

## THE INTERVENING ROLES OF COGNITIVE APPRAISALS AND BASIC PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS IN RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED INTERPARENTAL CONFLICT AND ADOLESCENT WELL- AND ILL-BEING

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#### **ABSTRACT**

THE INTERVENING ROLES OF COGNITIVE APPRAISALS AND BASIC PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS IN RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED INTERPARENTAL CONFLICT AND ADOLESCENT WELL- AND ILL-BEING

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The main aim of the present study was to examine the sequential mediating roles of perceived threat and self-blame cognitive appraisals and need frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and adolescent well- and ill-being. Participants were 224 Turkish adolescents aged between 14-17 years ( $M_{age} = 16.24$ , SD = 0.96). They completed the conflict properties as well as perceived threat and self-blame subscales of the Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale, Basic Psychological Need Frustration Subscale of Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction and Frustration Scale, The Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale, Short Form of the UCLA Loneliness Scale, Short Form of Oxford Happiness Questionnaire, and Brief Resilience Scale. The results of the serial multiple mediation analyses indicated that, in line with cognitive contextual framework and self-determination theory, perceived threat and self-blame cognitive appraisals and need frustration

sequentially played significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and both well-being outcomes as happiness and psychological resilience, and ill-being outcomes as depressive feelings and loneliness levels of adolescents. Results, limitations, future directions, strengths, and clinical implications of the present study were discussed in the light of related literature.

Keywords: Interparental conflict, perceived threat, self-blame, need frustration, well-being, ill-being.

#### ÖZET

#### EBEVEYNLER ARASI ÇATIŞMA İLE ERGENİN İYİ OLUŞ VE KÖTÜ OLUŞ HALİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİDE BİLİŞSEL DEĞERLENDİRMELERİN VE TEMEL PSİKOLOJİK İHTİYAÇLARIN ARACI ROLÜ

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Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, ebeveynler arası çatışma ile ergenin iyi oluş ve kötü oluş hali arasındaki ilişkide algılanan tehdit ve kendini suçlama bilişsel değerlendirmeleri ve temel psikolojik ihtiyaçların engellenmesinin seri aracı rollerinin incelenmesidir. Araştırmaya 14-17 yaş arası 224 Türk ergen ( $Ort_{yaş} = 16.24$ , S = 0.96) katılmış ve kendilerine Çocukların Algıladıkları Ebeveynler Arası Çatışma Ölçeği'nin çatışma özellikleri ile algılanan tehdit ve kendini suçlama alt ölçekleri, Temel Psikolojik İhtiyaçların Doyurulması ve Engellenmesi Ölçeği'nin temel psikolojik ihtiyaçların engellenmesi alt ölçeği, CES-Depresyon Ölçeği, UCLA Yalnızlık Ölçeği Kısa Formu, Oxford Mutluluk Ölçeği Kısa Formu ve Kısa Psikolojik Sağlamlık Ölçeği uygulanmıştır. Seri çoklu aracılık analizlerinin sonuçları, bilişsel bağlamsal çerçeve ve öz belirleme kuramı ile uyumlu olarak, ebeveynler arası çatışma ile ergenin hem mutluluk ve psikolojik sağlamlık gibi iyi oluş hali hem de depresif duygu durum ve

yalnızlık gibi kötü oluş hali arasındaki ilişkide, algılanan tehdit ve kendini suçlama bilişsel değerlendirmelerinin ve temel psikolojik ihtiyaçların engellenmesinin sıralı olarak anlamlı aracı rol oynadığını göstermiştir. Mevcut çalışmanın sonuçları, sınırlılıkları, ileride yapılacak olan çalışmalar için öneriler, güçlü yönleri ve klinik çıkarımları ilgili literatür ışığında tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Ebeveynler Arası Çatışma, Algılanan Tehdit, Kendini Suçlama, İhtiyaçların Engellenmesi, İyi Oluş Hali, Kötü Oluş Hali Dedicated to my lovely family

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#### **CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION**

In general sense, growth, adjustment, and sense of integration constitute the concept of well-being, which is a thing that human beings have a natural tendency. (Vansteenkiste, and Ryan, 2013). At the same time, they have vulnerabilities for illbeing characterized by maladaptive functioning, difficulty in thriving naturally, and having defensive attitudes (Vansteenkiste, and Ryan, 2013; Adams, Little, and Ryan, 2017). Which one is going to appear depends on the social environment and social context that one resides in (Ryan, and Deci, 2000). At that point, it can be said that, family environment is the most important factor in shaping the mental health of adolescents, because family is the first and chief agent for their socialization process (Xin, Chi, and Yu, 2009). Until today, various studies have investigated the association between the family environment quality and well- and ill-being of children and adolescents. Many of these studies specifically focused on conflictual family environment, especially the conflict between parents and its effect on children and adolescent adjustment (Kerig, 1996; Bradford, Vaughn, and Barber, 2008; Warmuth, Cummings, and Davies, 2020). Among them, there are some studies that take cognitive contextual framework as a guide and examine the relationship between perceived interparental conflict (IPC) which can be described as adolescents' subjective evaluations of the conflict between their parents, and their well-being. These studies have indicated that family environments characterized by frequent, intense and poorly resolved interparental conflict, may lead adolescents to develop psychological problems (Fosco, and Feinberg, 2015). Therefore, from the cognitive contextual framework point of view, properties of conflict as well as adolescents' appraisals of it are thought to be the main factors that may increase the probability of adolescent to experience maladjustment and ill-being (Fosco, and Bray, 2016). In line with this, cognitive appraisals can be described as adolescents' subjective interpretations of interparental conflict, specifically its meaning for them, with regards to its impact on their personal well-being (Grych, 1998). Two appraisals will be considered within this context as perceived threat and self-blame. Threat appraisals refer to the adolescents' belief and fear that the conflict may harm to themselves, one of their family members or the marriage of their parents (Grych, and Fincham, 1990). Self-blaming attributions refer to the belief that conflict between parents happens because of the adolescents, and adolescents feel responsibility for its occurrence (Grych, and Fincham, 1990).

Given that, a considerable number of scholars documented the intervening roles of cognitive appraisals in relationship between interparental conflict and adolescent well-being, no study examined the further possible intervening mechanisms within this relation. Therefore, guided by the self-determination theory, basic psychological needs have been considered as a possible mediating mechanism in addition to cognitive appraisals.

According to self-determination theory (SDT), satisfaction or frustration of the basic psychological needs has been seen as crucial resources needed by individuals for their natural tendency towards growth, adjustment and thriving that is, psychological well-being (Ryan, 1995; Ryan, 2009). Previous studies found significant relationships between satisfaction or frustration of basic psychological needs and well- and ill-being. However, because of the lack of adequate studies that examine the link between interparental conflict and need frustration (for an exception see Koçak et al., 2020), this relation and their cumulative role on adolescent well-being still have not been fully understood.

Therefore, the goal of the current study was to further advance cognitive contextual framework by drawing on self-determination theory to identify cognitive appraisals (i.e., perceived threat and self-blame) that may explain the link between interparental conflict and adolescent well- and ill-being. Therefore, guided by the self-determination theory, we tried to expand cognitive contextual framework by proposing a process by which adolescents' need frustration may also play a significant intervening role in relation between interparental conflict and adolescent well- and ill-being.

Throughout the parts of this chapter, interparental conflict, well- and ill-being, cognitive appraisals, and basic psychological needs will be described respectively with the related framework and theory as cognitive contextual framework and self-determination theory.

#### 1.1 Interparental Conflict (IPC)

In the socialization process, family is the chief and primary unit for adolescents to adjust the environment around them (Xin, Chi, and Yu, 2009). Until now, the importance of any kind of family factors on adolescents' well-being and psychological development has been revealed by many studies in the psychology literature. The quality of the relationship between parents is one of those factors and it has a

considerable influence over the interparental conflict quality and relatedly, mental health of children. Although continuous marital adjustment is seen as the ideal and desirable condition by everyone, experiencing conflict to a certain extent within a marital relationship is inevitable and not surprising as well (Grych, and Fincham 1990, Cummings, and Davies, 2002). It is important to keep in mind that, not all conflicts have detrimental effects on children and adolescents, rather certain conflicts may help them to learn healthy problem solving and coping strategies (Grych, and Fincham 1990). Therefore, it is more functional to understand when and how these conflicts become harmful for adolescents (Grych, and Fincham, 1993). The term interparental conflict (IPC) can be broadly defined as any kind of disagreements, arguments, disputes, and contentions occur between parents which arise from both daily life events and discordant expectations, purposes, wishes, and desires (Cummings, and Davies, 2002; Bradbury et al., 2000). In addition, it has been proposed by many scholars that, interparental conflict is a multidimensional construct as it can be overt or covert, destructive or constructive, and it contains sub dimensions like frequency, intensity, resolution, content, mode of expression, and chronicity (Grych, and Fincham, 1993; Davies, and Cummings, 1994; Bradford, Vaughn, and Barber, 2008; Grych, Oxtoby, and Lynn, 2012). Covert conflicts characterized by hostile and passive-aggressive attitude such as scapegoating and triangulating the child, whereas overt conflicts include direct manifestations of hostile attitude with screaming, humiliation, ridicule, hitting, and threatening (Buehler et al., 1997; Whittaker, and Bry, 1991). Moreover, destructive conflicts between parents are characterized by both physical, verbal aggression and violence towards each other or from one parent to another, breaking and throwing household goods, threats about damaging, divorcing, and leaving home (Cummings, and Davies, 2002). On the other hand, constructive conflicts are characterized by using effective conflict resolution techniques and explanations done by parents about the resolution of the conflict or causes of non-resolution with giving assurance that they will ultimately overcome the conflict and those conflicts are not an extreme threat for well-being of their family (Cummings, and Davies, 2002). As a result of constructive conflicts, children and adolescents may respond with more optimal and positive emotions like feeling safe and being happy, whereas as a result of destructive conflicts, children may show more maladaptive and negative emotions like being angry and feeling sad (McCoy et al., 2013). In this study, the operational definition of interparental conflict is made through the cognitive contextual

framework's point of view (Grych, and Fincham, 1990) that specifies the properties of conflict such as its frequency, intensity, and lack of resolution. According to the cognitive contextual framework, if the interparental conflict is frequent, intense, and poorly resolved, it may lead to adolescent maladjustment. Therefore, in this study, the interparental conflict has been conceptualized over destructive form of it.

#### 1.2 Well-being and Ill-being

Well-being is a sophisticated concept to delineate. However, in the light of two approaches as the hedonic approach and the eudaimonic approach, it can be defined as more comprehensively by capturing both the pleasure-based happiness and fullfunctionality (Ryan, 2009). Hedonic approach which is coming from philosophy of hedonism, holds the premise that, well-being is comprise of the subjective interpretations of good and bad parts of experiences in life, and subjective happiness (Ryan, and Deci, 2001). Therefore, it can be said that, pleasures and displeasures of life experiences shape the sense of well-being in humans. On the other hand, eudaimonic approach, which is coming from eudaimonism, argues that just happiness is not enough for conceptualizing well-being because some experiences or desires, no matter how pleasurable they are, do not create a state of well-being (Ryan, and Deci, 2001). Thus, well-being from this perspective is much more related to actualization of potentials and living in accordance with deeply relied on values (Waterman, 1993). From the hedonic point of view, happiness reflects subjective well-being, which manifests itself with more positive mood, life satisfaction, and absence of negativity (Diener, and Lucas, 1999). In this direction, throughout the past decade, subjective well-being has been accepted as the main indicator of well-being. On the contrary, eudaimonic view highlights full-functionality, vitality, aliveness, self- actualization, authenticity and personal growth that reflect psychological well-being as a broader construct (Waterman, 1993). Taking into account the research that has been done until today, it can be said that well-being is a multifaceted concept and it can be best understood by considering both the hedonic and the eudaimonic perspectives of wellbeing (Ryan, and Deci, 2001). Therefore, in this study, we decided to use happiness and psychological resilience as well-being indicators, loneliness and depression as illbeing indicators.

Previous research in the literature have robustly focused on possible antecedents of well-and ill-being. The greater part of them show that relationships characterized by trustworthy, safe, candid and supportive are related to well-being (Baumeister, and Leary, 1995; Lu, and Argyle, 2007; Goswami, 2012). For instance, happiness and psychological resilience are found to be mostly influenced by relatedness and the quality of relationships (Myers, 1999; Argyle, 2001; Nezlek, 2000). According to them, more balanced, satisfying relationships and relationships in which one can feel secure are common features for sense of well-being. Especially, quality of family ties and functioning, and how people relate to each other in family are the most critical and important factors for subjective well-being of children and adolescents which is characterized by happiness and satisfaction with life (Goswami, 2012; Kasser, and Ryan, 1999). On the other hand, loneliness was found negatively correlated with positive mood and sense of well-being. For example, increases in interactions with friends, romantic partners, neighbors, and relatives reduce loneliness and in turn, may lead people to feel more alive (Lee, and Ishii-Kuntz, 1987; Spithoven et al., 2017). Additionally, people's perspective on life is affected by increases in loneliness, in that they usually become more pessimistic and indifferent about life (Rokach, and Neto, 2000). By examining depressive feelings alone, one of the previous research showed that depressive feelings are associated with any type of discord in family and hostile behaviors of family members towards each other (Rey, and Birmaher, 2009).

In addition to possible antecedents stated above, compatibly with the outcomes of the current study, there is an extensive literature that have specifically investigated the relationship of interparental conflict with depressive feelings, loneliness, happiness and psychological resilience. For instance, Katz and Low (2004) have found that interparental conflict and especially marital violence is associated with the depressive feelings and anxiety symptoms of children. As a support to this finding, Harold, Osborne, and Conger (1997) also showed that adolescents' perception of interparental conflict is related with internalizing problems such as depressive feelings and anxiety symptoms. Moreover, Johnson, Joseph, and Mahoney (2001) have demonstrated that increased interparental conflict and diminished family cohesion are related to greater feelings of loneliness among adolescents. They further stated that perceived interparental conflict undermines adolescents' ability to get involved in social interactions outside the home. Additionally, Koss et al. (2011) have focused on emotional states of children pertinent to their experience of interparental conflict and showed that calm and resolved interparental conflict is associated with increased

happiness among children. Lastly, it is argued that higher levels of interparental conflict is related to increased psychological difficulties experienced by children (Emery, 1982) and therefore, Emery and Forehand (1996) stated that increased interparental conflict is a risk factor that obstructs children's resilience.

Considerable number of studies' documentation of the relation between interparental conflict and adjustment of children and adolescents that mentioned above, pave the way for the question that asks why such an association is in existence. At that point, there are various frameworks that have been trying to answer this question. One of them is the cognitive contextual framework and it puts forward cognitive appraisals to explain the underlying mechanism in the link between interparental conflict and well-and ill-being of children and adolescents.

#### 1.3 Cognitive Contextual Framework and Cognitive Appraisals

As stated above, although the role of interparental conflict on adolescent well- and illbeing has been previously studied, cognitive contextual framework (Grych, and Fincham, 1990) guides us about the detrimental role of frequent, intense, and inadequately resolved interparental conflict on adolescent well- and ill-being (Emery, 1982; Buehler et al., 1997; Grych, and Fincham, 1990; Fosco, and Bray, 2016). According to cognitive contextual framework, frequency can be defined as repeatedly and persistently being exposed to interparental conflict. It could have two possible consequences, as desensitization to interparental conflict may be experienced by adolescents which may in turn, result in fewer adjustment problems (Grych, and Finham, 1990). In contrast to this, adolescents may become sensitive to interparental conflict which leads them to show greater maladaptive functioning. Intensity can be defined as a continuum that includes calm discussions on the one end, and physical violence on the other end (Grych, 1998; Grych, and Fincham, 1990). Besides, the level of hostility and negative affect showed by each parent are relevant to the intensity dimension of conflict (Grych, 1998). According to evidences from previous research, conflicts that incorporate physical aggression are more afflicting for children and relatedly, more relevant to adjustment problems in contrast to less intense conflicts (Cummings et al., 1989; Grych, and Fincham, 1993; Grych, 1998). Lastly, as one of the other conflict properties, resolution is about whether the conflicts have been successfully resolved or not. Lack of resolution or non-optimal resolution may lead conflict and related tension to be continue as well as recur more frequently, however effectively resolved conflicts will become a model for children and help them to develop convenient coping strategies together with problem-solving skills (Grych, and Fincham, 1990).

Cognitive Contextual Framework gives explanations to how interparental conflict along with these dimensions give rise to adverse effects and related adjustment problems for adolescents (Grych, and Fincham, 1993). Grych and Fincham (1990) suggested that meaning of interparental conflict for children, in other words their subjective interpretations of it may determine how they respond to conflict and the degree of stress they experience. These evaluations can be defined as cognitive appraisals and they represent a process in which adolescents construe the probable impact of an occurring event for their well-being (Lazarus, 1991). According to cognitive contextual framework, this process involves both affect and cognition because it accepts cognition and affect as interdependent constructs that have a reciprocal and a dynamic relationship (Grych, and Fincham, 1990; Grych and Fincham, 1993). When children first notice the conflict is going on, their initial affective response is activated which in turn, can shape their evaluations and judgements about the conflict (Grych, and Cardoza-Fernandes, 2001). Therefore, Grych, Oxtoby, and Lynn (2012) stated that together they shape the primary processing of conflict for children in which they attempt to understand what is happening. Then, primary processing gives rise to secondary processing, in which children attempt to make inferences about why conflict is happening, who is responsible and what they can do in the face of this (Gerard et al., 2005). Unlike other models that try to explain this issue, cognitive contextual framework gives more importance to cognitive aspects of the appraisal process and specifies three appraisals as perceived threat, self-blame, and coping efficacy (Grych, Seid, and Fincham, 1992; Grych, and Fincham, 1993). Perceived threat reflects adolescent's belief that interparental conflict will escalate, damage oneself or one of family members, lead to involvement in conflict, and cause divorce or some kind of loss that threaten the integrity of family (Atkinson et al., 2009; Gerard et al., 2005; Grych, Seid, and Fincham, 1992). That's why, it is about the evaluation of potential harm to general family functioning that might arise because of the interparental conflict (Fosco et al., 2007). Self-blaming attribution is related to the adolescents' efforts to understand why a conflict is taking place, and arise when they believe that they are the cause of interparental conflict as well as responsible for its

resolution (Fosco, DeBoard, and Grych, 2007; Grych et al., 2000). Lastly, coping efficacy can be defined as youth's belief that they can successfully deal with interparental conflict and overcome its related adverse impacts (Grych, Harold and Miles, 2003; Gerard et al., 2005). Given that perceived threat and self-blame have been taken more attention in the literature as the leading indicators of cognitive appraisals, in the current study, perceived threat and self-blame appraisals have been considered as indicators of cognitive appraisals.

The question is what factors influence the degree of threat and self-blame experienced by adolescents because in some situations, they perceive more threat or blame themselves more in comparison with other situations. At that point, Grych and Fincham (1990) proposed that these appraisals of conflict are shaped by the properties of conflict (e.g., frequency, intensity, and lack of resolution), contextual factors (e.g., prior conflict experiences in family), as well as developmental level of children. To illustrate, Grych and Fincham (1993) argued that less intense conflicts are not that much affectively compelling for children and they think that, they can cope with these conflicts more effectively than high-intensity conflicts characterized by higher levels of verbal and physical aggression. Additionally, when the content of conflict is related to them, although they blame themselves, they feel higher coping efficacy because knowing their role as a cause for conflict makes them think that they can also be able to end the discussion. Therefore, despite feeling guilty, children think that they have control over interparental conflict (Gerard et al., 2005). Moreover, high intensity conflicts that include rage and hostility lead children to blame themselves more (Grych, and Fincham, 1993) together with unfavorable emotions (Cummings et al., 1989). This is because when interparental conflict become more aggressive and hostile, with the aim of protect one of their parents or cease the conflict, children may wish and feel compelled to resolve the conflict, nonetheless blame themselves when they face their inadequacy to do so (Grych et al., 2000). Sometimes, adolescents who perceive high level of threat for their safety may not want to be involved in the conflict (Grych, and Fincham, 1993). Even if they do not want to be involved, they may feel responsible to do so because they view themselves as the cause of the conflict. As a consequence of their involvement, they may get harmed psychologically or physically and their threat appraisals might increase (Fincham & Osborne, 1993). As another probability, they may choose not to involve, but this time they might blame themselves

for not taking action to resolve the conflict (Grych, and Fincham, 1993). Thus, it can be said that self-blaming is an inevitable condition in the face of interparental conflict. The other explanation propounded for increases in self-blame attributions regarding child related conflict contents was because they lead children to evaluate themselves for their misdemeanor (Grych, 1998; Grych, and Fincham, 1993). In contrast, witnessing that interparental conflict is resolved, prevents child from perceiving threat because the child thinks that the conflicts in relationships can be usually successfully resolved (Grych, 1998). However, the issue of how the conflict is resolved is just as important as its resolution because children pay more attention to the negative emotions expressed in this resolution process (Shifflett-Simpson, and Cummings, 1996).

Considering contextual factors, children who have grown up experiencing interparental conflict, perceive greater threat and lower coping efficacy when interparental conflict occurs (Grych, 1998). This situation is related to sensitization effect, which can be defined as expectations of children regarding to the process of interparental conflict that it will increase with excessive rage, aggression and hostility (Grych, and Fincham, 1993). Therefore, it can be said that prior exposure to interparental conflict has considerable impact on threat appraisals of children and adolescents. In addition, not just interparental conflict history, but also parent-child conflict history of children that includes aggression affects their threat appraisals when they expose to interparental conflict because they have already had an idea about how both parents behave when they are nervous, and they are afraid that the anger and hostility will turn towards them (Grych, 1998). In contrast, threat perceived from interparental conflict is in tendency to decrease when children have close and warm relationships with one or both of the parents (Davies, and Cummings, 1994; DeBoard-Lucas et al., 2010). This argument is compromise with Bowlby's (1973) theory, which argues that securely attach children are not that much vulnerable to family related issues involving emotional distress like permanent and excessive fear. Furthermore, self-blaming attributions are also shaped by the nature of parent-child relationships, and children are more prone to blame the parent with whom they have more distant relationship rather than blaming themselves or the other parent (Grych, 1998). Considering emotional climate of the family, Fosco and Grych (2007) showed that, in family environments where positive emotions are disregarded and negative emotions

dominate, children tend to make more self-blaming attributions. Apart from all these, adolescents who have witnessed divorce may experience various unique situations that creates excessive stress for them such as triangulation or separation from one parent (Grych, and Fincham 1990). Therefore, in the present study, since the importance of contextual factors has been well-recognized, we incorporated only adolescents from intact families with the aim of preventing the occurrence of possible effects that may arise because of the differences in experiences of adolescent from intact and divorced families.

Paying attention to the developmental level, evidences show that in the face of interparental conflict, degree of fear expressed by adolescents are less than young children and also adolescents are able to produce multiple coping strategies in comparison with pre-adolescents (Davies, Myers, and, Cummings, 1996). Since cognitive development progress with age (Piaget, 1964), younger children experience difficulties to make sense of interparental conflict and accordingly, they tend to make unrealistic inferences from it (Grych, 1998). Besides, it is known that sophisticated cognitive abilities needed for secondary processing and therefore, reactions showed by younger children in the face of interparental conflict may represent merely primary processing (Grych, 1990). Interrelatedly with this, younger children may tend to blame themselves more and feel responsible for the occurrence of interparental conflict because of basic features of their developmental level as egocentrism and inability to taking perspective (Grych, 1998; Light, 1983). In the light of these information, we decided to work with adolescents in this study. According to the data of the TÜSEB, considering the average age range of high school students in Turkey, individuals who are between 14 to 17 years old were selected as the participants of this study.

### 1.4 Cognitive Appraisals as an Underlying Mechanism in Relation Between Interparental Conflict and Well- and Ill-being

Although the relationship between frequent, intense, and inadequately resolved interparental conflict and adolescent well-being is well documented (Buehler et al., 1997; Davies, and Cummings, 1994; Grych, and Fincham, 1993; Grych, and Fincham 1990; Grych, Seid, and Fincham, 1992), cognitive contextual framework guides us about the possible intervening mechanisms in relation between interparental conflict and adolescent well-being. Both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies have demonstrated that appraisals of perceived threat and self-blame mediate this

relationship between interparental conflict and well- and ill-being of children and adolescents by leading to greater internalizing and externalizing problems (Kim et al., 2008; Grych et al., 2000; Fosco, and Bray, 2016; Fosco and Lydon-Staley, 2019). Moreover, it was argued that longer-term adjustments of children are affected by those appraisals in many different ways (Grych et al., 2000). For instance, children who frequently witness interparental conflict and perceive it threatening may permanently concern about well-being of themselves, their parents, and stability of their family. In addition, in the presence of interparental conflict, children who blame themselves for causing it may feel shame and guilt that lead to weakened self-esteem. Likewise, feeling of helplessness and relatedly occurring symptoms of internalizing problems may develop, if children continuously perceive interparental conflict as threatening, feel that they are responsible for its occurrence, but they are incapable of resolving it (Atkinson et al., 2009; Harold, Osborne, and Conger, 1997; Fosco, and Grych, 2008). Fosco and Feinberg (2015) carried out a longitudinal study to investigate longitudinal impacts of interparental conflict on adolescents' adjustment. By incorporating perceived threat as a mediator, they examined the relationship between interparental conflict and adolescents' emotional distress as well as subjective well-being as happiness and satisfaction with life. They found that perceived threat is not directly or indirectly related to diminished subjective well-being, however they showed that adolescents live in homes where intense and frequent interparental conflict dominates perceive greater threat and in turn, high levels of threat predicted more emotional distress both directly and indirectly. Findings of this study is consistent with a longitudinal study of Grych, Harold, and Miles (2003) in which the researchers examined the same mediational pathway, as they showed that hostile and poorly resolved conflict predicted increased levels of threat appraisals and self-blaming attributions; in turn, threat appraisals found to predict depressive feelings but not problem behaviors. Nevertheless, self-blame appraisal predicted increased levels of problem behaviors. As a support of these findings, Fosco and Bray (2016) conducted a study with adolescents who are between 14 to 19 years, and they showed that threat appraisals consistently make contribution to the development of depressive feelings and anxiety symptoms. Another study that tested the intervening roles of appraisals from the cognitive contextual framework stated that, perceived threat is a strong mediator of higher levels of anxiety and depressive feelings but not of aggressive behaviors, whereas self-blame appraisal predicts both aggressive behaviors together with depressive feelings and anxiety symptoms (Fosco, and Grych, 2008). Furthermore, Gerard et al. (2005) examined more complex pathway among interparental conflict and children's internalizing and externalizing problems, and they found that threat appraisal is significantly associated with problem behaviors of children through self-blame appraisals which provides support for Grych and Fincham's (1990) argument that, children first take part in primary processing in which they asses the threat posed by the conflict, and then they go through secondary processing to make inferences about the cause of the conflict and how to cope with it. Lastly, it was propounded that not just in childhood and adolescence period, but also in emerging adulthood period, being exposed to interparental conflict is a potential risk factor for psychological distress (Özdemir, and Sağkal, 2019). In their study, Özdemir and Sağkal (2019) demonstrated that threat appraisals and self-blaming attributions fully mediate the link between interparental conflict and level of psychological distress experienced by emerging adults. That is to say, frequent, intense, and inadequately resolved interparental conflict lies behind higher levels of perceived threat and selfblame, which in turn produce greater levels of psychological distress. In the light of related literature, we thought that there may be some other factors together with cognitive appraisals that may explain the precise underlying mechanisms in the link between interparental conflict and well- and ill-being. Therefore, to exactly touch on gaps in understanding the psychological processes underlying cognitive contextual framework, we decided to make use of self-determination theory as a guide for describing how and why interparental conflict together with cognitive appraisals may be associated with well- and ill-being of adolescents.

#### 1.5 Self-Determination Theory

Self-determination theory is a holistic and organismic theory, influenced by theorists such as Rogers and Piaget, and it states that people have an innate tendency to grow and develop psychologically as active organisms (Ryan, 2009). People have intrinsic motivation that is, an inclination to start and learn new things, and willingness to experience these things for its own sake (Ryan, 2009; Deci, and Ryan, 2012). Also, they have an innate ability to act accordingly with the extrinsic motivators, in other words, integrate social values and practices with the help of introjection and identification (Legault, 2017; Ryan, 2009). Nevertheless, people can sometimes collapse spiritually, refuse to grow and develop, and become apathetic, isolated, and

unamenable (Ryan, and Deci, 2000). No matter how natural all these inherent tendencies are, biological factors alone are not sufficient to influence human functioning because what comes from the social environment and context that one resides in, is very important for fostering these natural tendencies (Ryan, and Deci, 2000). According to self-determination theory, the things that one receives from social environment should satisfy basic psychological needs because their satisfaction ensures well-being which can be described as vitality, growth, integrity, optimal development and functioning. In other respects, thwarting of these needs lead to illbeing which can be described as pathological or maladaptive functioning, and lessened motivation for psychological growth. Moreover, self-determination theory argues that at different developmental periods as well as in various social environments such as school, family, friendships and places of business, even though the conditions that contribute well-being are not equally valued, frustration of them lead to unintended consequences for human psychology (Ryan, and Deci, 2001). Thus, considering SDT research, it can be said that whether the basic psychological needs are satisfied or frustrated, it is associated with well-being or ill-being. As seen, self-determination theory emphasizes need fulfillment and relatedly, put forward basic universal psychological needs as need for autonomy, relatedness and competence (Ryan, and Deci, 2000). According to the theory, fulfillment of each need induces toward enhanced psychological wellness, vitality, mental health, human functioning and motivation however, when fulfillment of these needs is prevented, opposite effects show up in terms of well-being which is called ill-being (Vansteenkiste, and Ryan, 2013).

#### 1.6 Basic Psychological Needs

In daily life, the term "need" often refers to one's desires and wishes which are seen as lacking or damaged in their lives (Vansteenkiste, Ryan, and Soenens, 2020). In social sciences, needs can be classified as physiological and psychological needs. Food, water, and sex stated as innate physiological needs by drive theory of Hull (1943). According to him, these needs must be satisfied for physical health. Likewise, self-determination theory also specifies innate needs, but distinctly from Hull's theory, they are psychological needs which are basic and necessary for psychological well-being of individuals (Patrick et al., 2007). However, although the main focus is on these psychological needs, it does not completely disregard physiological needs, and

states that psychological needs and physiological needs are in a dynamic relationship with each other (Vansteenkiste, Ryan, and Soenens, 2020). Therefore, from self-determination theory perspective, needs are described as

"innate psychological nutriments that are essential for ongoing psychological growth, integrity, and well-being" (Deci, and Ryan, 2000, p. 229).

As mentioned above, self-determination theory specifies three basic psychological needs as autonomy, relatedness, and competence which when satisfied contribute to growth, integration, flourishing, and well-being; when frustrated lead to maladaptive or pathological functioning, fragmentation, and ill-being (Ryan, and Deci, 2000; Ryan, 2009; Vansteenkiste, and Ryan, 2013). These are essential needs for individuals from their birth to death, and need-supportive environments are beneficial even for babies, regardless of their lack cognitive and conscious processing (Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, and Soenens, 2010). In addition, basic psychological need theory claims that these needs are universal in nature, and this claim was supported with a study conducted across four countries, which showed that regardless of culture and individual differences, satisfaction of these three basic needs is necessary for optimal functioning (Chen et al., 2015). However, the ways and manners used for need fulfillment may vary across cultures, or depending on the personalities and developmental histories of individuals (Vansteenkiste, Ryan, and Soenens, 2020). Considering this issue, it can be said that basic need satisfaction will still generate healthy outcomes and basic need frustration will still lead to costs regardless of such differences and variations (Yu, Levesque-Bristol, and Maeda, 2018). Furthermore, also expression of these basic needs may differ from culture to culture and person to person, because need satisfaction is somewhat determined by integration and internalization of values which are accepted as appropriate from one's culture (Ryan, and Deci, 2000; Lynch, 2010). Thus, expressions of need for competence, autonomy and relatedness may vary within cultures that possess and give importance to different values.

Specifically, need for competence indicates a sense of having influence on the environment that one interacts, and accordingly experiencing a sense of efficacy and mastery (Vansteenkisste, Niemiec, and Soenens, 2010; Martela, and Sheldon, 2019). Need for relatedness is about experiencing meaningful relationships with significant others in which one feels a deep bond with care, affection and love (Baumeister, and

Leary, 1995; Vansteenkisste, Niemiec, and Soenens, 2010). Lastly, need for autonomy can be described as the experience of volition and self-governance, in that one regulates his own behavior, makes choices, and acts accordingly. (Ryan, and Deci, 2006; Legault, 2017). The operationalization process of three basic needs dates back to early 90s. To illustrate, for sense of autonomy and competence, Maslow (1996) theorized that within the scope of esteem needs, feeling of accomplishment, recognition of that accomplishment by others, feeling of independence and freedom while making choices and decisions, and herewith feeling competent and autonomous contribute one's self-confidence and self-esteem. Moreover, Bandura's (1977) study about self-efficacy has demonstrated that, believing in yourself about attaining expected consequence is a significant indicator of psychological well-being. Need to relate with someone was another topic that has been extensively studied by researchers from early years to today. In addition to esteem need, Maslow (1996) also included needs of love and belonging in his theory, which states that feeling belonged to someone or a group, and also feeling loved and accepted by others are important issues for both physical and psychological wellness. In addition to that, Baumeister and Leary (1995) mentioned need to belong as a desire for interpersonal attachments. According to them, lack of it results in some unwanted consequences like health and adjustment problems. Moreover, Watson (1988) found that both in between-subject and withinsubject analyses, people who engage in social activities with others around them experience higher positive affect.

In the light of basic psychological need theory, it can be said that, environments that support need satisfaction contribute to growth, integrity, and well-being toward which humans have a natural tendency; and environments that thwart needs or prevent sufficiently satisfaction of them lead to maladaptive functioning and ill-being for which humans have vulnerabilities (Vansteenkiste, and Ryan, 2013). Therefore, self-determination theory gives great importance to the quality of environment which has a considerable impact on how much these three basic needs satisfied (Legault, 2017). Ryan (1995) stated that, just like herbs, flowers, and trees need water and sunlight to grow and blossom, people need their basic needs to be satisfied for their thriving at social, psychological and physiological levels. Although, low satisfaction of competence, relatedness and autonomy needs can restrain this growth process, most detrimental and pathogenic outcomes occur when these needs are frustrated, which can

be defined as inhibition of these needs within social context and environment (Vansteenkiste, and Ryan, 2013). To exemplify, an adolescent may feel not much relatedness with his friends at school and therefore, have less happiness and motivation for going to school. However, an adolescent also may expose to peer victimization at school and thus, may feel acute stress, severe depression and anxiety symptoms. This distinction is important because low need satisfaction does not necessarily indicate the existence of need frustration in which needs are actively damaged, however need frustration includes low satisfaction of needs (Vansteenkiste, and Ryan, 2013; Vansteenkiste, Ryan, and Soenens, 2020). Regarding this, whereas the effects of low need satisfaction appear over time, this time course is greatly accelerated with need frustration (Vansteenkiste, and Ryan, 2013). In short, self-determination theory classifies social environments as need supportive, need depriving, and need thwarting (Vansteenkiste, and Ryan, 2013). That is to say, parents in family, teachers in school, colleagues and bosses in workplace, and also society can enhance satisfaction of needs or can be uninterested to, and antagonistic toward these needs because they all vary in extent to which they satisfy or frustrate basic psychological needs. The importance of quality of the context have illustrated by several studies. Chirkov, and Ryan (2001) stated that both for Russian and U.S. adolescents, perceived autonomy support predicts greater academic self-motivation and well-being. Besides, another research showed that, parental attitudes like guilt-induction, invalidation of feelings, and lovewithdrawal have related to increased depressive feelings (Soenens et al., 2008). In brief, social contexts that are including interparental conflict which lead the adolescents to blame themselves or perceive threat at the face of conflict, less autonomy-supportive and more controlling, ill-structured, humiliating and disordered, uncandid and careless thwart individual's need satisfaction which in turn associated with diminished well-being (Vansteenkiste, Niemiec, and Soenens, 2016). Since the family environment characterized by frequent, intense and poorly resolved interparental conflict is a need thwarting context, it can be said that interparental conflict may frustrate adolescents' needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness both directly and by means of cognitive appraisals of perceived threat and self-blame, and as it is well-known fact that frustration of basic psychological needs is related to ill-being and decrement in well-being.

### 1.7 The Role of Basic Psychological Need Frustration as a Further Intervening Mechanism in Relation among Interparental Conflict, Cognitive Appraisals, Well-Being, and Ill-Being

The effects and mediating role of need frustration in terms of well- and ill-being outcomes have been investigated so far by many studies at various contexts. For instance, a study examining psychological functioning of athletes and sport coaches indicated that, after controlling for need satisfaction, need frustrating situations have found to predict ill-being outcomes such as negative affect, burnout, disordered eating, physical and depressive feelings among athletes (Bartholomew et al., 2011). Moreover, at work settings, people who are experiencing more need satisfaction have higher levels of self-esteem and work engagement (Deci et al., 2001). Additionally, at universities, diary studies showed that decline in daily psychological need satisfaction have an association with negative mood and unsettling physical symptoms among university students mostly consist of emerging adults (Reis, et al., 2000). When considering longitudinal studies, they have shown that controlling parenting characterized by overprotection or coercion rather than autonomy supportive parenting, puts children at risk for anxiety problems (Laurin et al., 2015). Supporting these studies, it was found that rather than autonomy support, maternal control characterized by high level of power assertion predicted greater physical aggression among children (Joussemet et al., 2008). Besides, Kasser and Ryan (1999), examined the effects of autonomy and relatedness needs on health and well-being in nursinghome residents. They showed that, support for autonomy from friends, family, and working staff as well as keeping in contact with them are related to greater well-being, aliveness, energy, vitality and decreased levels of depression and anxiety which in turn negatively predict mortality.

Lastly, considering the studies conducted on adolescents, fulfillment of basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, relatedness, and identity formation have been found to predict each other reciprocally and furthermore, significant paths from satisfaction of needs to identity formation were found to be much stronger (Luyckx, et al., 2009). Another research showed that, need-supportive parenting had an influence on adolescent's emotional and cognitive aspects of empathy in that, need supporting parenting has been found to predict changes in perspective taking among sons and daughters in time (Miklikowska, Duriez, and Soenens, 2011). Moreover,

adolescents whose parents give importance to and pave the way for their authentic inner compass which is a concept defined as knowing what intrinsically valued, needed or desired, and acting accordingly while making decisions were found to report greater well-being (Assor et al., 2020). This issue was also supported by findings of another study. Soenens et al. (2007), indicated that adolescents who perceive their parents' support for stating their own preferences, taking action in accord with personal values and desires rather than perceiving support for their independence and self-reliance, found to report more psychological well-being. Apart from this, the strong positive association between psychological adjustment and experiences of relatedness has been supported by many studies (Rohner, 2004). However, experiences like parental conditional regard in which autonomy is sacrificed for the sake of love and affection were found to be associated with negative outcomes for adolescents like intense feelings of anger and resentment, fragile and unstable self-esteem (Assor, Roth, and Deci, 2004). Along with giving conditional regard, parents' attitudes such as guiltinduction to make their children dependent on them predicted more depressive feelings (Soenens, Vansteenkiste, and Luyten, 2010). All in all, the three basic psychological needs do not constitute an explanation for everything because other possible explanations like genetics and neurobiological processes on well- and ill-being of individuals are undeniable (Ryan, and Deci, 2017). Even so, how people are affected by the situations they encounter in social life are strongly influenced by need dynamics (Ryan, 1995).

In conclusion, as mentioned above, we took cognitive contextual framework and related studies as a guide that primarily gives importance to cognitive processes rather than affective processes in the face of interparental conflict situations and demonstrates that perceived threat and self-blame cognitive appraisals mediate the association between interparental conflict and well-and ill-being of children and adolescents (Fosco, and Feinberg, 2015; Fosco, and Lydon-Staley, 2019). Therefore, considering studies based on cognitive contextual framework and previous findings about basic psychological needs, in the light of self-determination theory, we think that cognitive appraisals would predict basic psychological needs and they would have sequential intervening roles in explaining the link between interparental conflict and well- and ill-being of adolescents.

#### 1.8 Aim of the Present Study and Hypotheses

In the literature that was summarized above, it is demonstrated that the relationship between interparental conflict and well- and ill-being has been investigated and explained by many studies. However, there are limited studies that explain this link from the cognitive contextual framework point of view by taking cognitive appraisals as mediators. Together with this, there is no study that also takes self-determination theory as a guide and explain this mediational pathway by including a second mediator which is need frustration into the stated relations. Although most of the research that guided by cognitive contextual framework and investigated the association between interparental conflict and adjustment have found that cognitive appraisals significantly mediated this association (Fosco, and Lydon-Staley, 2019; Grych et al., 2000), the aim of this paper is to further investigate why adolescents who perceive threat and selfblame as a result of experiencing interparental conflict are showing adjustment problems. Until today, research have examined children's and adolescent's beliefs about the reasons, grounds, and possible consequences of interparental conflict, however presented no explanation about why adolescents who are perceiving more threat and self-blame may experience heightened ill-being and diminished wellbeing. Therefore, in the light of self-determination theory, this research is making an expansion on cognitive contextual framework by proposing that need frustration further mediates this link between interparental conflict and well- and ill-being.

As stated above, distinctly from previous studies, we tested the sequential intervening roles of cognitive appraisals and need frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and well- and ill-being. Given that we conducted the present study on Turkish adolescents, these findings have important implications for the generalizability of cognitive contextual framework and self-determination theory propositions in a non-Western, Turkish sample of adolescents. Therefore, the current study extends earlier research on predominantly Western families' children. In addition, our sample consists of individuals from middle adolescence period. However, generally, previous research focused on children rather than adolescents. Lastly, different from most of the studies, we examined ill-being of adolescents by measuring it directly and separately from well-being. Therefore, both of them were examined in the same study individually.

In accordance with the literature and the aim of this study, hypotheses of the current study were stated as follows:

H<sub>1</sub>: Interparental conflict would positively predict perceived threat and self-blame appraisals of adolescents.

H<sub>2</sub>: Interparental conflict would positively predict basic psychological need frustration of adolescents.

H<sub>3</sub>: Interparental conflict would negatively predict happiness and psychological resilience levels of adolescents.

H<sub>4</sub>: Interparental conflict would positively predict depressive feelings and loneliness levels of adolescent.

H<sub>5</sub>: Perceived threat and self-blame appraisals would positively predict basic psychological need frustration of adolescents.

H<sub>6</sub>: Perceived threat and self-blame appraisals would negatively predict happiness and psychological resilience levels of adolescent.

H<sub>7</sub>: Perceived threat and self-blame appraisals would positively predict depressive feelings and loneliness levels of adolescents.

H<sub>8</sub>: Basic psychological need frustration would negatively predict happiness and psychological resilience levels of adolescents

H<sub>9</sub>: Basic psychological need frustration would positively predict depressive feelings and loneliness levels of adolescents.

H<sub>10</sub>: Perceived threat and basic psychological need frustration would sequentially play significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and well-being outcomes as happiness and psychological resilience of adolescents.

H<sub>11</sub>: Perceived threat and basic psychological need frustration would sequentially play significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and ill-being outcomes as depressive feelings and loneliness levels of adolescents.

H<sub>12</sub>: Self-blame and basic psychological need frustration would sequentially play significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and well-being outcomes as happiness and psychological resilience of adolescents.

H<sub>13</sub>: Self-blame and basic psychological need frustration would sequentially play significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and ill-being outcomes as depressive feelings and loneliness levels of adolescents.

Secondary hypothesis of the present study:

H<sub>14</sub>: Interparental conflict, perceived threat and self-blame cognitive appraisals, basic psychological need frustration, depressive feelings, loneliness, happiness and psychological resilience levels of adolescents would differ by gender.

H<sub>15</sub>: There would be significant relations among interparental conflict, perceived threat and self-blame cognitive appraisals, basic psychological need frustration, depressive feelings, loneliness, happiness, and psychological resilience levels of adolescents.

#### **CHAPTER 2: METHOD**

This chapter includes demographic information of the participants, procedure, measures, and statistical analyses.

#### 2.1 Participants

A total of 262 adolescents with a mean age of 16.28 and a standard deviation of 0.98 voluntarily participated in the current study. Among the participants 69.8% of them were females and 30.2% of them were males. They were attending ninth, tenth, eleventh or twelfth grades. According to the inclusion criteria, thirty-five individuals whose parents were not married or not living together, and who are younger than 14 years old or older than 17 years old, were excluded from the study. Additionally, since the assumptions for normality have revealed that three participants had outlier values in multiple scales, they have been excluded from the study as well. Thus, analyses were conducted with a total of 224 adolescents ( $M_{age} = 16.24$ , SD = 0.96). Among 224 participants, while 154 of them (68.8%) were girls, 70 of them (31.3%) were boys. All of the participants were living with their intact families mostly in metropolis at the time of data collection. In terms of grade, 54 adolescents were attending 9<sup>th</sup> grade (24.1%), 56 of them to 10<sup>th</sup> grade (25%), and 114 of them to 11<sup>th</sup> grade (50.9%). With respect to perceived socioeconomic status, 3 (1.3%) participants reported their income level as low, 27 (12.1%) participants as below the middle-income level, 122 (54.5%) participants as middle-income level, 61 (27.2%) participants as above the middleincome level, and 11 (4.9%) participants as high-income level. Therefore, it can be deduced that majority of the adolescents perceived their socioeconomic status as middle-income level. In terms of the working status of mothers and fathers of adolescents, while 95 (42.4%) mothers and 196 (87.5%) fathers were currently working at a job, 129 (57.6%) mothers and 28 (12.5%) fathers were not actively working at a job. Regarding to sibling numbers of the participants, the number of participants who were only child was 34 (15.2%); the number of participants who had one sibling was 117 (52.2%); two siblings was 51 (22.8%); three siblings was 17 (7.6%); four siblings was 1 (0.4%); five and more siblings was 4 (1.7%). Therefore, it can be said that the greater part of the adolescents in the study had one sibling. Lastly, in respect to parent's education levels, most of the mothers (37.9%) and fathers (35.7%) graduated from high-school.

The descriptive of sociodemographic information about the participants is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. The Sociodemographic Information of the Participants.

Variables		N	(%)	M	SD
Age		224		16.24	0.95
Gender					
	Female	154	68.8		
	Male	70	31.3		
Grade					
	9 <sup>th</sup>	54	24.1		
	10 <sup>th</sup>	56	25.0		
	11 <sup>th</sup>	114	50.9		
Number of siblings					
	Only child	35	15.4		
	1	117	52.2		
	2	51	22.8		
	3	17	7.6		
	4	1	0.4		
	5+	4	1.7		
Birth order					
	Only child	34	15.2		
	First	89	35.3		
	Second	80	35.7		
	Third	24	10.7		
	Fourth	5	2.2		
	Fifth	2	0.9		
Perceived SES					
	Low-income level	3	1.3		
	Below the middle-income	27	12.1		
	level				
	Middle-income level	122	54.5		
	Above the middle-income	61	27.2		
	level				

Table 1. (continued)

,			
	High-income level	11	4.9
Working status of			
mothers			
	Yes	95	42.4
	No	129	57.6
Working status of			
fathers			
	Yes	196	87.5
	No	28	12.5
<b>Education levels of</b>			
mothers			
	Below the high school	61	27.3
	High school	85	37.9
	Above the high school	78	34.9
<b>Education levels of</b>			
fathers			
	Below the high school	53	23.7
	High School	80	35.7
	Above the high school	91	40.6

Note. SES = Socioeconomic status

### 2.2 Measures

In the data collection of the present study, Demographic Information Form (see Appendix D), conflict properties subscale of the Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC) (see Appendix E), perceived threat and self-blame subscales of The Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC) (see Appendix F), Basic Psychological Need Frustration Subscale of Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction and Frustration Scale (BPNSNF) (see Appendix G), The Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D-10) (see Appendix H), Short Form of the UCLA Loneliness Scale (ULS-8) (see Appendix I), Short Form of Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (OHQ-SF) (See Appendix J), and Brief Resilience Scale (BRS) (see Appendix K) were used. They will be explained in detail in the following section.

#### 2.2.1 Demographic Information Form

This form consists of questions about adolescents' gender, date of birth, grade, family status, and perception of socioeconomic level of their family. Moreover, questions cover the information about parents, number of siblings, birth order, information about other people apart from parents and siblings who are currently living in their home.

## 2.2.2 The Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC)

The children's perception of interparental conflict scale designed for children and young people aged between 9 and 25 years (Grych et al., 1992; Moura et al., 2010) was developed by Grych, Seid, and Fincham (1992) and adapted to Turkish by Öz (1999).

### 2.2.2.1 Conflict Properties Subscale

Conflict Properties subscale of this scale was used to assess the adolescents' perceived interparental conflict by means of frequency, intensity and lack of resolution of the conflict. This subscale includes 19 items (e.g. "Even after my parents stop arguing they stay mad at each other" item for resolution; "I often see my parents arguing" item for frequency; "My parents get really mad when they argue" item for intensity) with three-point Likert type scale (1 for "false" and 3 for "true"). In the original study, the Cronbach's alpha of this subscale was found as .92 (Moura et al., 2010). The Cronbach's alpha value of the current study was .94.

### 2.2.2.2 Cognitive Appraisals Subscale

Cognitive appraisals were measured again with the Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale with the aid of perceived threat and self-blame subscales. Self-blame subscale includes 5 items (e.g. "It's usually my fault when my parents argue.") and perceived threat includes 6 items (e.g. "I get scared when my parents argue"). The answers were taken with three-point Likert type scale (1 for "false" and 3 for "true"). In the original study, Cronbach's alpha was found as .81 for the perceived threat, and .57 for self-blame (Moura et al., 2010). In the current study, Cronbach's alpha of the perceived threat was calculated as .85, and Cronbach's alpha of self-blame was calculated as .73.

## 2.2.3 Basic Psychological Need Frustration Subscale of Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction and Frustration Scale (BPNSNF)

Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction and Frustration Scale was developed by Chen et al. (2015) and adapted to Turkish by Mouratidis et al. (2018). In the current study, the basic psychological need frustration subscale was used to assess the frustration of the participants. The need frustration subscale consists of 12 items including competence frustration (4- item; "I have serious doubts about whether I can do things well."), autonomy frustration (4-item; "Most of the things I do feel like "I have to."), and relatedness frustration (4-item; "I feel excluded from the group I want to belong to."). The responses were taken using five-points Likert type scale (1 for "strongly disagree" and 5 for "strongly agree"). In the original study, for the Belgian sample, the Cronbach's alpha was computed as .77, .67 and .84 for autonomy, relatedness, and competence frustration, respectively. Additionally, for the Chinese sample, the Cronbach's alpha was computed as .71, .81, and .86 for autonomy, relatedness, and competence frustration, respectively (Chen et al., 2015). In the Turkish adaptation study, the Cronbach's alpha was computed as .82 for autonomy frustration, .80 for competence frustration, and .76 for relatedness frustration (Mouratidis et al., 2018). The internal consistency of the need frustration subscale was .79 (Mouratidis et al., 2018). Cronbach's alpha value of current study was .89 for need frustration subscale. Additionally, Cronbach's alpha values of the subscales were calculated as .81 for autonomy frustration, .85 for competence frustration, and .84 for relatedness frustration.

### 2.2.4 The Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D-10)

The Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale was developed by Radloff (1977) and adapted to Turkish by Tatar, and Saltukoğlu (2010). In addition, Tatar et al. (2013) showed that Turkish version of this scale can be used both for children and adolescents. This scale contains 10 items (e.g., "I thought my life had been a failure") with four-points Likert type scale (1 for "rarely or none of the time" and 4 for "all or most of the time"). Getting higher scores from this scale point out more severe depressive feelings of the participants. The Cronbach alpha of the original scale was calculated as .85 (Radloff, 1977). In the Turkish adaptation study, it was calculated as .89 (Tatar, and Saltukoğlu, 2010). Lastly, in the current study, Cronbach' alpha of the scale was .86.

### 2.2.5 Short Form of the UCLA Loneliness Scale (ULS-8)

Short Form of the UCLA Loneliness Scale was developed by Hays and DiMatteo (1987) and adapted to Turkish by Yıldız and Duy (2014). It was used to assess the intensity of the loneliness of adolescents. Even though the original version of the scale includes 8 items, in Turkish version, they used just 7 items because of the low factor loading value. Therefore, this scale compromise of 7 items (e.g., "I feel isolated from others") with four-points Likert type scale (1 for "never" 4 for "often"). Minimum possible score is 7, and maximum possible score is 28. Obtaining higher scores from the scale indicates more severe feelings of loneliness. The Cronbach alpha of the original scale was calculated as .84 (Hays, and DiMatteo, 1987). In the Turkish adaptation study, it was calculated as .74 (Yıldız, and Duy, 2014). In the current study, Cronbach' alpha of this scale was .86.

### 2.2.6 Short Form of Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (OHQ-SF)

Short Form of Oxford Happiness Questionnaire was developed by Hills and Argyle (2002) and adapted to Turkish by Doğan and Çötok (2011). It was used to measure the happiness level of adolescents. The questionnaire contains 7 items (e.g., "I feel that life is very rewarding") with five-point Likert type scale (1 for "strongly disagree" and 5 for "strongly agree"). Higher scores indicate higher levels of happiness in adolescents. In the original study, the Cronbach's alpha of the questionnaire was found as .90 (Hills, and Argyle, 2002). In the Turkish adaptation of this questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha was computed as .74 (Doğan, and Çötok, 2011). Lastly, in the current study, the Cronbach' alpha of this questionnaire was .81.

### 2.2.7 Brief Resilience Scale (BRS)

Brief Resilience Scale was developed by Smith et al. (2008) and adapted to Turkish by Doğan (2015). It was used to assess the psychological resilience of participants. This scale includes 6 items (e.g., "I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times") with five-point Likert type scale (1 for "not suitable at all" and 5 for "totally suitable"). Higher scores indicate higher levels of psychological resilience in adolescents. In the original study of this scale, Cronbach's alpha was found between .80 and .91(Samples 1 to 4 = .84, .87, .80, .91, respectively) (Smith et al., 2008). In the Turkish adaptation of this scale, Cronbach's alpha was computed as .83 (Doğan, 2015). In the current study, it was found as .87.

#### 2.3 Procedure

At first, an ethical approval from the ethical committee of the Izmir University of Economics was obtained before conducting the study (see Appendix A). Given that our participants were high school students, there were two informed consent forms for both parents and adolescents (see Appendix B and C). Upon the ethical committee approval, online questionnaires which were prepared via an online survey website (forms.google.com), were distributed over mothers with the aid of snowball sampling. In this study, since the research was conducted via an online survey platform, snowball sampling was used from a different perspective with the aim of controlling this parental consent process and being sure that parents give consent for the participation. So, the researcher contacted the mothers and the link was shared with the adolescents whose mothers allowed him/her to participate.

Both informed consent forms include the purpose and general procedure of the study, confidentiality, information about approximately how long it would take adolescents to participate, the voluntary participation and adolescents' right to withdraw from the study whenever they want. Thus, first, the consents of the parents of adolescents were taken and then, the adolescents whose parents allowed them to participate in the study and who accepted the voluntary participation got the link of the survey and answered the demographic questions, conflict properties subscale of the Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC), perceived threat and self-blame subscales of The Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC), Basic Psychological Need Frustration Subscale of Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction and Frustration Scale (BPNSNF), The Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D-10), Short Form of the UCLA Loneliness Scale (ULS-8), Short Form of Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (OHQ-SF), and Brief Resilience Scale (BRS). At the end of the application, Participant Information Form (see Appendix L) was presented to the participants with the aim of informing them about the study and giving contact addresses.

#### 2.4 Statistical Analysis

In the current study, interparental conflict was the predictor variable, and together with cognitive appraisals such as perceived threat and self-blame, needs frustration were the mediators. Outcome variables were well-being as happiness and psychological resilience, and ill-being as depression and loneliness. The data was obtained from 262

participants. As a prelude, by considering our inclusion criteria as being between 14-17 years old, and parents being married and living together, a total of 35 participants were excluded from the study. One of them was excluded due to the age criteria, as being older than 17 years old. Twenty-nine of them were excluded because of the family status, as their parents are not married and/or living together. Five of them were not included in the study both because of not meeting the age and family status criteria. Lastly, three participants were excluded because of the outlier scores. Therefore, main analyses were conducted with 224 participants. Statistical analyses were carried out with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22 for Windows, and model 6 of PROCESS v3.5 (Hayes, 2013). Firstly, in order to check for normality and look into the distribution of data, skewness and kurtosis values of the data were examined with the aid of descriptive statistics. Skewness and kurtosis values should be within the range of +1.5 and -1.5 or +2.0 and -2.0 in order to evaluate them as normally distributed (Tabachnick, and Fidell, 2013; George, and Mallery, 2010). All values were found to be within the required range. Secondly, descriptive statistics were examined to check over mean, standard deviations, frequencies and percentage analyses. Thirdly, in order to examine group differences with regard to main variables, independent samples t-test was performed and gender differences were examined. Following that, Pearson Correlation Analysis was done to investigate the relationship between all variables included in the study. Finally, serial mediation analyses were conducted to test the mediating roles of cognitive appraisals and basic psychological needs in relationship between interparental conflict and adolescents' well- and illbeing. 95% confidence interval was used to evaluate the significance of the models. The result was interpreted as not statistically significant, when the confidence interval contained zero (Preacher and Hayes, 2008).

### **CHAPTER 3: RESULTS**

Descriptive statistics for study variables, group differences in terms of gender, correlations between the variables, and the main mediation analyses are given in this chapter.

### 3.1 Descriptive Statistics

The mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values of the scores collected from scales that measure interparental conflict, cognitive appraisals of perceived threat and self-blame, basic psychological needs frustration, and the level of happiness, psychological resilience, depression and loneliness are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. The Descriptive Statistics of the Study Variables.

Variables	N	Min	Max	Range	M	SD
Interparental Conflict	227	1	2.89	1-3	1.64	0.49
Perceived Threat Appraisal	227	1	3	1-3	1.48	0.54
Self-Blame Appraisal	227	1	2.80	1-3	1.28	0.37
Needs Frustration	227	1	5	1-5	2.92	0.92
Happiness	227	1.14	5	1-5	3.06	0.81
Psychological Resilience	227	1	5	1-5	3.01	0.95
Depression	227	1	4	1-4	2.36	0.70
Loneliness	227	1	3.86	1-4	2.04	0.77

### 3.2 Gender Differences on Study Variables

An independent samples t-test was conducted in order to investigate whether interparental conflict, perceived threat appraisal and self-blame attribution, frustration of needs, depression, loneliness, happiness and psychological resilience levels were significantly different in boys and girls.

Analyses show that, there is a significant gender difference with regards to frustration of needs, t(222) = 3.99, p < .001. Girls experience (M = 3.08, SE = .07) needs frustration more than boys (M = 2.57, SE = .10). Furthermore, there is a significant difference between boys and girls in terms of depression levels, t(222) = 3.63, p < .001. Girls are more depressive (M = 2.47, SE = .05) than boys (M = 2.11, SE = .09). Also, loneliness levels of girls are higher (M = 2.12, SE = .06) than loneliness levels of boys (M = 1.86, SE = .09). This difference was found to be significant with t(222) = 2.38, p = 1.86, t = 1.86, t = 1.86, t = 1.86.

< .05. For happiness, it can be deduced that boys are happier (M = 3.23, SE = .10) than girls (M = 2.98, SE = .06), and this gender difference is significant, t(222) = -2.21, p < .05. Lastly, significant gender difference was found in terms of psychological resilience levels, t(222) = -3.62, p < .001. Boys are more resilient (M = 3.34, SE = .11) than girls (M = 2.86, SE = .07).

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Table 3. Independent Samples T-Test Results of Study Variables by Gender.

	Gender	N	M	SD	t	p	d
Interparental Conflict	Female	154	1.67	.49	1.706	.089	.24
	Male	70	1.55	.48			
Perceived Threat	Female	154	1.51	.55	1.220	.224	.17
	Male	70	1.41	.51			
Self-Blame	Female	154	1.28	.38	381	.704	.05
	Male	70	1.30	.35			
Needs Frustration	Female	154	3.08	.91	3.988	*000	.58
	Male	70	2.57	.86			
Depression	Female	154	2.47	.66	3.629	*000	.51
	Male	70	2.11	.72			
Loneliness	Female	154	2.12	.77	2.378	.018*	.34
	Male	70	1.86	.74			
Happiness	Female	154	2.98	.78	-2.213	.028*	.31
	Male	70	3.23	.84			
Psychological Resilience	Female	154	2.86	.92	-3.617	.000*	.51
	Male	70	3.34	.94			

*Note.* \* p < .05

### 3.3 Correlations between Study Variables

The Pearson Correlation Analysis was conducted to investigate the relationship between study variables (i.e., interparental conflict, perceived threat, self-blame, depression, loneliness, happiness, and psychological resilience).

The results of the analysis show that, interparental conflict was positively correlated with perceived threat (r = .54, p < .01), self-blame (r = .39, p < .01), needs frustration (r = .37, p < .01), depression (r = .38, p < .01), and loneliness (r = .33, p < .01) and negatively correlated with happiness (r = -.45, p < .01) and psychological resilience (r = -.45, p < .01)= -.33, p < .01). In addition, perceived threat was positively correlated with self-blame (r = .33, p < .01), needs frustration (r = .44, p < .01), depression (r = .33, p < .01), and loneliness (r = .35, p < .01) and negatively with happiness (r = .32, p < .01) and psychological resilience (r = -.31, p < .01). Furthermore, self-blame was positively correlated with needs frustration (r = .32, p < .01), depression (r = .31, p < .01), and loneliness (r = .26, p < .01) and negatively correlated with happiness (r = .32, p < .01)and psychological resilience (r = -.14, p = .044). Moreover, needs frustration was positively correlated with depression (r = .68, p < .01) and loneliness (r = .65, p < .01) and negatively correlated with happiness (r = -.66, p < .01) and psychological resilience (r = -.55, p < .01). In addition to that, happiness was positively correlated with psychological resilience (r = .58, p < .01) and negatively correlated with depression (r = -.71, p < .01) and loneliness (r = -.64, p < .01). For psychological resilience, it was negatively correlated with depression (r = -.58, p < .01) and loneliness (r = -.50, p < .01). Lastly, depression was positively correlated with loneliness (r = .64, p < .01)p < .01).

 $\omega$ 

Table 4. Correlations between Study Variables.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Interparental Conflict	-//							
2. Perceived Threat	.54**	-						
3. Self-Blame	.39**	.33**	-					
4. Needs Frustration	.37**	.44**	.32**	-				
5. Happiness	45**	32**	32**	66**	-			
6. Psychological Resilience	33**	31**	14*	55**	.58**	-		
7. Depression	.38**	.33**	.31**	.68**	71**	58**	-	
8.Loneliness	.33**	.35**	.26**	.65**	64**	50**	.64**	-

*Note.* \* *p* < .05. \*\* *p* < .01.

#### 3.4 Mediation Analysis

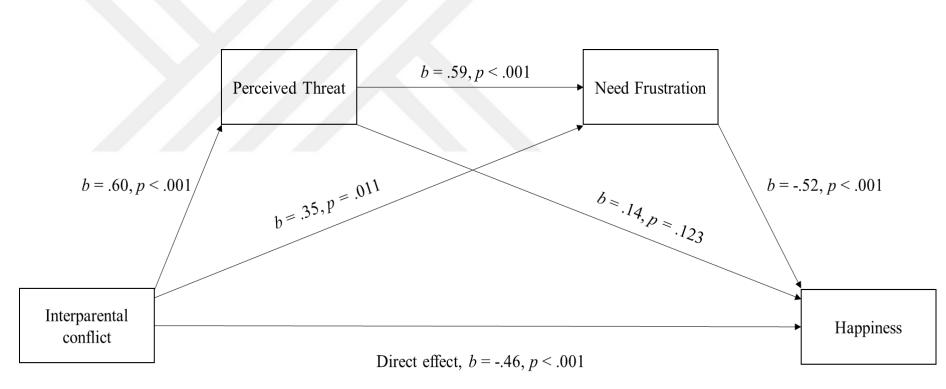
Serial mediation analysis was conducted to investigate whether cognitive appraisals and basic psychological needs frustration mediate the relationship among interparental conflict, well-being, and ill-being of adolescents. Interparental conflict was predictor variable; happiness, psychological resilience, depression and loneliness were outcome variables, and perceived threat, self-blame, as well as needs frustration were mediators in this analysis. The serial mediation analyses were performed for all outcome variables individually by using model 6 for PROCESS Macro. Firstly, perceived threat and needs frustration were taken as mediators, and then, self-blame and needs frustration were taken as mediators while conducting the analyses for all outcomes, one by one. Thus, eight different models were generated in order to investigate the effect of mediating variables. In Model 1, the mediating roles of perceived threat and needs frustration in relation between interparental conflict and happiness was examined. In Model 2, the mediating roles of perceived threat and needs frustration in relation between interparental conflict and psychological resilience was investigated. In Model 3, the mediating roles of perceived threat and needs frustration in relation between interparental conflict and depression was analyzed. In Model 4, the mediating roles of perceived threat and needs frustration in relation between interparental conflict and loneliness was examined. Furthermore, in Model 5, the mediating roles of selfblame and needs frustration in relation between interparental conflict and happiness was investigated. In Model 6, the mediating roles of self-blame and needs frustration in relation between interparental conflict and psychological resilience was analyzed. In Model 7, the mediating roles of self-blame and needs frustration in relation between interparental conflict and depression was examined. Lastly, in Model 8, the mediating roles of self-blame and needs frustration in relation between interparental conflict and loneliness was investigated. The significance of the models was evaluated over 95% confidence interval and the confidence interval including zero was evaluated as statistically nonsignificant (Hayes, 2013; Preacher, and Hayes, 2008).

# 3.4.1 Model 1: The Mediating Roles of Perceived Threat and Need Frustration in Relation between Interparental Conflict and Happiness

Serial mediation analysis was conducted to examine the mediating roles of perceived threat and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and happiness.

According to results, interparental conflict positively predicted perceived threat, B =0.602, SE = .062, 95% CI [0.480, 0.752], p < .001. Interparental conflict, B = 0.349, SE = .135, 95% CI [0.082, 0.615], p = .011 and perceived threat, B = 0.585, SE = .122, 95% CI [0.344, 0.826], p < .001, positively predicted needs frustration. Moreover, interparental conflict, B = -0.463, SE = .097, 95% CI [-0.653, -0.272], p < .001, and needs frustration, B = -0.524, SE = .047, 95% CI [-0.617, -0.430], p < .001, negatively predicted happiness, however perceived threat did not significantly predict happiness, B = 0.140, SE = .090, 95% CI [-0.038, 0.318], p = .123. The model explained 49% of the variance in happiness significantly,  $R^2 = .49$ , F(3,220) = 71.04, p < .001. Both total effect of interparental conflict on happiness, B = -0.745, SE = .100, 95% CI [-0.942, -0.549], p < .001, and direct effect of interparental conflict on happiness, B = -0.463, SE = .097, 95% CI [-0.653, -0.272], p < .001, were significant. Lastly, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on happiness through needs frustration, B = -0.182, SE = .075, 95% CI [-0.326, -0.033], and indirect effect of interparental conflict on happiness via the sequence of perceived threat and needs frustration were found significant, B = -0.185, SE = .047, 95% CI [-0.288, -0.105]. However, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on happiness through perceived threat was not statistically significant, B = 0.084, SE = .063, 95% CI [-0.034, 0.212]. These results supported our hypothesis and indicated that, perceived threat and needs frustration sequentially played significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and happiness (see Figure 1).





Indirect effect of perceived threat, b = .08, 95% CI [-.034, .212]

Indirect effect of need frustration, b = -.18, 95% CI [-.326, -.033]

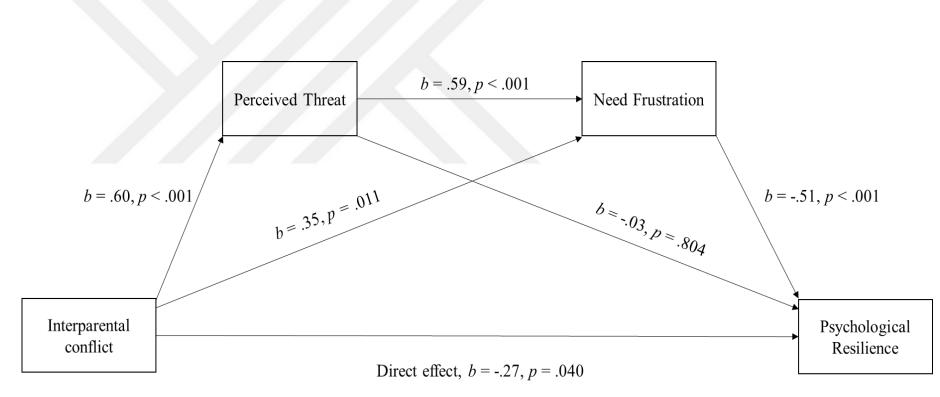
Indirect effect of perceived threat and need frustration sequentially, b = -.18, 95% CI [-.288, -.105]

Figure 1. The mediating roles of perceived threat and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and happiness

# 3.4.2 Model 2: The Mediating Roles of Perceived Threat and Need Frustration in Relation between Interparental Conflict and Psychological Resilience

Serial mediation analysis was performed to investigate the mediating roles of perceived threat and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and psychological resilience.

According to results, interparental conflict positively predicted perceived threat, B =0.602, SE = .062, 95% CI [0.480, 0.752], p < .001. Interparental conflict, B = 0.349, SE = .135, 95% CI [0.082, 0.615], p = .011 and perceived threat, B = 0.585, SE = .122, 95% CI [0.344, 0.826], p < .001, positively predicted needs frustration. Furthermore, interparental conflict, B = -0.271, SE = .131, 95% CI [-0.529, -0.012], p = .040, and needs frustration, B = -0.508, SE = .064, 95% CI [-0.634, -0.381], p < .001, negatively predicted psychological resilience, however perceived threat did not significantly predict psychological resilience, B = -0.031, SE = .123, 95% CI [-0.272, 0.211], p =.804. The model explained 32% of the variance in psychological resilience significantly,  $R^2 = .32$ , F (3,220) = 35.19, p < .001. Both total effect of interparental conflict on resilience, B = -0.645, SE = .124, 95% CI [-0.889, -0.401], p < .001, and direct effect of interparental conflict on psychological resilience, B = -0.271, SE = 131, 95% CI [-0.529, -0.012], p < .040, were significant. Lastly, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on resilience through needs frustration, B = -0.177, 95% CI [-0.330, -0.029], and indirect effect of interparental conflict on psychological resilience via the sequence of perceived threat and needs frustration were found significant, B =-0.179, 95% CI [-0.287, -0.099]. However, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on psychological resilience through perceived threat was not statistically significant, B = -0.018, 95% CI [-0.178, 0.136]. These results supported our hypothesis and showed that, perceived threat and needs frustration sequentially played significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and psychological resilience (see Figure 2).



Indirect effect of perceived threat, b = .02, 95% CI [-.178, .136]

Indirect effect of need frustration, b = -.18, 95% CI [-.330, -.029]

Indirect effect of perceived threat and need frustration sequentially, b = -.18, 95% CI [-.287, -.099]

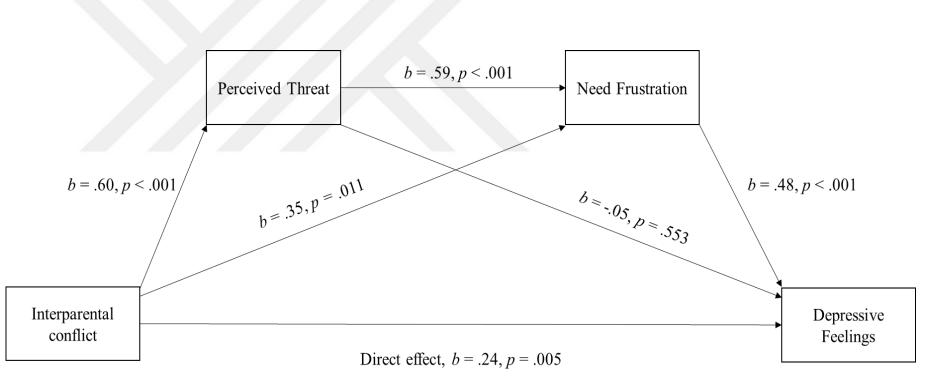
Figure 2. The mediating roles of perceived threat and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and psychological resilience.

# 3.4.3 Model 3: The Mediating Roles of Perceived Threat and Need Frustration in Relation between Interparental Conflict and Depressive Feelings

Serial mediation analysis was conducted to investigate the mediating roles of perceived threat and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and depression.

According to results, interparental conflict positively predicted perceived threat, B =0.602, SE = .062, 95% CI [ 0.480, 0.752], p < .001. Interparental conflict, B = 0.349, SE = .135, 95% CI [0.082, 0.615], p = .011 and perceived threat, B = 0.585, SE = .122, 95% CI [0.344, 0.826], p < .001, positively predicted needs frustration. Furthermore, interparental conflict, B = 0.242, SE = .085, 95% CI [0.075, 0.409], p = .005, and needs frustration, B = .484, SE = .042, 95% CI [0.402, 0.566], p < .001, positively predicted depression, however perceived threat did not significantly predict depression, B = -0.047, SE = .079, 95% CI [-0.204, 0.109], p = .553. The model explained 48% of the variance in depression significantly,  $R^2 = .48$ , F(3,220) = 68.97, p < .001. Both total effect of interparental conflict on depression, B = 0.552, SE = .090, 95% CI [0.375, 0.729], p < .001, and direct effect of interparental conflict on depression, B = 0.242, SE = .085, 95% CI [0.075, 0.409], p = .005, were significant. Lastly, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on depression through needs frustration, B = 0.169, 95% CI [0.032, 0.302], and indirect effect of interparental conflict on depression via the sequence of perceived threat and needs frustration were found significant, B = 0.170, 95% CI [0.091, 0.269]. However, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on depression through perceived threat was not statistically significant, B = -0.028, 95%CI [-0.134, 0.068]. These results supported our hypothesis and indicated that, perceived threat and needs frustration sequentially played significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and depression (see Figure 3).





Indirect effect of perceived threat, b = -.03, 95% CI [-.134, .068]

Indirect effect of need frustration, b = .17, 95% CI [.032, .302]

Indirect effect of perceived threat and need frustration sequentially, b = .17, 95% CI [.091, .269]

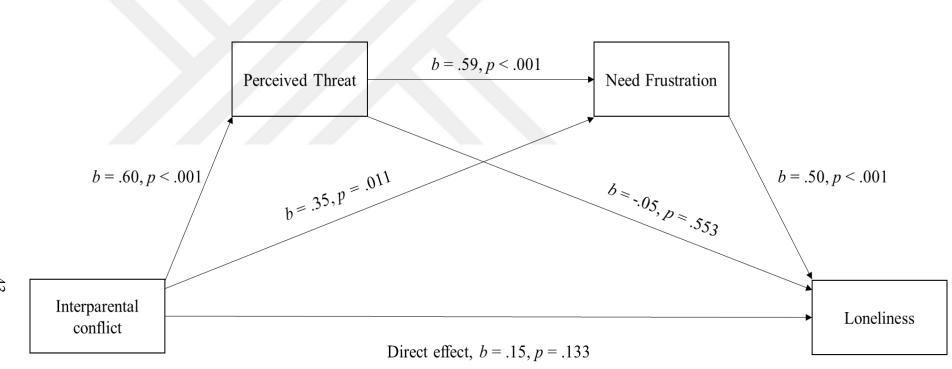
Figure 3. The mediating roles of perceived threat and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and depression.

# 3.4.4 Model 4: The Mediating Roles of Perceived Threat and Need Frustration in Relation between Interparental Conflict and Loneliness

Serial mediation analysis was performed to examine the mediating roles of perceived threat and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and loneliness.

According to results, interparental conflict positively predicted perceived threat, B =.602, SE = .062, 95% CI [0.480, 0.725], p < .001. Interparental conflict, B = 0.349, SE= .135, 95% CI [0.082, 0.615], p = .011 and perceived threat, B = 0.585, SE = .122, 95% CI [0.344, 0.826], p < .001, positively predicted needs frustration. Moreover, needs frustration, B = 0.501, SE = .047, 95% CI [0.408, 0.595], p < .001, positively predicted loneliness. However, interparental conflict, B = 0.146, SE = .097, 95% CI [-0.045, 0.336], p = .133, and perceived threat did not significantly predict loneliness, B = 0.047, SE = .091, 95% CI [-0.131, 0.225], p = .604. The model explained 44% of the variance in loneliness significantly,  $R^2 = .44$ , F(3,220) = 56.91, p < .001. Total effect of interparental conflict on loneliness, B = 0.527, SE = .100, 95% CI [0.329, 0.723], p< .001 was found significant. On the other hand, direct effect of interparental conflict on loneliness was not significant, B = 0.146, SE = .097, 95% CI [-0.045, 0.336], p =.133. Lastly, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on loneliness through needs frustration, B = 0.175, 95% CI [0.028, 0.322], and indirect effect of interparental conflict on loneliness via the sequence of perceived threat and needs frustration were found significant, B = 0.178, 95% CI [0.097, 0.274]. However, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on loneliness through perceived threat was not statistically significant, B = 0.028, 95% CI [-0.091, 0.140]. These results supported our hypothesis and showed that, perceived threat and needs frustration sequentially played significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and loneliness (see Figure 4).





Indirect effect of perceived threat, b = .03, 95% CI [-.091, .140]

Indirect effect of need frustration, b = .17, 95% CI [.028, .322]

Indirect effect of perceived threat and need frustration sequentially, b = .18, 95% CI [.097, .274]

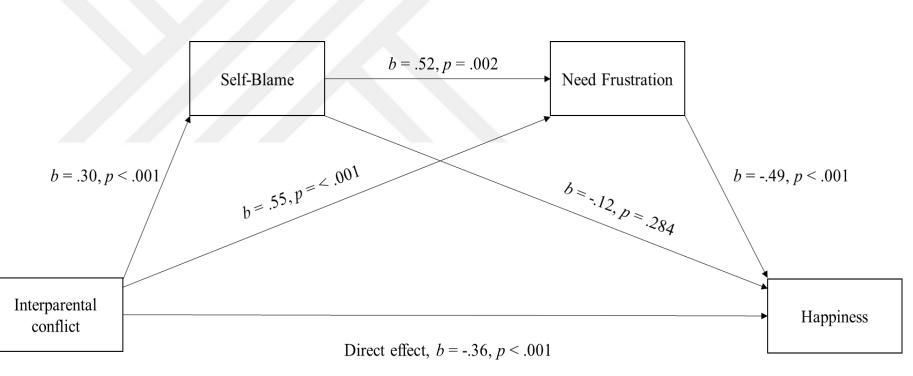
Figure 4. The mediating roles of perceived threat and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and loneliness.

# 3.4.5 Model 5: The Mediating Roles of Self-Blame and Need Frustration in Relation between Interparental Conflict and Happiness

Serial mediation analysis was conducted to examine the mediating roles of self-blame and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and happiness.

According to results, interparental conflict positively predicted self-blame, B = 0.296, SE = .048, 95% CI [0.203, 0.390], p < .001. Interparental conflict, B = 0.548, SE = .001.126, 95% CI [0.299, 0.797], p = <.001 and self-blame, B = 0.517, SE = .164, 95% CI [0.193, 0.840], p = .002, positively predicted needs frustration. Moreover, interparental conflict, B = -0.364, SE = .090, 95% CI [-0.543, -0.186], p = .000, and needs frustration, B = -0.491, SE = .046, 95% CI [-0.582, -0.400], p < .001, negatively predicted happiness, however self-blame did not significantly predict happiness, B = -0.124, SE = .115, 95% CI [-0.351, 0.104], p = .284. The model explained 49% of the variance in happiness significantly,  $R^2 = .49$ , F(3,220) = 70.22, p < .001. Both total effect of interparental conflict on happiness, B = -0.745, SE = .100, 95% CI [-0.942, -0.549], p < .001, and direct effect of interparental conflict on happiness, B = -0.364, SE = .090, 95% CI [-0.543, -0.186], p < .001, were significant. Lastly, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on happiness through needs frustration, B = -0.269, 95%CI [-0.401, -0.148], and indirect effect of interparental conflict on happiness via the sequence of self-blame and needs frustration were found significant, B = -0.075, 95%CI [-0.130, -0.029]. However, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on happiness through self-blame was not statistically significant, B = -0.037, 95% CI [-0.112, 0.032]. These results supported our hypothesis and indicated that, self-blame and needs frustration sequentially played significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and happiness (see Figure 5).





Indirect effect of self-blame, b = -.04, 95% CI [-.112, .032]

Indirect effect of need frustration, b = -.27, 95% CI [-.401, -.148]

Indirect effect of self-blame and need frustration sequentially, b = -.08, 95% CI [-.130, -.029]

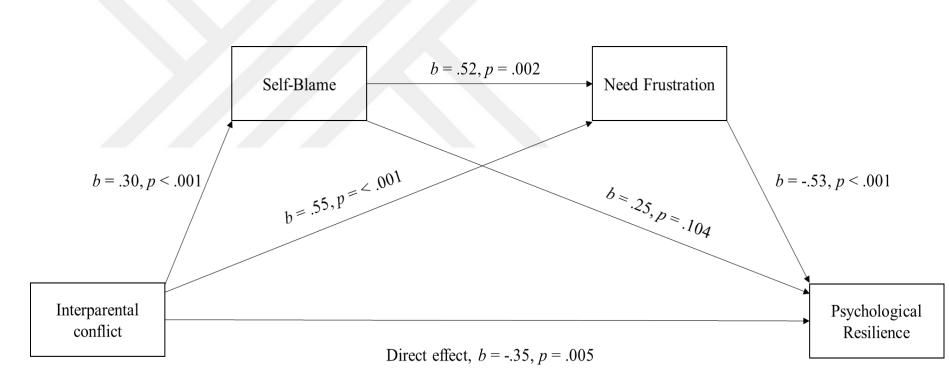
Figure 5. The mediating roles of self-blame and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and happiness.

# 3.4.6 Model 6: The Mediating Roles of Self-Blame and Need Frustration in Relation between Interparental Conflict and Psychological Resilience

Serial mediation analysis was performed to investigate the mediating roles of selfblame and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and psychological resilience.

According to results, interparental conflict positively predicted self-blame, B = 0.296, SE = .048, 95% CI [0.203, 0.390], p < .001. Interparental conflict, B = 0.548, SE = .001.126, 95% CI [0.299, 0.797], p < .001 and self-blame, B = 0.517, SE = .164, 95% CI [0.193, 0.840], p = .002, positively predicted needs frustration. Furthermore, interparental conflict, B = -0.356, SE = .122, 95% CI [-0.586, -0.107], p = .005, and needs frustration, B = -0.533, SE = .062, 95% CI [-0.656, -0.411], p < .001, negatively predicted psychological resilience, however self-blame did not significantly predict psychological resilience, B = 0.254, SE = .155, 95% CI [-0.052, 0.560], p = .104. The model explained 33% of the variance in resilience significantly,  $R^2 = .33$ , F(3,220) =36.48, p < .001. Both total effect of interparental conflict on psychological resilience, B = -0.645, SE = .124, 95% CI [-0.889, -0.401], p < .001, and direct effect of interparental conflict on psychological resilience, B = -0.346, SE = .122, 95% CI [-0.585, -0.107], p = .005, were significant. Lastly, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on psychological resilience through needs frustration, N = -0.292, 95% CI [-0.456, -0.150], and indirect effect of interparental conflict on resilience via the sequence of self-blame and needs frustration were found significant, B = -0.081, 95%CI [-0.141, -0.032]. However, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on psychological resilience through self-blame was not statistically significant, B = 0.075, 95% CI [-0.024, 0.180]. These results supported our hypothesis and showed that, selfblame and needs frustration sequentially played significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and psychological resilience (see Figure 6).





Indirect effect of self-blame, b = .08, 95% CI [-.024, .180]

Indirect effect of need frustration, b = -.29, 95% CI [-.456, -.150]

Indirect effect of self-blame and need frustration sequentially, b = -.08, 95% CI [-.141, -.032]

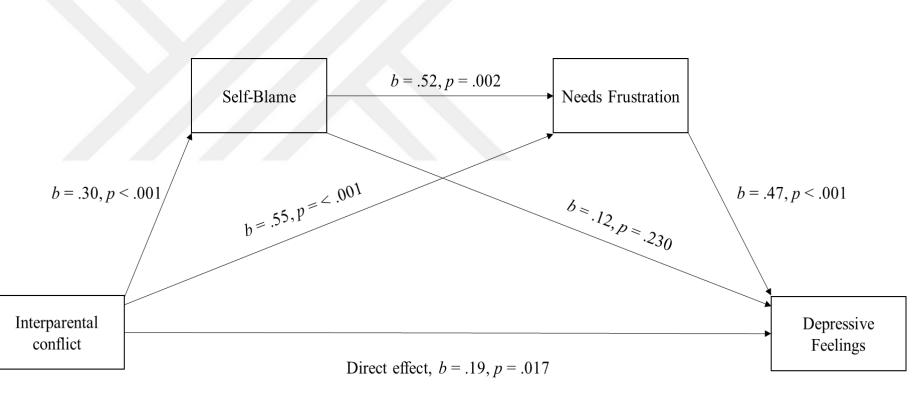
Figure 6. The mediating roles of self-blame and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and psychological resilience.

# 3.4.7 Model 7: The Mediating Roles of Self-Blame and Need Frustration in Relation between Interparental Conflict and Depressive Feelings

Serial mediation analysis was conducted to investigate the mediating roles of selfblame and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and depression.

According to results, interparental conflict positively predicted self-blame, B = 0.296, SE = .048, 95% CI [0.203, 0.390], p < .001. Interparental conflict, B = 0.548, SE = .126, 95% CI [0.299, 0.797], p < .001 and self-blame, B = 0.517, SE = .164, 95% CI [0.193, [0.840], p = .002, positively predicted needs frustration. Furthermore, interparental conflict, B = 0.190, SE = .079, 95% CI [0.034, 0.345], p = .017, and needs frustration, B = 0.466, SE = .040, 95% CI [0.386, 0.546], p < .001, positively predicted depression, however self-blame did not significantly predict depression, B = 0.121, SE = .101, 95% CI [-0.077, 0.320], p = .230. The model explained 49% of the variance in depression significantly,  $R^2 = .49$ , F(3,220) = 69.68, p < .001. Both total effect of interparental conflict on depression, B = 0.552, SE = .090, 95% CI [0.375, 0.729], p < .001, and direct effect of interparental conflict on depression, B = 0.190, SE = .079, 95% CI [0.034, 0.345], p = .017, were significant. Lastly, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on depression through needs frustration, B = 0.255, 95% CI [0.137, 0.388], and indirect effect of interparental conflict on depression via the sequence of selfblame and needs frustration were found significant, B = 0.071, 95% CI [0.028, 0.124]. However, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on depression through self-blame was not statistically significant, B = 0.036, 95% CI [-0.024, 0.106]. These results supported our hypothesis and indicated that, self-blame and needs frustration sequentially played significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and depression (see Figure 7).





Indirect effect of self-blame, b = .04, 95% CI [-.024, .106]

Indirect effect of need frustration, b = .26, 95% CI [.137, .388]

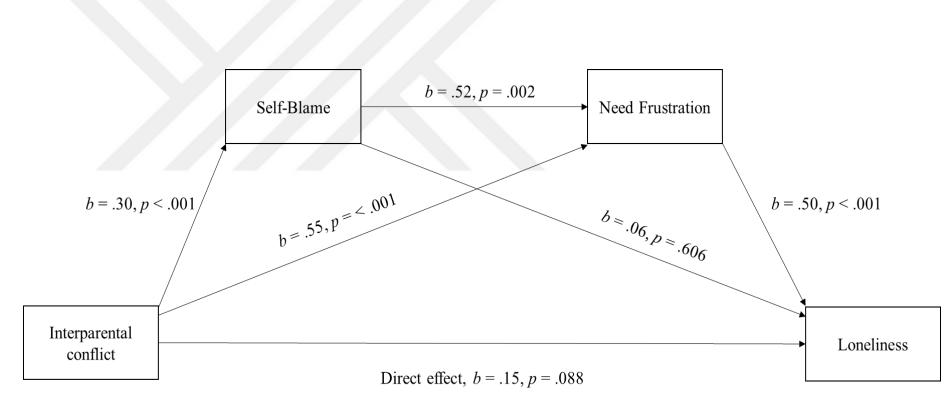
Indirect effect of self-blame and need frustration sequentially, b = .07, 95% CI [.028, .124]

Figure 7. The mediating roles of self-blame and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and depression.

# 3.4.8 Model 8: The Mediating Roles of Self-Blame and Need Frustration in Relation between Interparental Conflict and Loneliness

Serial mediation analysis was performed to examine the mediating roles of self-blame and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and loneliness.

According to results, interparental conflict positively predicted self-blame, B = 0.296, SE = .048, 95% CI [0.203, 0.390], p < .001. Interparental conflict, B = 0.548, SE = .001.126, 95% CI [0.299, 0.797], p < .001 and self-blame, B = 0.517, SE = .164, 95% CI [0.193, 0.840], p = .002, positively predicted needs frustration. Moreover, needs frustration, B = 0.504, SE = .046, 95% CI [0.413, 0.595], p < .001, positively predicted loneliness. However, interparental conflict, B = 0.155, SE = .090, 95% CI [-0.023, 0.332], p = .088, and self-blame did not significantly predict loneliness, B = 0.060, SE = .115, 95% CI [-0.168, 0.286], p = .606. The model explained 44% of the variance in loneliness significantly,  $R^2 = .44$ , F(3,220) = 56.91, p < .001. Total effect of interparental conflict on loneliness, B = 0.526, SE = .100, 95% CI [0.329, 0.723], p <.001 was significant. On the other hand, direct effect of interparental conflict on loneliness was not significant, B = 0.155, SE = .090, 95% CI [-0.023, 0.332], p = .088. Lastly, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on loneliness through needs frustration, B = 0.276, 95% CI [0.154, 0.410], and indirect effect of interparental conflict on loneliness via the sequence of self-blame and needs frustration were found significant, B = 0.077, 95% CI [0.030, 0.135]. However, the indirect effect of interparental conflict on loneliness through self-blame was not statistically significant, B = 0.018, 95% CI [-0.043, 0.083]. These results supported our hypothesis and showed that, self-blame and needs frustration sequentially played significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and loneliness (see Figure 8).



Indirect effect of self-blame, b = .02, 95% CI [-.043, .083]

Indirect effect of need frustration, b = .28, 95% CI [.154, .410]

Indirect effect of self-blame and need frustration sequentially, b = .08, 95% CI [.030, .135]

Figure 8. The mediating roles of self-blame and needs frustration in relationship between interparental conflict and loneliness.

Table 5. Summary of the Serial Multiple Mediation Analyses Results.

Predictor	Mediator 1	Mediator 2	Outcome	95% CI
Interparental Conflict	Perceived Threat	Need Frustration	Happiness	[288,105]
Interparental Conflict	Perceived Threat	<b>Need Frustration</b>	Psychological Resilience	[287,099]
Interparental Conflict	Perceived Threat	Need Frustration	Depressive Feelings	[.091, .269]
Interparental Conflict	Perceived Threat	Need Frustration	Loneliness	[.097, .274]
Interparental Conflict	Self-Blame	Need Frustration	Happiness	[130,029]
Interparental Conflict	Self-Blame	Need Frustration	Psychological Resilience	[141,032]
Interparental Conflict	Self-Blame	Need Frustration	Depressive Feelings	[.028, .124]
Interparental Conflict	Self-Blame	Need Frustration	Loneliness	[.030, .135]

### **CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION**

In the current study, we examined whether perceived threat and self-blame as cognitive appraisals and need frustration served as sequential intervening roles in relationship between interparental conflict and well- and ill-being of adolescents. Guided by SDT, the aim of the present study was to make an expansion on cognitive contextual framework by asserting that in conjunction with cognitive appraisals, need frustration may also account for the link between interparental conflict and well- and ill-being in Turkish high-school students. Corresponding to cognitive contextual framework and self-determination theory, the findings showed that adolescents who perceive interparental conflict as more frequent, intense and poorly resolved report more threat and attribute more blame to themselves, which in turn, leads to greater frustration of needs and consequently, diminished well-being as well as increased ill-being. As shown in the result chapter, we applied serial mediation analyses to each of the four outcomes in that, a separate model was tested for each outcome. Furthermore, the mediating roles of perceived threat and self-blame as well as need frustration were tested in separate models. This chapter includes reported findings that have been discussed in the light of literature, the limitations of the current study, and the future directions for subsequent research.

#### 4.1 The Evaluation of the Gender Differences on Study Variables

Findings indicated that needs frustration as well as depression and loneliness levels as ill-being outcomes, psychological resilience and happiness levels as well-being outcomes differ significantly in gender.

Firstly, in the present study, results showed that girls experienced greater depressive feelings compared to boys and this difference was significant. The finding of our study is consistent with the related literature. For instance, Bennett et al. (2005) conducted a study to investigate whether there are gender differences in depressive feelings during adolescence period, and they found that girls' reporting of depressive feelings is greater than boys. Other research examining gender difference in depressive feelings along with its sources such as stress, parent-child relationship, and psychological resources have indicated that, girls experience greater depressive feelings than boys throughout adolescence period (Avison, and McAlpine, 1992; Marcotte et al., 2002). Moreover, an extent literature has demonstrated that while depressive feelings are

more likely in girls during adolescence period, boys have greater depressive feelings during pre-adolescence period (Forehand, Neighbors, and Wierson, 1991). In fact, these symptoms are two times more common in girls until the end of the teenage years (Chaplin, Gillham, and Seligman, 2009). Some research focusing on depressive feelings in the face of interparental conflict or divorce have specified similar results coherent with the literature as depressive feelings are higher in girls than boys during adolescence period (Davies, and Windle, 1997; Grych, Harold, and Miles, 2003; Johnston, Gonzalez, and Campbell, 1987).

Secondly, the current study indicated that there is a significant gender difference in loneliness reports of adolescents. Results showed that girls reported more loneliness compared to boys. This finding of the study is also consistent with the related literature. For instance, a longitudinal study conducted on individuals fell in the age range of 13-16 to examine the links between personality traits, loneliness, and depressive feelings demonstrated that girls reported greater depressive feelings and loneliness at all time points (Vanhalst et al., 2012). Lim, Eres, and Peck (2019), carried out a research with the aim of understanding the feeling of loneliness among Australian adolescents who were in middle and late adolescence period and t-test of their study revealed that females reported significantly higher loneliness than males. On the other hand, unlike the current study's results, a study conducted with Turkish high school students who were in middle-adolescence period to examine the roles of peers and families in loneliness levels of adolescents showed that boys are lonelier than girls (Uruk, and Demir, 2003). As a support to this finding, another study investigating the relationships between interparental conflict, family cohesion and loneliness levels of adolescents in late adolescence period have found that males reported greater levels of loneliness (Johnson, LaVoie, and Mahoney, 2001). In addition, Wheeler, Reis, and Nezlek (1983) found similar results for university students in late adolescence period, and showed that males were significantly lonelier than females. As seen, in related literature, there are divergent findings about the gender difference in loneliness. One possible explanation of the present study's findings may lie in the friendship constructions of adolescents, in that boys stated that they have fewer close friends with whom they share private issues without hesitation, however they (62.2 %) still stated that they are not lonely (Rönkä et al., 2014). In contrast to this, girls who have fewer close friends, reported themselves lonelier than boys. Secondly, females have inclination to express their emotions and feelings more frankly than males (Chaplin, 2015), and also females have tendency to more easily express and experience powerless emotions (e.g., sadness), whereas males have tendency to more easily experience and express powerful emotions (e.g., anger) (Brody, Lovas, and Hay, 1995; Fisher et al., 2004). Therefore, in spite of the divergent findings about the gender difference in loneliness, these facts demonstrated in the related literature can be considered as a support to our finding that girls reported more loneliness compared to boys.

Thirdly, the current study indicated that there is a significant gender difference in happiness reports of adolescents. Results showed that boys reported more happiness compared to girls. However, almost all studies in the related literature have demonstrated gender difference in happiness levels among adolescents and emerging adults as nonsignificant (e.g., Chui and Wong, 2015; Francis, 1998; Robbins, Francis, and Edwards, 2010; Mahon, Yarcheski, and Yarcheski, 2005). One possible explanation of our finding was coming from Seligman's (2002) view that although women tend to be happier than men, they also experience sadness with greater intensity than men, and this situation makes up the difference that makes men look like they're happier. Another support for our finding may rest in the well-known fact from the psychology literature that females are more prone to ruminative thinking in the face of stressful life events, which in turn leads to greater depressed mood and negative feelings. For example, studies conducted on adolescents with the aim of investigating gender differences in use of ruminative thinking showed that, girls are more likely to use ruminative approach in response to stressors than boys (Broderick, 1998; Rubenstein et al., 2015). In our study since we have examined the effects of interparental conflict which can be seen as a considerable stressful experience for children, girls may have ruminated more which in turn, makes them unhappier than boys.

In the same way as happiness finding, the present study showed that boys are more psychologically resilient than girls. This finding of the study is coherent with the related literature. A study about big five personality traits was conducted on Japanese adolescents, and it focused on differences in resilience among boy and girls (Limura, and Taku, 2018). Results showed significant gender differences in resilience scores as boys are more psychologically resilient than girls. Moreover, another study conducted to investigate the predictor role of demographic factors and specific childhood

experiences on resilience found that males are significantly more resilient than females (Sills, Forde, and Stein, 2009). In addition, a research that examined psychological resilience among Spanish adolescents indicated that boys reported themselves more resilient than girls (Guilera et al., 2015).

Lastly, research that have interested in gender difference while examining needs frustration generally found nonsignificant results. On contrary, we found significant gender difference for needs frustration and girls have higher scores on this scale. Thus, our finding seems to be incongruent with the related literature. In one of the previous studies carried out on needs frustration, it was found that there was no significant gender difference (Vanhee et al., 2016). It was thought that the incongruency in findings would be explained by using different samples. In this study participants include adolescents who are aged between 14-17 years. However, Vanhee et al. (2016) conducted their study on adult couples. Other studies on needs frustration of adolescents who are in early adolescence or middle adolescence period have analyzed gender differences for the three subscales of needs frustration scale separately, and found complex findings. For example, a study that examined the relationship between needs frustration, anxiety, and perfectionism have found significant gender difference just for competence frustration, as females have higher scores on competence frustration (Hareldsen et al., 2019). Consistent with this study, another research focused on maternal overprotection, needs frustration, internalizing and externalizing problems of adolescents have found that girls have higher scores on competence frustration however, in contrast to previous study, they also found significant gender differences for autonomy and relatedness frustration as boys have higher scores on these two (Petegem et al., 2020). As seen, these studies partially give support to our results, and this partial support may have stem from the fact that, we did not analyze gender differences for all three subscales separately, rather we obtain one composite score for needs frustration scale. To examine maladaptive engagement of students and their academic outcomes, apart from those findings, as a support to present study finding, Collie, Granziera, and Martin (2019) have found significant difference in gender for overall needs frustration scale, in which boys report lower needs frustration. Furthermore, a study about internalizing and externalizing problems of adolescents showed nonsignificant results but despite this, girls have slightly higher scores on needs frustration (Brenning et al., 2022). These variations can be best explained by the well-known fact that, although these three basic needs are accepted as universal, the way in which they are satisfied or frustrated may vary from culture to culture or, from person to person. Therefore, different cultures and even different societies in one culture may shape the perceptions about frustration or satisfaction of needs for females and males.

# 4.2 The Evaluation of the Findings Related to Relationship between Interparental Conflict and Well-and Ill-Being

The relationship between interparental conflict and its' role on children and adolescent well-being have been investigated so far by many scholars. These studies demonstrated that especially, destructive interparental conflict have significant direct effects on adolescents' maladjustment such as development of internalizing (e.g., depression) and externalizing (e.g., aggressive behaviors) problems (Buehler, Lange, and Franck, 2007; Davies, and Cummings, 1998; Fosco and Grych, 2008), causing harm to subjective well-being characterized by happiness and life satisfaction (Fosco, and Feinberg, 2015), or affective well-being (Xin, Chi, and Yu, 2009). Coherent with the literature, the present study's findings showed that direct effects of interparental conflict on depressive feelings, happiness levels, and psychological resilience are significant. However, just for loneliness, it is nonsignificant which is deemed to be an inconsistent result. This inconsistency can be explained by the developmental changes in adolescence period. As well-known characteristics of adolescence period, adolescents want to become independent from their parents, the time they spend with them decreases considerably, while the time they spend with their peers increases (Buhrmester, 1990; Larson, 1983; Steinberg and Morris, 2001). In short, peers and friendships gain more importance than family relationships (Heinrich, and Gullone, 2006). Therefore, whether they feel lonely or not may mostly depend on the quantity and quality of the peer relationships rather than family interactions, and their friendship dynamics may more likely to shape their level of loneliness.

# 4.3 The Evaluation of the Findings Related to Relationship between Interparental Conflict and Cognitive Appraisals as Perceived Threat and Self-Blame

Regarding the wholism principle of Family Systems Theory (Kerr, and Bowen 1988), broader family interaction patterns have an impact on how each of the subsystems in family are functioning. It further asserts that children's perceptions of any type of conflict and their ways to respond are influenced by these particular dimensions of

family functioning. In complementing the Family Systems Theory, cognitive contextual framework (Grych, and Fincham, 1990) indicated that families may also diverge in some features of interparental conflict such as frequency, intensity, and whether there is an adequate resolution or not. Accordingly, adolescents' appraisals may also differ in the face of experienced interparental conflict. It is well-known that frequent, intense, and poorly resolved interparental conflict constitutes destructive form of interparental conflict, and they are related to greater perceived threat and selfblame appraisals (Grych, Seid, and Fincham, 1992). Therefore, firstly, it was hypothesized that interparental conflict would positively predict perceived threat and self-blame appraisals of adolescents. As expected, in all of the eight mediational models that we have tested, interparental conflict positively predicted perceived threat and self-blame appraisals of adolescents. That is to say, the more experiencing frequent, intense, and poorly resolved interparental conflict, the greater perception of threat and self-blame. As mentioned before, this direct association has been examined before by many studies in the direction of cognitive contextual framework proposed by Grych and Fincham (1990). For instance, while examining the impacts of emotional, cognitive, and family systems processes that are stem from interparental conflict on children adjustment, Fosco and Grych (2008) found that children who have been exposed to interparental conflict characterized by more chronic, hostile, and poorly resolved reported greater appraisals of threat and self-blame. Moreover, Fosco and Lydon-Staley (2019) focused on situational appraisals by using daily diary method and investigated whether daily fluctuations in threat and self-blame appraisals of adolescents are linked with daily fluctuations in interparental conflict. As a support to previous study's findings, they demonstrated that daily switches in the quality of interparental relationships like witnessing a dispute or that they losing their temper while arguing are related to increases in perceived threat and self-blame appraisals. In other words, on days when adolescents experienced relentless and more intense interparental conflict, they reported greater threat and self-blame. In addition, related literature has demonstrated that the emotional climate of families considerably influences the overall psychological development of children (Luebbe, and Bell, 2014; Siqueland, Kendall, and Steinberg, 1996; Sim et al., 2009; Schwartz et al., 2012). Morris et al. (2007) indicated that general predictability and emotional stability of the family environment, frequency of the expressiveness of positive and negative emotions during interactions constitutes the emotional climate of families. Therefore,

it can be said that emotional climate of families manifests itself in the quality of relationships among family members and the proportion of exhibited positive and negative emotions of each family members while communicating. Considering all of this, it can be said that frequent, intense, and poorly resolved interparental conflict creates unfavorable and unpredictable perceived emotional climate for children and adolescents because of the extreme emotional reactions of parents. From this point of view and considering cognitive contextual framework's proposition that emotional climate of families shapes the children's perceptions and interpretations of interparental conflict, it can be expected that, this kind of emotional climate stem from interparental conflict in turn, may lead adolescents to attribute more blame to themselves (Fosco, and Grych, 2007) and feel more threatened when conflict occurs. As seen, findings of the literature are consistent with the present study, and together suggesting that interaction patterns of parents, quality of them and related experiences of children shape the meaning of interparental conflict for them.

# 4.4 The Evaluation of the Findings Related to the Mediating Roles of Perceived Threat and Self-Blame Cognitive Appraisals in Relation between Interparental Conflict and Well- and Ill-Being

To discover the mechanisms linking interparental conflict and children adjustment, many researchers have investigated the processes that arise at the time of interparental conflict that may mediate this relationship. As a support to cognitive contextual framework's propositions (Grych, and Fincham, 1990), many of them showed that cognitive appraisals of perceived threat and self-blame mediate this association (Atkinson et al., 2009; Fosco, and Bray, 2016; Fosco, and Lydon-Staley, 2009; Grych et al., 2000; Grych, Harold, and Miles, 2003; Gerard et al., 2005).

In reflecting first part of the proposed model, even we do not have such a hypothesis for the current study, our results showed that the mediating roles of perceived threat and self-blame in relation between interparental conflict and well- and ill-being of adolescents are nonsignificant for all of eight models that we have tested. Supporting our finding, Fosco and Feinberg (2015) have showed that interparental conflict is linked to greater perceived threat over time. However, together with the indirect path, association between threat appraisals of adolescents and their subjective well-being as happiness and life satisfaction levels are nonsignificant. Although one of the findings of this study is in line with our finding, still the present study's result is not consistent

with most of the related literature as reviewed above. This inconsistency between results can be explained by distal context factors specified by cognitive contextual framework (Grych, and Fincham, 1990) and it indicates that they have an impact on responses of children to interparental conflict. As one of the distal context factors, the past experiences with conflict can be defined as any type of conflict such as marital conflict, parent-child conflict or sibling conflicts that shape children's perception, evaluation and susceptibility to interparental conflict, and build expectations about the conflict process. Interparental conflict is a complex and complicated experience especially for younger children because they have difficulty to understand that individuals may bear both positive and negative emotions to someone. For example, they usually blame themselves for the rage of their mothers (Covell, and Abramovitch, 1987), and impairments in marital relationship like divorce (Kurdek, and Berg, 1987; Sheets, Sandler, and West, 1996). Therefore, it can be said that the impact of past experiences on children's processing of interparental conflict is shaped by memory capabilities of children which advance with age and shaped by the parents' explanations (Ornstein, Haden, and Hedrick, 2004). Together with this, how well children make sense of their parents' explanations is linked to their cognitive development (Muris et al., 2002; Piaget, 1976). Considering all, since the present study's sample is consisting of adolescents who are in middle adolescence period, rather than blaming themselves, using their sophisticated cognitive abilities and memory capabilities, they can take into consideration other possible and alternative factors that might cause conflict or lead to its' lack of resolution. In addition, since younger children are unable to make head of the possible consequences of interparental conflict, they may fear much more and perceive more threat. However, adolescents can evaluate consequences of the interparental conflict from broader perspective and in a more realistic way which may in turn, result in diminished perception of threat. Therefore, the inconsistency between findings may be related to age and developmental level related factors, and adolescents' diminished well-being in the presence of interparental conflict may be mediated by some other factors together with cognitive appraisals.

### 4.5 The Evaluation of the Findings Related to the Mediating Role of Need Frustration in Relation between Interparental Conflict and Well-and Ill-Being

In support of self-determination theory and research which assert that basic psychological needs frustration leads to greater ill-being and diminished well-being (Patrick et al., 2007; Ryan, and Deci, 2000; Vansteenkiste, Ryan, and Soenens, 2020), the present study's results showed that in all eight models that we have tested, needs frustration positively predicted ill-being outcomes as depressive feelings and loneliness, and negatively predicted well-being outcomes as happiness and psychological resilience levels of adolescents. It means that when adolescents experience more frustration of needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, they experience greater depressive feelings and higher levels of loneliness while also, diminished levels of happiness and psychological resilience.

In reflecting second part of the proposed model, even we do not have such a hypothesis for the present study, our results showed that the mediating role of needs frustration in relation between interparental conflict and well- and ill-being of adolescents is significant in all of eight models that we have tested. That is to say, interparental conflict experienced by adolescents predict the frustration of their needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness which in turn, related to greater levels of depressive feelings and loneliness, and diminished levels of happiness and psychological resilience. These results are in line with the spillover hypothesis which indicates that because of the interparental conflict, parents are more occupied with their problematic issues, become less interested in the needs of their children, and they have a tendency to reflect offending experiences stem from their spousal relationship to their parentchild relationship (Erel, and Burman, 1995; Stroud et al., 2011). In addition, Emery and O'Leary (1982) stated that since parents become more busy with their own wounded emotionality, conflict between parents may lead to lack of affection that inhibit children's need for relatedness, emotional closeness and acceptance which in turn, may lead to adjustment problems. Moreover, results are also meaningful from the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977) perspective because children usually observe their parents and learn how to behave in the face of some situations through modeling. Therefore, through observing their parents' behaviors and problem-solving styles when they are in a conflict, they may not have a chance to satisfy their basic needs

which in turn, may make them to experience more loneliness (Asher, and Wheeler, 1985) and depressive feelings (Platt, Kadosh, and Lau, 2013).

Apart from related literature reviewed above, studies that have investigated specifically this relationship from the basic psychological need perspective is very limited. In line with our findings, positive relationship between interparental conflict and needs frustration is recently examined by a study investigating the link between interparental conflict and autonomy-supportive parenting (Koçak et al., 2020). They showed that lower levels of interparental conflict predicted need satisfaction, which in turn, positively related to maternal autonomy support. Another recently conducted retrospective study have examined whether and how interparental conflict experienced in childhood and adolescence is related to depressive feelings experienced in early adulthood period (Zhen et al., 2022). They focused on the mediating role of psychological needs satisfaction in relation between interparental conflict and depressive feelings, and found that interparental conflict predicted less psychological need satisfaction which in turn predicted greater depressive feelings. In brief, considering these two studies and extensive literature mentioned above, it is clear that the present study's findings are coherent with the literature. This result can also be considered as a support for our main mediation model, because to touch on gaps in understanding the psychological processes underlying cognitive contextual framework exactly, we decided to make use of self-determination theory and it's needs perspective as a framework for describing how and why interparental conflict may be associated with well- and ill-being of adolescents.

# 4.6 The Evaluation of the Findings Related to the Sequential Mediating Roles of Perceived Threat and Self-Blame Cognitive Appraisals and Need Frustration in Relation between Interparental Conflict and Well- and Ill-Being

To date, studies have investigated the beliefs of children and adolescents about the causes and consequences of interparental conflict, however provided no explanation concerning why children and adolescents who are experiencing more threat and self-blame in the face of interparental conflict may experience greater ill-being and diminished well-being. That is to say, in the light of cognitive contextual framework, many researchers and clinicians have examined the intervening roles of perceived threat and self-blame in relation between interparental conflict and child adjustment, and found that these two cognitive appraisals mediate this association (Fosco, and

Bray, 2016; Fosco, Deboard, and Grych, 2007; Fosco, and Lydon-Staley, 2019; McDonald, and Grych, 2006; Fosco, and Grych, 2008; Grych et al., 2000; Grych, Harold, and Miles, 2003; Gerard et al., 2005). However, to our knowledge, there is no any study in the literature which incorporates a second mediator such as needs frustration into this common mediation model by considering self-determination theory. Therefore, guided by self-determination theory and research, also by examining the mediating role of needs frustration, we made an expansion on this common mediation pathway that have examined many times from the cognitive contextual framework point of view.

For the present study, it was hypothesized that cognitive appraisals as perceived threat and self-blame and basic psychological needs frustration would sequentially play significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and well-being outcomes that are determined as happiness and psychological resilience. Moreover, again cognitive appraisals as perceived threat and self-blame and basic psychological needs frustration would sequentially play significant intervening roles in relation between interparental conflict and ill-being outcomes that are determined as depressive feelings and loneliness. As we expected, findings of our totally eight serial mediation models supported our hypotheses and firstly, showed that interparental conflict is associated with happiness and psychological resilience levels of adolescents through the sequence of perceived threat and needs frustration. Additionally, interparental conflict is associated with depressive feelings and loneliness of adolescents via the sequence of perceived threat and needs frustration. Secondly, interparental conflict is associated with happiness and psychological resilience levels of adolescents through the sequence of self-blame and needs frustration. Furthermore, interparental conflict is associated with depressive feelings and loneliness of adolescents via the sequence of self-blame and needs frustration.

The cognitive-contextual framework focuses on how children and adolescents try to make sense of destructive interactions between their parents such as frequent, intense, and poorly resolved interparental conflict. Accordingly, as mentioned previously, many scholars have found that such interparental conflict predicts perceived threat (Atkinson et al., 2009; MacNeill, and Fosco, 2022) and self-blame (DeBoard-Lucas et al., 2010; Kim et al., 2008) appraisals of children and adolescents. However, in the face of such stressor, along with cognitive processes, some other factors that contain

emotional, physiological, or behavioral processes may also shape the effects of interparental conflict on adolescents. Despite this known fact, it is still not clear why interparental conflict is a critical stressor for adolescents to such an extent. When the literature is examined, attachment theory (Bowlby, 1969) provides one of the answers related to this issue. It emphasizes the needs of children and asserts that optimal functioning such as development of self-esteem, sense of well-being, vitality or appropriate emotion regulation strategies is achieved by secure attachment which is formed when the needs of children are met consistently by the caregivers (La Guardia et al., 2000). The degree of responsive attitudes, sensitivity, and availability of parents to young children's needs shape their expectations about caregivers as caring and credible which in turn, constitutes a belief that self is precious and valued (Bartholomew, and Horowitz, 1991). Moreover, fulfillment of needs is also considered as vital for health and happiness by Maslow (1954). He focuses on physiological and safety needs as basic needs as well as love, belongingness, and esteem needs, that is psychological needs. Although in his pyramid, Maslow states that the hierarchy is not too rigid and the order of fulfillment can change accordingly with the priority of needs for different individuals, basic needs stay at the bottom while psychological needs are at the top, and once basic needs have been met individuals can progress up the psychological needs. For instance, a study that focused on needs from Maslow's theory and examined their relation with university students' happiness level have found that psychological needs, especially love and belonging needs mostly contribute to the feeling of happiness (Pettijohn, and Pettijohn, 1996). Considering all of these, it can be said that whether psychological needs are fulfilled or not in the face of any experience have great importance for adolescents to be happy and psychologically resilient rather than being depressed and alone. Furthermore, these theories which have been given importance to needs and related research supported our thoughts and findings. In that, guided by basic psychological needs theory, we proposed that when adolescents experience interparental conflict and perceive threat to their well-being, one of the family members or the intactness of the family, and blame themselves for causing it or its' lack of resolution, they experience greater depressive feelings and loneliness, and they become less happy and less psychologically resilient because their psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness are frustrated. To illustrate, during interparental conflict, adolescents actually may not want to be involved in conflict. However, since they may blame themselves for causing it, they

may feel compelled to get involved and somehow to solve it. In addition to this, when they perceive a high threat during interparental conflict, again they may feel compelled to get involved in conflict situation with the aim of defusing the tension or preventing someone from getting hurt. While trying to do these things, they may behave in a way they do not want, they may have to take their mother or father's side, and take more responsibility than necessary. As a result, all of this may lead to frustration of their autonomy needs. As another example, when they blame themselves for leading to interparental conflict, they may want to resolve it but they are not always able to do it, so they cannot prevent it from proceeding. In addition, sometimes they perceive the threat so strong that they are afraid to get involved because they may feel defenseless, vulnerable, and powerless in the face of threat. Consequently, these situations may damage their self- efficacy as well as lead to frustration of their competence needs. Lastly, as we know, perceiving threat is related to the fear that family unity will be disrupted or that one of the family members will be harmed psychologically or physically. This situation may probably prevent adolescents to feel safe and secure when they are together with their families or that they are connected with deep bonds. Moreover, we know that parents' expressions and attitudes during the interparental conflict have a great impact on shaping the self-blame appraisals of adolescents. As a result, most of the time, they cannot feel loved and belonging in such an environment around them which leads their need for relatedness to be frustrated. Deci and Ryan (2000) posit that when examined theoretically, these three basic psychological needs are accepted as distinct constructs. However, when examined empirically, it can be said that they are interrelated. Thus, if one need is frustrated, this may hinder process of adequately satisfaction of other needs and all together may impede the well-being of adolescents. In line with this, all of the experiences discussed above may pave the way for increased depressive feelings and loneliness as well as decreased levels of happiness and psychological resilience among adolescents.

#### 4.7 Limitations of the Present Study and Future Directions

These findings should be evaluated by taking into account several limitations. Firstly, since it is a cross-sectional design, it is not possible to fully understand the persistence and stability of the emotional states of adolescents such as happiness levels and depressive feelings because in family environments, the interaction patterns or frequency and intensity of the conflicts may change within time. Also, accordingly,

changes in cognitive appraisals and level of needs frustration of adolescents can be observed. In addition, although mediational models assume causal relationships between variables, still accurate inferences about causal relations between interparental conflict, mediators as cognitive appraisals and needs frustration and well-and ill-being outcomes cannot be made. Therefore, since it is not possible to generalize and make temporal and causal inferences, longitudinal studies or diary studies examining the stated relations would be effective in eliminating these problems mentioned above.

Secondly, since the gender distribution was not equal in our study and female participants are nearly twice as likely as male participants, the findings related to gender difference should be interpreted suspiciously. Thus, future studies that include more participants with equal numbers of female and male participants will contribute to the literature in this respect. Therefore, balancing the participant characteristics in terms of gender will give them a chance to make more clear inferences about the gender comparisons.

Thirdly, we relied on self-report data from adolescents. However, it is known that for studies that include marital and child variables, it is better to obtain data from multiple informants to increase the reliability of the gathered information (Atkinson et al., 2009). Therefore, to obtain a more complete view of family functioning, future studies should incorporate parent reports as well.

Furthermore, in the present study, we included adolescents from middle-adolescence period characterized by ages between 14-17 years and half of them were attending eleventh grade. Therefore, our findings are not generalizable to children in different age groups. Prior research claimed that as age increases cognitive abilities get sophisticated which in turn affects children's understanding and evaluation of interparental conflict, as well as their perception of threat and attribution of self-blame (Grych, and Fincham, 1990; Jouriles et al., 2000). That's why, future studies may complement our analyses and findings by examining other age groups such as early and late adolescence periods.

Lastly, future studies had better focus on the impacts of family context on children and adolescents' appraisals of interparental conflict and related responses to it. For instance, marital satisfaction, prior experiences with divorce or conflict, parent-child

relationships, socioeconomic status, number of siblings and birth order may have a considerable effect on adolescents' evaluations of the conflict (Grych, and Fincham 1993) and their level of needs frustration (Costa et al., 2015). Therefore, future studies may also consider further mediating roles of the stated variables or moderating roles of these stated demographics.

#### **CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION**

In the present study, it was examined that whether cognitive appraisals and need frustration served as significant mediating mechanisms in the link between interparental conflict and adolescent well- and ill-being. The aim of the current study was to further advance cognitive contextual framework by drawing on selfdetermination theory to identify cognitive appraisals (i.e., perceived threat and selfblame) that may account for the link between interparental conflict and adolescent well- and ill-being. Consistent with the cognitive contextual framework and selfdetermination theory, our findings indicated that perceived threat and self-blame as well as need frustration explained the link between interparental conflict and adolescent well-being (i.e., happiness and psychological resilience) and ill-being (i.e., depressive feelings and loneliness). Moreover, in support of the self-determination theory, in accordance with our main hypotheses, the mediation analyses revealed that adolescent need frustration served as an explanatory mechanism in the links among greater perceived threat and self-blame and diminished happiness and psychological resilience and greater depressive feelings and loneliness. That is, adolescents who are exposed frequent, intense and poorly resolved interparental conflict, perceived more threat and blamed themselves more, which in turn related to greater frustration of their needs and consequently, associated with diminished happiness and psychological resilience, as well as increased depressive feelings and loneliness. The current study is the first one which examine the relations among interparental conflict, cognitive appraisals (i.e., perceived threat and self-blame), need frustration, well-being (i.e., happiness and psychological resilience), and ill-being (i.e., depressive feelings and loneliness) by considering self-determination theory as a way to further inform cognitive contextual framework's propositions. Therefore, from theoretical perspective, present study adopted a multifaceted approach and investigated the joint role of the interparental conflict, perceived threat, self-blame and need frustration on well- and ill-being. Moreover, from the statistical perspective, a process model was tested with a mediation analysis which allowed us to test the sequential mediating roles of cognitive appraisals (i.e., perceived threat and self-blame) and need frustration in relation between interparental conflict and adolescent well- and ill-being (happiness and psychological resilience as well-being measures; depressive feelings and loneliness as ill-being measures). Furthermore, to address the predominant inclusion of Western samples in family research, we conducted our study with a non-Western sample of families that consisted of Turkish adolescents. Therefore, conducting the present study with a non-Western sample enables us to test generalizability of our predictions regarding cognitive contextual framework and self-determination theory propositions. In conclusion, supporting the generalizability of both cognitive contextual framework and the self-determination theory, our results revealed a similar pattern of relationships among study variables stated in previous research.

#### 5.1 Clinical Implications

This study proposes that interparental conflict has an indirect effect on adolescents' well- and ill-being that operates through their perceived threat and self-blame appraisals and frustration of their basic psychological needs. This finding is useful in order to develop prevention and intervention implementations with the goal of decreasing the detrimental impacts of interparental conflict on well-being of adolescents. The teachers and families of adolescents, the professionals who are working with them may benefit from our study in terms of understanding the nature of underlaying psychological processes related to their well-being when they being exposed to interparental conflict.

#### 5.1.1 Suggestions for Families and School Counselors in High Schools

In high schools, school counselors may organize seminars for parents about the effects of interparental conflict on adolescent well-being by explaining the roles of cognitive appraisals and basic psychological needs. They may explain need supportive rather than need frustrating attitudes and guide them about the need supportive way of behaving towards their children. Although it is not possible to completely prevent interparental conflict from occurring, educating parents about the properties of conflict and their effects on adolescents' appraisals would be beneficial, because rather than showing hostile behaviors and placing adolescents in the middle of parental arguments while trying to solve the conflict, carrying out calm discussions and more constructive problem solving strategies may be helpful for minimizing threat appraisal and self-blaming attributions, which in turn may be helpful to minimize the frustration of their basic psychological needs that are directly related to adolescents' well- and ill-being. Through such psychoeducation, even if interparental conflict happens, families may learn to become more sensitive to their children's needs with the aid of their increased awareness about psychological processes of adolescents, which may in turn, foster

their children's well-being. Therefore, it is important for families to take part in such seminars organized by school counselors.

#### 5.1.2 Suggestions for Psychotherapists Working with Adolescents

In clinical practice such as therapy processes with adolescents, interventions may incorporate the practices that withstand to the incorrect beliefs of adolescents about their responsibility in parental disputes and in order to deal with interparental conflict, helping them to develop functional coping strategies that will foster their self-efficacy. Additionally, while working with adolescents who are experiencing interparental conflict, psychologists may firstly work towards understanding the unmet needs and then trying to satisfy these needs in the therapy process or incorporate parents into the therapy process and inform them about the critical function of the satisfaction of basic psychological needs on their children's well-being. In addition, they may guide parents about how to prevent these needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness from frustration in the face of interparental conflict situations.

Consequently, the information that adolescents become more depressed and alone, as well as less happy and psychologically resilient because of the frustration of their basic psychological needs when they perceive more threat and attribute more blame to themselves in the presence of interparental conflict has important contributions both to the literature and clinical practice. It is expected that the present study may pave the way for further research to examine and explain the role of interparental conflict on adolescent well-being by considering and combining the cognitive contextual framework and the self-determination theory.

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#### **APPENDICES**

#### Appendix A. Ethhics Committee Approval

SAYI: B.30.2. EÜ.0.05.05-020-168

18.11.2021

KONU: Etik Kurul Kararı hk.

Sayın Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Aylin Koçak ve Melis Sağlam,

"The Intervening Roles of Cognitive Appraisals and Besic Psychological Needs in Relationship Between Perceived Interparental Conflict and Adolescent Well-Being and III-Being" başlıklı projenizin etik uygunluğu konusundaki başvurunuz sonuclanmıştır.

Etik Kurulumuz 18.11.2021 tarihinde sizin başvurunuzun da içinde bulunduğu bir gündemle toplanmış ve Etik Kurul üyeleri projeleri incelemiştir.

Sonuçta 18.11.2021 tarihinde "The Intervening Roles of Cognitive Appraisals and Besic Psychological Needs in Relationship Between Perceived Interparental Conflict and Adolescent Well-Being and III-Being" konulu projenizin etik açıdan uygun olduğuna oy birliğiyle karar verilmiştir.

Gereği için bilgilerinize sunarım.

Saygılarımla,

Prof. Dr. Murat Bengisu Etik Kurul Başkanı

#### Appendix B. Parental Consent Form

Bu çalışma, İzmir Ekonomi Üniversitesi bünyesinde, Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans programı kapsamında, Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Aylin Koçak danışmanlığında Zeynep Melis Sağlam tarafından yürütülmektedir. Bu form sizi çalışma koşulları hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıştır.

#### Çalışmanın Amacı Nedir?

Bu çalışmanın amacı, liseye devam eden gençlerin içerisinde bulundukları aile ilişkilerine, bu ilişkilerdeki çatışmalara ve temel ihtiyaçlarına yönelik tutumlarını incelemektir. Bu bağlamda çocuğunuza ev ortamındaki çatışma, bu çatışmaları nasıl yorumladıkları, temel ihtiyaçlar ve belli sonuç değişkenler (depresif duygu durumu ve mutluluk gibi) ile ilgili sorular yöneltilecektir.

#### **Bize Nasıl Yardımcı Olursunuz?**

Bu aşamada, çocuklarınızın sadece 5-10 dakikasını alacak kısa anketimizi doldurması istenecektir. Soruları çocuklarınızın kendi başlarına cevaplaması ve cevaplarken samimi yanıtlar vermesi çalışma sonuçlarının doğruluğu ve güvenilirliği açısından çok önemlidir.

#### Çocuklarınızdan Topladığımız Bilgileri Nasıl Kullanacağız?

Çocuklarınızın verdikleri yanıtlardan elde edilen bilgiler, tamamen gizli tutulacak, bu bilgilere yalnızca araştırmacılar ulaşabilecektir. Katılımcıların kimliğini gizli tutmak şartıyla elde edilecek bilgiler toplu halde değerlendirilecek, sonuçlar ise bilimsel yayınlarda veya eğitim amaçlı olarak kullanılabilecektir.

#### Cocuğunuzun Katılımı ile İlgili Bilmeniz Gerekenler:

Bu çalışmaya çocuğunuzun katılımı tamamıyla gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır ve sizin bilginiz dahilinde olmalıdır. Anket genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, soruları cevaplarken ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden dolayı kendisini rahatsız hissetmesi durumunda çalışmaya katılmayı reddedebilir, cevaplama işini yarıda bırakabilir.

Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Zeynep Melis Sağlam ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz

	Bu çalışmaya çocuğumun katılmasına izin veriyorum.							
Verdiği bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.								
Evet								
Hayır	П							

#### Appendix C. Participant Consent Form

Bu çalışma, İzmir Ekonomi Üniversitesi bünyesinde, Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans programı kapsamında, Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Aylin Koçak danışmanlığında Zeynep Melis Sağlam tarafından yürütülmektedir. Bu form sizi çalışma koşulları hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıştır.

#### Çalışmanın Amacı Nedir?

Bu çalışmanın amacı, liseye devam eden gençlerin içerisinde bulundukları aile ilişkilerine, bu ilişkilerdeki çatışmalara ve temel ihtiyaçlarına yönelik tutumlarını incelemektir. Bu bağlamda sizlere ev ortamındaki çatışma, bu çatışmaları nasıl yorumladığınız, temel ihtiyaçlar ve belli sonuç değişkenler (depresif duygu durumu ve mutluluk gibi) ile ilgili sorular yöneltilecektir.

#### **Bize Nasıl Yardımcı Olursunuz?**

Bu aşamada, sadece 5-10 dakikanızı alacak kısa anketimizi doldurmanız istenecektir. Soruları kendi başınıza cevaplamanız ve cevaplarken samimi yanıtlar vermeniz çalışma sonuçlarının doğruluğu ve güvenilirliği açısından çok önemlidir. Bu sebeple lütfen sizin için en doğru olan yanıtı veriniz.

#### Sizden Topladığımız Bilgileri Nasıl Kullanacağız?

Verdiğiniz yanıtlardan elde edilen bilgiler, tamamen gizli tutulacak, bu bilgilere yalnızca araştırmacılar ulaşabilecektir. Katılımcıların kimliğini gizli tutmak şartıyla elde edilecek bilgiler toplu halde değerlendirilecek, sonuçlar ise bilimsel yayınlarda veya eğitim amaçlı olarak kullanılabilecektir.

#### Katılımınızla İlgili Bilmeniz Gerekenler:

Bu çalışmaya katılımınız tamamıyla gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır ve ailenizin bilgisi dahilinde olmalıdır. Anket genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, soruları cevaplarken ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden dolayı kendinizi rahatsız hissetmeniz durumunda çalışmaya katılmayı reddedebilir, cevaplama işini yarıda bırakabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Zeynep Melis Sağlam ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz

Bu	çalışmaya	ailemin	de	onayını	alarak,	tamamen	gönüllü	olarak	katılıyorum
Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.									
Eve	t 🔲								
Hay	ır 🔲								

### Appendix D. Demographic Information Form

1.Cinsiyetiniz (Sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)							
- Kadın 🔲							
- Erkek							
- Belirtmek istemiyorum.							
2.Doğum Yılınız: (Örn: 2005)							
3.Sınıfınız (Sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)							
- 9 🔲							
- 10							
- 11 🔲	-11 🔲						
- 12	- 12						
4. Aile Durumunuz (Sadece bir seçeneği	4. Aile Durumunuz (Sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)						
- Evli, anne-baba birlikte yaşıyor.							
- Evli, anne-baba ayrı yaşıyor.							
- Boşanmış, anne-baba birlikte yaşıyor.							
- Boşanmış, çocuk anne ile yaşıyor.							
- Boşanmış, çocuk baba ile yaşıyor.							
- Boşanmış, çocuk akraba ile yaşıyor.							
5.Kendinizi hangi gelir grubunda görüyorsunuz? (Sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)							
- Alt gelir grubunda							
- Ortanın altı gelir grubunda							
- Orta gelir grubunda							
- Ortanın üstü gelir grubunda							
- Üst gelir grubunda							

6.Anneniz aktif olarak bir işte çalışı seçeneğini işaretleyiniz.) (Sadece tek	yor mu? (Anneniz ev hanımı ise lütfen "hayır" bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)
- Evet	
- Hayır 🔲	
7.Babanız aktif olarak bir işte çalışıy	or mu? (Sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)
- Evet	
- Hayır 🔲	
8. Annenizin eğitim durumu (Sadece	bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)
- İlkokul Mezunu	
- Ortaokul Mezunu	
- Lise Mezunu	
- Yüksekokul Mezunu (2 yıllık)	
- Üniversite Mezunu (4 yıllık)	
- Yüksek Lisans Mezunu	
- Doktora Mezunu	
9.Babanızın eğitim durumu (Sadece	bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)
- İlkokul Mezunu	
- Ortaokul Mezunu	
- Lise Mezunu	
- Yüksekokul Mezunu (2 yıllık)	
- Üniversite Mezunu (4 yıllık)	
- Yüksek Lisans Mezunu	
- Doktora Mezunu	
10.Yaşadığınız Şehir	

11. Evinizde anne, baba ve kardeş(ler)iniz dişinda sızınle yaşayan biri(leri) var mi? (Sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)
- Evet
- Hayır 🔲
12.Cevabınız "Evet" ise bu kişinin size olan yakınlığını yazınız. (örn. Anneanne)
13.Kaç kardeşiniz var? (Sizden büyük ve/veya küçük kardeşlerinizin toplam sayısını yazınız.) Kardeşiniz yoksa "0" seçeneğini işaretleyiniz. (Sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)
- 0 🗆
-1 🗆
- 2 🗆
- 3 □
- 4 🗆
- 5 □
- 6 □
- 7 🗆
- 8 🗆
- 9 □
- 10+ □
14.Kaçıncı kardeşsiniz? Kardeşiniz yoksa "0" seçeneğini işaretleyiniz. (Sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)
- 0 🗆
_ 1 □

- 2 □
- 3 □
- 4 □
- 5 □
- 6 □
- 7 🗆
- 8 🗆
- 9 □
- 10 □
15.Herhangi bir engeliniz ya da öğrenme güçlüğünüz var mı? (Sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz)
- Evet
- Hayır 🔲

## Appendix E. Conflict Properties Subscale of The The Children's Perception Of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC)

Her ailede anne ve babanın anlaşamadığı, tartıştığı zamanlar olur. Biz de sizin anne ve babanızın tartışmalarının sıklığı, yoğunluğu ve çözümü ile ilgili neler düşündüğünüzü öğrenmek istiyoruz.

Eğer anne ve babanız birlikte, sizinle aynı evde yaşamıyorsa, sorulara, aynı evde yaşarken anlaşamadıkları zamanları düşünerek cevap veriniz.

Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyup Doğru, Bazen/Biraz Doğru, Yanlış cevaplarından size uygun olanını işaretleyiniz. (Her satırda sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz.)

	Doğru	Bazen/Biraz doğru	Yanlış
1.Anne-babamın tartıştıklarını hiç görmedim.			
2.Anne-babam tartıştıklarında genellikle sorunu çözerler.			
3. Anne-babam tartışırken çıldırmış gibi olurlar.			
4.Anne-babam benim fark ettiğimi bilmiyorlar ama onlar çok tartışırlar.			
5.Anne-babamın tartışmaları bittikten sonra bile birbirlerine olan kızgınlıkları devam eder.			
6.Anne-babam bir anlaşmazlıkları olduğunda sakince konuşurlar.			
7.Anne-babam yanlarında ben olsam bile birbirlerine sık sık kötü davranırlar.			
8. Anne-babamı sık sık tartışırken görürüm.			
9.Anne-babam bir konu hakkında anlaşamadıklarında genellikle bir çözüm bulurlar.			
10. Anne-babam çok az tartışırlar.			
11.Anne-babam tartıştıklarında genellikle hemen barışırlar.			
12.Anne-babam evde sıkça birbirlerinden şikayet ederler.			
13. Anne-babam tartışırken çok az bağırırlar.			
14.Anne-babam tartışırken bir şeyler kırar veya fırlatırlar.			
15.Anne-babam tartışmaları bittikten sonra birbirlerine arkadaşça davranırlar.			
16.Anne-babam tartışırken birbirlerini itip kakarlar.			
17.Anne-babam tartışmaları bittikten sonra birbirlerine kötü davranmaya devam ederler.			

18.Anne-babam tartıştıklarında birbirlerine kötü şeyler söylerler.					
19.Anne-babam bağırırlar.	tartıştıklarında	çok	fazla		

## Appendix F. Perceived Threat and Self-Blame Subscales of The Children's Perception of Interparental Conflict Scale (CPIC)

Her ailede anne ve babanın anlaşamadığı, tartıştığı zamanlar olur. Anne-babaları tartıştığı zaman çocuklar çok farklı duygular yaşarlar. Biz de sizin anne ve babanız tartıştığında neler hissettiğinizi öğrenmek istiyoruz.

Eğer anne ve babanız birlikte, sizinle aynı evde yaşamıyorsa, sorulara, aynı evde yaşarken anlaşamadıkları zamanları düşünerek cevap veriniz.

Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyup Doğru, Bazen/Biraz Doğru, Yanlış cevaplarından size uygun olanını işaretleyiniz. (Her satırda sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz.)

	Doğru	Bazen/Biraz doğru	Yanlış
1. Anne-babam tartıştıklarında korkarım.			
2. Anne-babamın tartışmaları benim suçum değil.			
3. Anne-babam tartıştıklarında bana ne olacak diye endişelenirim.			
4. Anne-babamın tartışmaları genellikle benim suçumdur.			
5. Anne-babam tartıştıklarında kötü bir şey olacak diye korkarım.			
6. Anne-babam tartıştıklarında, söylemeseler bile suçlu benim.			
7. Anne-babam tartıştıklarında ikisinden birine zarar gelecek diye korkarım.			
8. Anne-babam tartıştıklarında bana da bağıracaklarından korkarım.			
9. Anne-babam tartıştıklarında beni suçlarlar.			
10. Anne-babam tartıştıklarında boşanabilirler diye korkarım.			
11. Anne-babamın tartışmaları genellikle benim hatam değildir.			

# Appendix G. Basic Psychological Need Frustration Subscale of Basic Psychological Need Satisfaction and Frustration Scale (BPNSNF)

Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyup size uygun olanını işaretleyiniz. (Her satırda sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz.)

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle				Tamamen
katılmıyorum				katılıyorum

					_
1. Yaptigim	1	2	3	4	5
seylerin cogunu					
"yapmak					
zorundaymisim"					
gibi hissederim.					
2. Yapmak	1	2	3	4	5
istemeyecegim					
pek cok seyi					
yapmak					
zorundaymisim					
gibi hissederim					
3. Çok fazla şey	1	2	3	4	5
yapma					
konusunda baskı					
hissederim.					
4. Gündelik	1	2	3	4	5
işlerim art arda					
gelen					
zorunluluklarmış					
gibi hissettiriyor.					
5. İçinde olmak	1	2	3	4	5
istedigim					
gruptan					
dislandigimi					
hissederim.					
6. Benim için	1	2	3	4	5
önemli olan					
insanların bana					
karşı soğuk ve					
mesafeli					
olduğunu					
hissederim.					
7. Zaman	1	2	3	4	5
geçirdiğim					
insanların beni					
sevmedikleri					
izlenimine					
sahibim.					
	Ī	I	1	1	

0 T7 1 ×					_
8. Kurduğum	1	2	3	4	5
ilişkilerin					
yüzeysel					
olduğunu					
hissederim.					
9. Bir şeyleri iyi	1	2	3	4	5
уарір					
yapamayacağım					
konusunda ciddi					
kuşkularım var.					
10. Yaptığım	1	2	3	4	5
şeylerin çoğunda					
hayal kırıklığına					
uğradığımı					
hissederim.					
11.	1	2	3	4	5
Yeteneklerim					
konusunda					
güvensizlik					
hissederim.					
12. Yaptigim	1	2	3	4	5
hatalar					
yuzunden					
kendimi					
başarısız biri					
gibi hissederim					

## Appendix H. The Center for Epidemiologic Studies-Depression Scale (CES-D-10)

(Her satırda sadece bir seçeneğe "x" işareti koyarak işaretleyiniz)

Geçtiğimiz bir kaç hafta boyunca...

	Nadiren (Günde 1 defadan az)	Çok az (1-2 gün)	Ara sıra (3-4 gün)	Her zaman (5-7 gün)
<ol> <li> Normalde canımı sıkmayan şeyler canımı sıkmaya başladı.</li> </ol>				
<ol> <li>Aklımı yaptığım işe vermede zorluk çektim.</li> </ol>				
3 Bunalımdayım.				
4 Yaptığım her şeyi kendimi zorlayarak yaptığımı hissettim.				
5 Gelecekle ilgili umutlu hissettim.				
6 Korku içindeyim.				
7 Uykum düzensizdi.				
8 Mutluydum.				
9 Yalnızdım.				
10 Bir şeye başlayamıyordum.				

#### Appendix I. Short Form of the UCLA Loneliness Scale (ULS-8)

Aşağıdaki ölçekte kendinize ilişkin bir dizi ifade bulunmaktadır. Bu ifadelerde yer alan durumu ne sıklıkta hissettiğinizi ve yaşadığınızı gösteren cevaplardan hangisi size daha çok uyuyorsa o durumun altında yer alan parantezin içine bir çarpı "X" işareti koyunuz.

Lütfen her soru için tek bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz ve hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız.

		Hiç	Nadiren	Bazen	Her zaman
1.	Arkadaşım yok.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
2.	Başvurabileceğim kimse yok.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
3.	Kendimi grubun dışına itilmiş hissediyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
4.	Kendimi diğer insanlardan soyutlanmış hissediyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
5.	İstediğim zaman arkadaş bulabilirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
6.	Bu derece içime kapanmış olmaktan dolayı mutsuzum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
7.	Çevremde insanlar var ama benimle değiller.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)

## Appendix J. Short Form of Oxford Happiness Questionnaire (OHQ-SF)

Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyup size uygun olanını işaretleyiniz. (Her satırda sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz.)

	Hiç Katılmıyor- um	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyor- um
1.Kendimden hoşnut değilim.	1	2	3	4	5
2.Hayatın çok ödüllendirici olduğunu hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
3.Hayatımdaki her şeyden oldukça memnunum.	1	2	3	4	5
4.Çevremdeki güzelliklerin farkına varırım.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Yapmak istediğim her şeye zaman bulabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
6.Zihinsel olarak kendimi tamamen zinde (dinç) hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
7.Geçmişle ilgili mutlu anılara sahip değilim.	1	2	3	4	5

## Appendix K. Brief Resilience Scale (BRS)

Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyup size uygun olanını işaretleyiniz. (Her satırda sadece bir seçeneği işaretleyiniz.)

	Hiç Uygun Değil	Uygun Değil	Biraz Uygun	Uygun	Tamamen Uygun
1.Sıkıntılı zamanlardan sonra kendimi çabucak toparlayabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
2.Stresli olayların üstesinden gelmekte güçlük çekerim	1	2	3	4	5
3.Stresli durumlardan sonra kendime gelmem uzun zaman almaz	1	2	3	4	5
4.Kötü bir şeyler olduğunda bunu atlatmak benim için zordur.	1	2	3	4	5
5.Zor zamanları çok az sıkıntıyla atlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5
6.Hayatımdaki olumsuzlukların etkisinden kurtulmam uzun zaman alır.	1	2	3	4	5

#### Appendix L. Participant Information Form

Araştırmaya vakit ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Bu araştırmanın amacı 14-17 yaş arası lise öğrencilerinin iyi oluş/ kötü oluş halleri ile algılanan ebeveyn çatışması arasındaki ilişkide temel ihtiyaçların ve bilişsel değerlendirmelerin aracı rolünün anlaşılmasıdır. Bu doğrultuda sizlere ev ortamındaki çatışma, bu çatışmaları nasıl yorumladığınız, temel ihtiyaçlar ve depresif duygu durumu, mutluluk gibi belli sonuç değişkenler ile ilgili sorular yöneltilmiştir.

Çalışma hakkında ve çalışma sonuçlarıyla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz Zeynep Melis Sağlam ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya katılımınız ve katkılarınız için teşekkür ederiz.