık yaşadığında...

1. kendi isteğimi kabul ettirinceye kadar tartışmayı sürdürürüm. 1 2 3 4 5
2. Tartışma çıkacak konuları hiç açmamaya çalışırım, açıldığı zaman konuyu değiştiririm. 1 2 3 4 5
3. tam olarak onaylaması bile onun görüş ve isteklerini kabul ederim. 1 2 3 4 5
4. ben biraz taviz (ödün) veririm, onun da isteklerinden biraz taviz vermesini isterim ve uzlaşacak bir orta yol bulmaya çalışırım. 1 2 3 4 5
5. onu da isteklerinden vazgeçirecek ve ikimizi de mutlu edecek bir üçüncü yol bulmaya çalışırım. 1 2 3 4 5
APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE OF THE MAIN STUDY

Bu anket, romantik ilişkilerde yaşanan anlaşılmazlık durumlarını incelemek amacıyla yürütülen bir doktora tezi çalışmasında kullanlacaktır.

Ankette verilen ifadeleri yantlarken sizden her ifadede sizi en iyi yansıttığına inandığınız seçeneği işaretlemenizdir. Vereceğiniz yanıtlarla içten davranışınızı, araştırma sonuçlarının bilimsel geçeriğine açısından çok önemlidir. Lütfen anketi doldururken hiçbir ifadeyi atlamayınız.

Ankete adınızı yazmanız gerekmektedir. Anketten elde edilen sonuçlar toplu olarak değerlendirilecektir. Hiç bir kişisel bilgi, bu toplu değerlendirme dışında kullanılmayacaktır. İçtenlikle vereceğiniz inandığınız yanıtlarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederim.

Okan Cem Çirakoğlu

Cinsiyetiniz: K [ ] E [ ]
Doğum tarihiniz: 19 ___
Bölümünüz:__________________________________
Sınıfiniz:_______

Aşağıdaki durumlardan size uygun olanları işaretleyiniz. Birden fazla işaretleyebilirsiniz.

[ ] Sürmekte olan bir romantik ilişkim var.
Süresini ay ve yıl olarak belirtiniz:________________________
[ ] Geçmişte başka romantik ilişkim/ilişkilerim oldu.
En uzun olanının süresini ay ve yıl olarak belirtiniz:________________________
[ ] Sürmekte olan bir ilişkim yok.
[ ] Hiç romantik ilişkim olmadı.
BÖLÜM I

Aşağıda partneriniz/flörtünüz/çıktığınız kişi ile sorun yaşadığınızda gösterebileceğiniz tepkilerle ilgili cümleler verilmiştir. Her bir cümleyi karşılık gelen ölçüne göre değerlendirmek için (X) koyarak işaretleyiniz.

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<tr>
<td>Bunu asla yapmam</td>
<td>Bunu çok nadir yaparım</td>
<td>Bunu ara sırada yaparım</td>
<td>Bunu sık yaparım</td>
<td>Bunu her zaman yaparım</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Partnerim/flörtüm/çıktığım kişi…

1. keyifsizken beni kıracak bir şey söylediğinde, durumu düzeltmeye ve sorunu çözümeye çalışır.

2. bana öfkelendiğinde ve bir süre beni görmelikten geldiğinde, ayrılmayı düşünürüm.

3. bana karşı kaba ya da düşünsesiz davranındığında, ona sadık kalırm ve durumun düzelmesini beklerim.

4. düşünsesiz veya hoş olmayan biçimde davranındığında, bir süre başka bir şey yaparım ve durumla ilgilenmemek kaçırır.

5. keyifsizken beni kıracak bir şey söyledğinde, o kadar öfkelenirim ki çıkıp gitmek isterim.

6. düşünsesiz veya hoş olmayan biçimde davranındığında, onu affederim ve olanları unuturum.

7. bana öfkelendiğinde ve bir süre beni görmelikten geldiğinde, bir süre uzak dururum ve sorunla ilgilenmemek kaçırır.

8. bana karşı kaba ya da düşünsesiz davranındığında, durumu düzeltmeye ve koşulları iyileştirmeye çalışır.

9. keyifsizken beni kıracak bir şey söylediğinde, surat anladıgı mı varsayıp olayın üstünde durmam.

10. bana karşı kaba ya da düşünsesiz davranındığında, ilgimizi bitirmeyi düşünmeye başlarım.

11. düşünsesiz veya hoş olmayan biçimde davranındığında, olup biteni onuna sanki bir biçimde tartışır.

12. bana öfkelendiğinde ve bir süre beni görmelikten geldiğinde, öylece durup onun öfkesinin geçmesini beklerim.

13. düşünsesiz veya hoş olmayan biçimde davranındığında, ben de onunki kadar hoş olmayan bir şey yaparım.

14. bana öfkelendiğinde ve bir süre beni görmelikten geldiğinde, bir çözüm bulmaya çalışarak onunla ne olup bittiği hakkında konuşurum.

15. keyifsizken beni kıracak bir şey söylediğinde, yanlış anlamış olup olayın üstünde durum.

16. bana karşı kaba ya da düşünsesiz davranındığında, bütün olanları boş verir ve onunla daha az zaman geçirmeye çalışır.
BÖLÜM II
Aşağıdaki ifadeleri karşılarındaki ölçege göre değerlendirip çarpı (X) koyarak işaretleyiniz.

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<td>Biraz</td>
<td>Oldukça</td>
<td>Fazla</td>
<td>Çok fazla</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Partnerim/flörtüm/çıkışmış kişiyle bir anlaşılazlık yaşadığımızda...

| 1. | kendi isteğimi kabul ettirinceye kadar tartışmayı sürdürürüm. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. | tartışma çıkacak konuları hiç açmamaya çalışırım, açısından zaman konuyu değiştiririm. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. | tam olarak onaylamasam bile onun görüş ve isteklerini kabul ederim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. | ben biraz taviz (ödün) veririm, onun da isteklerinden biraz taviz vermesini isterim ve uzlaşacak bir orta yol bulmaya çalısrım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. | onu da isteklerinden vazgeçirecek ve ikimizi de mutlu edecek bir üçüncü yol bulmaya çalısrım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

BÖLÜM III
Aşağıdaki ifadeleri verilen ölçek üzerinde değerlendiriniz.

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<tr>
<td>Hiç katılmıyorum</td>
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| 1. | Tüm hayatım boyunca yeni şeyler çalışmak harika olurdu. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 2. | İnsanların iyi bir düşüncesi savunmak için zayıf fikirlerine güvenmeleri beni rahatsız eder. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. | Cevap vermeye kalkışmadan önce, her zaman soruya odaklanırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. | Büyük bir netlikle düşünebilmekten gurur duyuyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. | Dört lehte, bir aleyhte görüşi varsa, lehte olan dört görüntü kattırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. | Pek çok üniversite dersi ilginç değişildir ve almaya dekmez. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7. | Sadece ezeri değil düşünümeyi gerektiren snavlar benim için daha iyidir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 8. | Diğer insanlar entelektüel merakını ve araştıracı kişiliğini takdir ederler. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 9. | Mantıklımsız gibi davranışlarınız, ama değilim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 10. | Düşüncelerimi düzenlemek benim için kolaydır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 11. | Ben dahil herkes kendi çıkar farklı için tartışır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 12. | Kişisel harcamalarının dikkatlice kaydını tutmak benim için önemlidir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 13. | Büyük bir kararla yüz yüze geldiğimde, ilk önce, toplayabileceğim tüm bilgileri toplarım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 14. | Kurallara uygun biçimde karar verdiğim için, arkadaşlarım karar vermek için bana danışmalar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 15. | Açık fikirli olmak neyin doğru olup olmadığını bilmemek demektir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 16. | Diğer insanların çeşitli konularda neler düşündüklerini anlamak benim için önemlidir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 17. | İnanıklarımın tümü için dayanaklarım olmalı. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
18. Okumak, mümkün olduğunca, kaçtvım bir şeydir. 1 2 3 4 5 6
19. İnsanlar çok acıеЁ karar verdiğini söylerler. 1 2 3 4 5 6
20. Üniversitedeki zorunlu dersler vakit kaybetir. 1 2 3 4 5 6
21. Gerçekte çok karmaşık bir seyle uğraşmak zorunda kaldığım için panik zamanırdır. 1 2 3 4 5 6
22. Yabancılar sürekli kendi kültürlerini anlamaya uğraşacaklarına, bizim kültürümüzü çalışanlalar. 1 2 3 4 5 6
23. İnsanlar benim karar vermeyi oyaladığı düşündüler. 1 2 3 4 5 6
24. İnsanların, bir başarının fikrine karşı çıkacaklarsa, nedenlere ihtiyaç vardır. 1 2 3 4 5 6
25. Kendi fikirlerimi tartışırken tarsız olmam imkansızdır. 1 2 3 4 5 6
26. Ortaya yaratıcı seçenekleri koyabilmekte gurur duyarım. 1 2 3 4 5 6
27. Neeye inanmak istiyorsam ona inanırım. 1 2 3 4 5 6
28. Zor problemleri çözme için uğraşmayı sürdürmek o kadar da önemlidir. 1 2 3 4 5 6
29. Diğerleri, kararların uygulanmasında mantıklı standartların belirlenmesi için bana başvurular. 1 2 3 4 5 6
30. Zorlayıcı şeyler öğrenmeye istekliyim. 1 2 3 4 5 6
31. Yabancıların ne düşünüklerini anlamaya çalışmak oldukça önemlidir. 1 2 3 4 5 6
32. Meraklı olmam en güçlü yanlardan birisidir. 1 2 3 4 5 6
33. Görüşleriimi destekleyecek görüşleri ararım, desteklemeleyenleri değil. 1 2 3 4 5 6
34. Karmaşık problemleri çözme çalışmayı eğlenceli olan. 1 2 3 4 5 6
35. Diğerlerinin düşüncelerini anlamama yeteneğimden dolayı takdir edilm. 1 2 3 4 5 6
36. Benzetmeler ve anologiler ancak otoyol üzerindeki tekneler kara yararlıdır. 1 2 3 4 5 6
37. Beni mantıklı olarak tanımlayabilirm. 1 2 3 4 5 6
38. Her şeyin nasıl işlediğini anlamaya çalışmaktan gerçekte hoşlanırım. 1 2 3 4 5 6
39. İşler zorlaştığında, diğerleri problem üstünde çalışmayı sürdürmemi isterler. 1 2 3 4 5 6
40. Elimdeki sorun hakkında açık bir fikir edinmek ilk önceliklidir. 1 2 3 4 5 6
41. Çelişkili konulardaki fikrim genellikle en son konuşturum kişiyi bağldır. 1 2 3 4 5 6
42. Konu ne hakkında olursa olsun daha fazla öğrenmeye hevesle uyardım. 1 2 3 4 5 6
43. Sorunları çözmenin en iyi yolu, cevabı başkasından istemektir. 1 2 3 4 5 6
44. Karmaşık problemlere düzenli yaklaşımla tanınır. 1 2 3 4 5 6
45. Farklı dünya görüşlerine karşı açık fikirli olmak, insanların düşündüğünden daha az önemlidir. 1 2 3 4 5 6
46. Öğrenebileceğim her şey ögren, ne zaman işe yarayacağını bilemezsin. 1 2 3 4 5 6
47. Her şeyi gerçekte bir tarafta öğren. 1 2 3 4 5 6
48. Diğer inanlar, sorunun ne zaman çözümleneceği kararını bana bırakırlar. 1 2 3 4 5 6
49. Ne düşündüğümü biliyorum, o zaman neden seçenekleri değerlendiririyorum gibi davranırken. 1 2 3 4 5 6
50. Diğerleri kendi fikirlerini ortaya koyarlardan benim onları duymaya ihtiyacım yok. 1 2 3 4 5 6
51. Karmaşık problemlerin çözümüne yönelik düzenli planlar geliştirmekte iyi iyi. 1 2 3 4 5 6
BÖLÜM IV
Bu bölümde her soruda iki madde çifti bulunmaktadır. Lütfen her cümle çiftinde sizin kendi görüşünze göre doğru sozçuğu yansıtığına en çok inandığınız a veya b şeçeneklerinden birini seçiniz ve bu seçeneği bir yuvarlak içine alınınız.

1. a. İnsanların yaşamındaki mutsuzlukların çoğu biraz da şansızlıklarına bağlıdır.  
    b. İnsanların talihszizlikleri biraz da kendi hatalarının sonucudur.
2. a. Savaşıların başlıca nedenlerinden biri, halkın siyasete yeterince ilgilenmemesidir.  
    b. İnsanlar savaş önleme için ne kadar çaba harcarsa harcasın her zaman savaş olacaktır.
3. a. İnsanlar bu dünyada hak ettikleri saygıyı er geç görürler.  
    b. İnsanlar ne kadar çabalarca çabaalanın, ne yazık ki değerli genellikle anlaşılır.
4. a. Öğretmenlerin öğrencilere haksızlık yaptığı fikri saçmadır.  
    b. Öğrencilerin çok, notlarının tesadüfi olaylardan etkilediğini fark etmez.
5. a. Koşullar uygun değişse insan başarılı bir lider olamaz.  
    b. Lider olamayan yeteneği insanlar fırsatları değerlendirememiş kişilerdir.
6. a. Ne kadar uğraşanızda bazı insanlar sizden hoşlanmaz.  
    b. Kendilerini başkalarına sevdiremeyen kişiler, başlıklarında nasıl geçinileceğini bilmeyen kişilerdir.
7. a. Bir şey olacaksa eninde sonunda olacağina sık sık tahkik olmuştur.  
    b. Ne yapacağını kesin karar vermek kadere güvenmekten daha iyidir.
8. a. İyi hazırlanmış bir öğrenci için, adil olmayan bir sınav hemen hemen söz konusu olamaz.  
    b. Sınav sonuçları derste işlenenle doğru kez o kadar işiklizes olsun ki, çevrilenin anlamı kalmayor.
    b. İyi bir iş bulmak, temelde, doğru zamanda doğru yerde bulunmaya bağlıdır.
    b. Bu dünya güçlü birkaç kişi tarafından yönetilmedektedir ve sade vatandaşın bu konuda yapabileceğini fazla bir şey yoktur.
11. a. Yaptığım planları yürütüleceğinden hemen hemen eminim.  
    b. Çok uzun vadeli planlar yapmak her zaman akillica olmayabilir, çünkü birçok şey zaten iyi ya da kötü şansa bağlıdır.
    b. Çoğu durumda yazi-tara araatak da isabetli kararlar verebiliriz.
    b. İnsanlara doğru şeyi yapmak bir yeteneğ işidir; şansın bunda payı hiç yoktur ya da çok azdır.
14. a. Dünya meseleleri söz konusu olduğunda, çokumuz anlayamadığımız ve kontrol edemediğimiz güçlerin kurbanyızdır.  
    b. İnsanlar siyasal ya da sosyal olaylarda aktif rol alarak dünya olaylarını kontrol edebilirler.
15. a. Bir çok insan rastlantıların yaşamlarını ne derece etkilediğinin farkında değildir.  
    b. Aslında “şans” diye bir şey yoktur.
16. a. Bir insannın sizden geçerken hoşlanıp hoşlanmadığını bilmek zordur.  
    b. Kaç arkaadaşının olduğu, ne kadar iyi olduğunuza bağlıdır.
17. a. Uzun vadede, yaşamımızdaki kötü şeyler iyiyeylerle dengelenir.  
    b. Çoku talihszizlikler yetenek eksikliğinin, ihmalin tembelliğin ya da her üçünün birden sonucudur.
|   | 18. a. Yeterli çabayla siyasl yolsuzlukları ortadan kaldırlabiliriz.  
|   | b. Siyasetçilerin kapalı kapılar ardında yaptıkları üzerinde halkın fazla bir kontrolü yoktur.  
|   | 19. a. Öğretmenlerin verdikleri notları nasıl belirlediklerini bazen anlayamıyorum.  
|   | b. Aldığım notlarla çalışma derecesi arasında doğrudan bir ilişki vardır.  
|   | 20. a. Çoğu kez başıma gelenler üzerinde çok az etkiye sahip olduğunu hissediyorum.  
|   | b. Şans ya da talihin yaşamında önemli rol olduğunu inanmam.  
|   | 21. a. İnsanlar arkadaşça olmaya çalışmamak için yanlışdırlar.  
|   | b. İnsanları memnun etmek için çok fazla çabalamamın yararını yoktur, sizden hoşlanırsanız hoşlanırlar.  
|   | 22. a. Başına ne gelmişse, kendi yaptıklarımızdır.  
|   | b. Yaşamının alacağı yön üzerinde bazen yeterince kontrolümüz olmadığını hiediyorum.  
|   | 23. a. Siyasetçilerin neden öyle davranıklarını çoğu kez anlamıyorum.  
|   | b. Yerel ve ulusal düzeydeki kötü idareden uzun vadede halk sorumludur.  
|   |
APPENDIX D

TURKISH SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH

KONTROL ODAĞININ VE ELEŞTİREL DÜŞÜNmenin Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Romantik İlişkilerindeki DoYumsuzluklar ELE ALIŞ BİÇİMLERİ ÜZERİNDEKİ ROLÜ

GİRİŞ

Bu çalışmanın amacı eleştirel düşünmenin ve kontrol odagının Türk üniversite öğrencilerinin romantik ilişkilerindeki doyumsuzluklara verdikleri tepkiler üzerindeki rolünü incelemektir. Bu çalışma, ergenlik döneminde yaşanan duygusal ilişkilerdeki doyumsuzluğu anlam konusunda, eleştirel düşünmeye yakınlılığı ve kontrol odagı olmak üzere iki kişilik özelliğinin rolüne odaklanmaktadır.

Ergenlik Döneminde Duygusal İlişkiler

ilk romantik ilişki deneyimlerinin yalnızca kimlik ve kişilik gelişiminde değil, erişkinlik döneminde yaşanan duygusal ilişkilerde ve evliliğin gidişatında da çok önemli bir rol oynamaktadır (Erikson, 1968).


Ergenlik dönemindeki romantik ilişkilerle ilgili araştırma bulguları ergenlik dönemi boyunca yaşanan duygusal ilişkilerin (a) erişkin yaşamına daha kolay uyum sağlamak için gerekten davranış repertuarını geliştirdi ve (b) bireylerin ilişkilerin oluşuma ve işleyiş biçimleri hakkında kendi zihinsel temsilerini yaratmada etkili olduğu düşündesini desteklemektedir.

Romantik ilişkilerin ergenlerin sosyal gelişiminde önemli bir rol oynadığı aşıtır. Bununla birlikte, insan ilişkileri tümüyle sorunsuz değildir. Romantik ilişkiler de dahil olmak üzere kişilerarası ilişkilerin her biçiminde kaçınılmaz olarak bazı sorunlar, çatışmalar ya da doyumsuzluklar ortaya çıkar.

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**Duygusal İlişkilerde Doyumsuzluklara Verilen Tepkiler: Terk Etme, Dile Getirme, Sadakat ve İhmal**


Terk Etme: İlişkiyi bitirmek ya da aktif olarak zarar verici bir şekilde davranmak (örneğin, resmen ayrılmak, ayrı bir eve taşınmak, sadece arkadaş olmaya karar vermek, boşanmak, aktif olarak ilişkiye zarar vermek, ayrılmaya tehtidinde bulunmak).
Dile Getirme: Durumu düzeltmek için aktif ve yapıcı bir şekilde davranmak (örneğin, sorunları tartışmak, uzlaşmak, bir profesyonelden ya da bir arkadaşın yardım aramak, çözümler üretmek, partnere canını neyin sıktığı sormak, kendini ya da partneri değiştirmeye çalışmak).

Sadakat: Pasif, ama iyimser bir şekilde durumun düzelmesini beklemek (örneğin, başkaları eleştirdiğinde partneri desteklemek, ilişkinin sembollerini kullanmaya devam etmek, işlerin düzellesi için dua etmek).

İhmal: Pasif bir şekilde köşulların kötüleşmesine izin vermek (örneğin, partneri ihmal etmek ya da birlikte daha az zaman geçirmek, sorunları tartışmayı reddetmek, partnere kötü davranmak).


Rusbult and Zembrodt (1983) tarafından geliştirilen doyumsuzluk tepkileri sınıflandırması, birçok araştırmada kullanılmış (e.g., Rusbult, Johnson & Morrow, 1986ab; Gaines et al., 1997), bu sınıflandırmanın kuramsal ve pratik değeri görgül bulgularla desteklenmiştir. Bu sınıflandırma, ergenlerin romantik ilişkilerindeki doyumsuzluk tepkilerini incelemek için bağımlı değişken olarak bu çalışmada da kullanılmıştır.

**Eleştirel Düşünme Yatkınlığı**

1990 yılında, Amerikan Felsefe Derneği sponsorluğunda, farklı disiplinlerden gelen panelistler, iki yıl süren Delphi projesini tamamlamış;

Delphi projesinde, eleştirel düşünmenin tanımı konusunda bir görüş birliğine varılmış olmasına karşın, eleştirel düşünmenin bir kişilik yakınlığı mı mı yoksa bir beceri seti mı olduğunu konusundaki tartışmalar, hâlâ sürmektedir (Facione, Facione ve Giancarlo, 1992; Facione, Facione ve Giancarlo, 2000; Clifford, Boufal ve Kurtz, 2004). Çağdaş eleştirel düşünme yaklaşımları, eleştirel düşünme hakkındaki tartışmaların hem eleştirel düşünme becerilerini hem de yakınlıklarını içermesi gerektiğini ileri sürmektedir. Yapılan araştırmalar, başlıca eleştirel düşünme becerilerine odaklanmış, son yıllarda kadar eleştirel düşünme yakınlıklarını dışarıda bırakmıştır. Eleştirel düşünme yakınlığı terimi kişinin çözümesi gereken sorunlar, düşünülmesi gereken fikirler ya da alınması gereken kararlarla karşılaştırıldığında eleştirel düşünme yönündeki içsel motivasyonuna karşılık gelir. Bu değer, tutum ve eğilimler, bireyin kişiliğinin, sorunu saptama ve usavurma yoluya sorun çözmeye olması yaklaşımını belirleyen boyutlardır (Giancarlo, Blohm ve Urdan, 2004). Delphi projesi, ideal bir eleştirel düşünürün zengin bir tanımı sunmakta ve kişinin genel yakınlığı olarak yorumlanabilecek bazı özelliklerini vurgulamaktadır:

Yukarıda özetlenen özellikler, eleştirel düşünmenin ulaşılabilir verilerin akıcı kullanımına dayandığını ve sorun çözme, veri bütünleme ya da doğru kararlar verme gibi çeşitli bilişsel süreçlerle uğraşmayı gerektirdiğini akla getirmektedir. Bu özellikler, eleştirel düşünme ve yakın ilişkilerle ilgili diğer bilişsel süreçler arasında teorik bağlar kurulmasına olanak sağlar.


**Kontrol Odağı'nın Kavramsallaştırılması**

Kontrol odağı kavramının kökleri Rotter’ın (1954, 1966) sosyal öğrenme teorisine dayanır. Rotter’in kontrol odağı sınıflandırması, içsel kontrolden
dışsal kontrole iki kutuplu bir boyutta, davranışın sonuçlarını kimin ya da neyin etkilediğine ilişkin inançları içermektedir. İçsel kontrol odağı gelecekteki sonuçlara dair kontrolün, öncelikle kişinin kendisine bağlı olduğu inancını anlatmak için kullanılan bir terimdir; yani, içsel kontrol odağı olan kişiler davranışlarının sonuçlarının, kader, şans ya da başkaları yerine kendi eylemlerinden kaynaklandığına inanırlar. Aynı zamanda, kendi deneyimlerini kendi beceri ve çabalarının kontrol ettiğini de inanırlar. Diğer yandan dışsal kontrol odağı, kontrolün kişinin kendisinin dışında olduğu beklentisine karşılık gelir.


Araştırmannın Kuramsal Çerçevesi

Eleştirel düşünme, bireyin bilişsel süreçlerine dayanır ve karar verme süreçleriyle ilgilidir (Goldstein ve Hogarth, 1997; Kökdemir, 2003). Bireylerin bir karara varmaları ya da olaylar arasındaki ilişkiler hakkında mantıklı bağlantılar kurmaları gereken durumlarda “neden” sorusunu sormaları, eleştirel düşünme sürecinin en önemli özelliğidir. “Neden” sorusu, yalnızca yanıtların bulunmasını sağlamakla kalmaz, aynı zamanda bireylerin bu yanıtla iyiçe


Eleştirel düşünme kişiler arası ilişkilerin niteliğinde doğrudan etkisi olabilecek bazı becerileri içerebilir. Örneğin, yakın bir ilişkideki bir kişi için, kanıtlanmış fikirler ya da gerçekler ile varsayımları birbirinden ayır etmek
önemlidir. Romantik bir ilişkideki taraflar gerçeklerden çok kendi varsayımlarına dayanırsalar, çatışma ve iletişim sorunlarının meydana gelmesi kaçınılmaz olacaktır. Benzer şekilde, ilgili olmayan bilgileri gerçeklerin dışında bırakmak yakın ilişki sorunlarında gerek duyulan bir diğer beceridir.


Sonuç olarak hem eleştirel düşünme eğiliminin hem de kontrol odağı üniversitelerin öğrencilerinin ilişkilerinde verdikleri doyumsuzluk tepkilerini belirlemede rol oynayabileceği söylenebilir.

**Araştırmmanın Amacı**

Bu araştırmmanın temel amacı romantik ilişkilerde doyumsuzluğa verilen tepkilerde kontrol odağı ve eleştirel düşünmenin etkilerini incelemektir.

Araştırmının hipotezleri aşağıda verildiği biçimde belirlenmiştir.

1. İçsel kontrol odağıın daha yüksek düzeyde dile getirme ve sadakat tepkilerini yordaması beklenirken, dışsal kontrol odağın terk etme ve ihmal tepkilerini yordaması beklenmektedir.

2. Yüksek eleştirel düşünme yatkınlığının dile getirme ve sadakat tepkilerini yordaması beklenirken, düşük eleştirel düşünme yatkınlığının terk etme ve ihmal tepkilerini yordaması beklenmektedir.


4. Ayrıca, cinsiyet, kontrol odağı ve eleştirel düşünme arasındaki olası iki ve üç yönlü etkileşimlerin doyumsuzluğa verilen tepkiler üzerindeki etkileri incelenecektir.
Bu araştırmada sıkı sıkı kullanılan terimler aşağıda sunulmuştur.

**Çatışma:** “Bir kişinin eylemlerinin başka bir kişinin eylemlerini her engellediğinde meydana gelen kişiler arası bir süreçtir. (Peterson, 1983; s. 365).

**Eleştirel düşünme yatılığı:** Eleştirel düşünme, yorumlamaya, analiz etmeye, değerlendirme ve çıkarımada bulunmaya dayanır. Eleştirel düşünme aynı zamanda kanıt arama, kavramsallaştırma, metodolojik ve bağlamsal verilerin değerlendirilmesi ile sonuçlanan amaçlı ve özdenetim niteliği taşıyan bir etkinliktir (American Philosophical Association, 1990).

**İçsel kontrol odagı:** İçsel kontrol odagı, gelecekteki sonuçların kontrolünün öncelikle kişinin kendisinde olduğu inancı anlatmak için kullanılan bir terimdir; yani, içsel kontrol odagı olan kişiler sonuçları kader, şans ya da diğerlerinden çok kendi eylemlerinin sonuçları olduğunu inanırlar. Aynı zamanda, kendi deneyimlerini, kendi becerileri ve çabalarının kontrol ettiği inanırlar (Rotter, 1966).

**Dişsal kontrol odagı:** Dişsal kontrol odagı, kontrolün kişinin kendisinin dışında olduğu beklentisine karşılık gelir. Dişsal kontrol odagı olan kişiler deneyimlerini ve sonuçları kader, şans veya talih gibi dışsal faktörlere atfetme eğilimi gösterirler (Rotter, 1966).

**Terk etme:** Terk etme ilişkisi bitirme ya da yığıncı bir şekilde davranmaya karşılık gelir (örneğin, resmen ayrılmak, ayrı bir eve taşınmak, sadece arkadaş olmaya karar vermek, boşanmak, aktif olarak iliskiye zarar vermek, ayrılama tehdidinde bulunmak) (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986a).

**Dile getirme:** Dile getirme bir ilişkide doyumsuzluk görüldüğünde ilişkideki koşulları aktif ve yapıcı biçimde düzeltme girişimine karşılık gelir
(örneğin, sorunları tartışmak, uzlaşmak, bir profesyonelden ya da bir arkadaşdan yardım aramak, çözümler üretmek, partnere canını sorgulamanın siktigi sormak, kendini ya da partnéri değiştirmeye çalışmak) (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986a).

Sadakat: Pasif, ama iyimser bir şekilde durumun düzellesmesini beklemeye karşılık gelir (örneğin, başkaları eleştirdiğinde partnéri desteklemek, ilişkinin sembollerini kullanmaya devam etmek, işlerin düzellesmesi için dua etmek) (Rusbult, Johnson, & Morrow, 1986a).


YÖNTEM


İlişki Problemlerine Tepkilerim Ölçeği’nin yapısı çoklu boyutlu Ölçeklendirme (MDS) ve Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analizi (CFA) kullanılarak değerlendirilmiştir. MDS analizi sonucunda stres değeri .20 olarak bulunmuştur. İlişki Problemlerine Tepkilerim Ölçeği için Doğrulayıcı Faktör Analiziyile hesaplanan Uyum İyiliği İndeksleri Tablo 4’de sunulmuştur. İlişki Problemlerine Tepkilerim Ölçeği’nin gözlenen değişkenleri için Standardize Lambda-x değerleri, standart hatalar, t değerleri ve gözlenen değişkenlerin çoklu korelasyon kareleri Tablo 5’de verilmiştir.

Ölçüt geçerliğinin tespit edilmesi için İlişki Problemlerine Tepkilerim Ölçeği boyutları ile Tezer (1986) tarafından Thomas’un (1976) tanımları kullanılarak uyarlanan çatışma davranışları arasındaki korelasyonlar hesaplanmıştır. Bu korelasyon katsayıları Tablo 7’de sunulmuştur. İlişki Problemlerine Tepkilerim Ölçeği’nin Dile Getirme, Sadakat, Terk etme ve Ihmal boyutları için hesaplanan iç tutarlık katsayıları (Cronbach α) sırasıyla .73, .59, .69 ve .57 olarak bulunmuştur. Özetle güvenilirlik ve geçerlilik çalışmaları sonucunda İlişki Problemlerine Tepkilerim Ölçeği’nin psikometrik olarak yeterli olduğuna ve asıl çalışmada kullanılmasına karar verilmiştir. CCTDI için hesaplanan güvenilirlik katsayısı .84 olarak bulunmuştur.

Her iki çalışmanın verileri ders saatleri kullanılarak grup uygulamaları ile toplanmıştır. Pilot çalışmada veri toplama işlemi yaklaşık 10 dakika, asıl çalışmmanın veri toplama işlemi ise yaklaşık 25 dakika sürmüştür.
BULGULAR

Araştırmanın hipotezlerinin test edilebilmesi için dört bağımsız kararlı regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Araştırmanın değişkenlerine ilişkin betimleyici istatistikler Tablo 8’da, değişkenler arasındaki korelasyonlar ise Tablo 9, Tablo 10 ve Tablo 11’de sunulmuştur.


Kontrol odağı dışsal olan katılmcıların terk etme puanlarının yüksek olması bu bireylerin ilişkilerindeki doyumuslukların nedenini şans, kader ya da diğer partnere atfetmeleri ile ilişkili olabilir. Böyle bir dışsallastırma

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Eleştirel düşünceye katkıını yüksek olan bireylerin etkili problem çözme, etkili çözümler ürete, olaylara açık fikirlilikle yaklaşma, kendi önyargılarıyla yüzleşebilme ve deneyime açık olma gibi olumlu özelliklere sahip olduklarını bilinmektedir. Bu özelliklerin bireylerin verdiği dile getirme tepkilerini kolaylaştırmaya mümkündir. Dolaysıyla, eleştirel düşünceye katkıını yüksek
olan bireylerin, doyumsuzluk durumlarında rasyonel çözümler bulma ve bașa çıkma yöntemleri geliştirme olasılığının artması olasıdır.


Son olarak daha sonrası araştırmalar için bazı önerilerde bulunulabilir. Doyumsuzluğa verilen tepkilerin izlediği bir sıralamının olup olmadığını merak konusudur. Bir partnerin ilişki doyumsuzluğuna verdiği tepkinin diğer partnerde hangi tepki ile karşılandığı araştırılması gereken bir başka önemli konudur. Ayrıca, demografik değişkenler ya da problemin şiddeti gibi ilişki doyumsuzluğuyla ilgili diğer değişkenlerin araştırılması romantik ilişkiler literatürüne katkı sağlayacaktır.
APPENDIX E

CIRRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

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EDUCATION

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FOREIGN LANGUAGES

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PUBLICATIONS

