



**THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EMOTION REGULATION
STRATEGIES IN RELATION BETWEEN ATTACHMENT
SECURITY AND PERCEIVED RESPONSIVENESS IN
UNIVERSITY STUDENTS**

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Master's Thesis

Graduate School
Izmir University of Economics
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ABSTRACT

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Master's Program in Clinical Psychology

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The main aim of the current study is to examine the mediating roles of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression emotion regulation strategies in relation to attachment security and perceived mother and close friend responsiveness in university students. The sample consisted of 1068 participants whose ages were between 18-24 years old ($M_{age} = 20.47$ years, $SD = 1.71$; 74.9% of them were females). For the purpose of the study, demographic information form, Kern's Security Scale, Emotion Regulation Questionnaire, Perceived Responsiveness Scale for Mother, and Perceived Responsiveness Scale for Close Friend were used. According to the results, cognitive reappraisal played a significant mediating role in relation to attachment security and perceived mother and close friend responsiveness, whereas expressive suppression did not mediate these relationships. Results, limitations, strengths, and implications of the current study were discussed in the

light of the literature and suggestions for future studies were presented.

Keywords: attachment security, emotion regulation, cognitive reappraisal, expressive suppression, perceived mother responsiveness, perceived close friend responsiveness.



ÖZET

ÜNİVERSİTE ÖĞRENCİLERİNDE GÜVENLİ BAĞLANMA İLE ALGILANAN DUYARLILIK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİDE DUYGU DÜZENLEME STRATEJİLERİNİN ARACI ROLÜ

Çıkmaz, Ecem

Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı

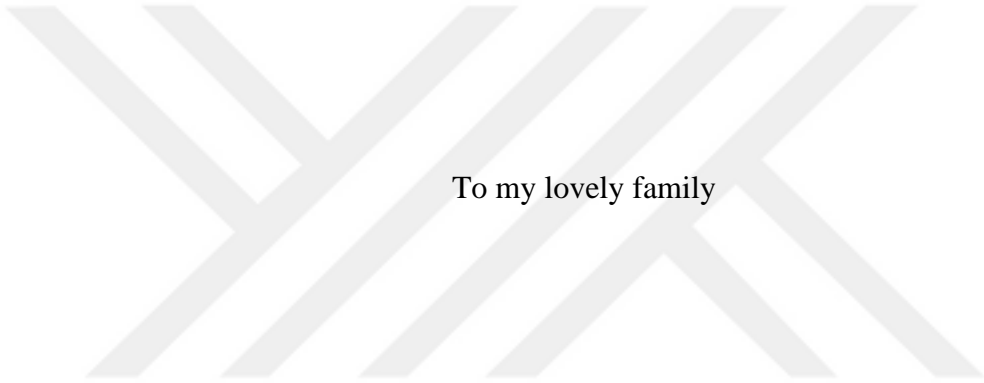
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Ağustos, 2021

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, üniversite öğrencilerinde güvenli bağlanma ile algılanan anne ve yakın arkadaş duyarlılığı arasındaki ilişkide bilişsel yeniden değerlendirme ve dışavurumcu bastırma duygu düzenleme stratejilerinin aracı rolünün incelenmesidir. Örneklem 18-24 yaş arası 1068 katılımcıdan ($Or_{yaş} = 20.47$, $S = 1.71$; %74.9'u kadın) oluşmuştur. Araştırmanın amacı doğrultusunda, demografik bilgi formu, Kern's Güvenli Bağlanma Ölçeği, Duygu Düzenleme Ölçeği, Algılanan Anne Duyarlılığı Ölçeği ve Algılanan Yakın Arkadaş Duyarlılığı Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Araştırma sonuçlarına göre güvenli bağlanma ve algılanan anne ve yakın arkadaş duyarlılığı ilişkisinde bilişsel yeniden değerlendirme aracı bir role sahipken, dışavurumcu bastırma bu ilişkilere aracılık etmemiştir. Mevcut çalışmanın sonuçları, sınırlılıkları, güçlü yönleri ve çıkarımları ilgili literatür ışığında tartışılmış ve ileride yapılacak çalışmalar için öneriler sunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: güvenli bağlanma, duygu düzenleme, bilişsel yeniden değerlendirme, dışavurumcu bastırma, algılanan anne duyarlılığı, algılanan yakın arkadaş duyarlılığı.





To my lovely family

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Interpersonal relationships are essential in human life and the developmental pattern of individuals is impacted by them throughout life (Reis, Collins and Berscheid, 2000). One of the significant life goals for most individuals is creating significant close relationships (Reis and Clark, 2013). Responsiveness which has a critical role in close relationships has recently started to be studied in relationship sciences (Clark and Lemay, 2010; Cook, Dezangré and De Mol, 2017). Responsiveness is defined as supportive and caring behaviors of the significant one towards the other person's personal needs, desires, values, objectives, and preferences (Canevello and Crocker, 2010; Hazan and Campa, 2013). Even though it is thought as an essential element of close relationships, the possible antecedents of it have not been fully covered yet. In the light of the attachment theory, one of the possible antecedents may be attachment security. Attachment security has been described as the condition that a person feels secure in relation to the accessibility to the attachment figure (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Previous research shows that people who have secure attachment have more positive beliefs about self and others and would perceive their partners as more responsive (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016).

In addition to the attachment security, the significant relationship between attachment security and emotion regulation (Cassidy, 1994) in attachment theory literature gives us a clue about emotion regulation's possible antecedent role. According to attachment theory, people can use different strategies to regulate their emotions. For instance, while secure people use more effective emotion regulation strategies more cognitive reappraisal and less expressive suppression (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007; Winterheld, 2016), nonsecure people tend to use less effective ones (Lopez et al., 2001; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016). Therefore, the possible antecedent role of emotion regulation has been considered in this study.

Emotion regulation is defined as the formation process of which emotion one has and when one has them, how the experiences and expressions of these emotions will be (Gross, 1998b). Emotion regulation is a multidimensional construct, and it includes, among the others, two well-known strategies namely cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression. Cognitive reappraisal means modifying interpretation style

related to the situation that elicits emotion to be able to change the impact of it (Gross and Thompson, 2007). Moreover, expressive suppression means inhibition of the expressive behavior (Gross and Levenson, 1993). Although the research on the relationship between emotional regulation strategies and responsiveness has not been well-documented, guided by the emotion related research, the positive relationship between emotional expression and responsiveness gives us a clue about the possible significant relation between emotion regulation strategies and responsiveness. Moreover, previous research also shows that people choose to express or not to express their emotions according to their perception of responsiveness of the significant one (Ruan et al., 2019). It leads us to think that different emotion regulation strategies may influence responsiveness in different ways. Given that there is not much research on the association among attachment security, emotion regulation strategies, and responsiveness, in this study, it is aimed to test the relationship between attachment security and responsiveness with the mediating role of emotion regulation strategies (i.e., cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression).

In the following sections, firstly, the descriptions of the study variables which are perceived responsiveness, attachment security, cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression emotion regulation strategies will be given. Then, the relation between these variables will be explained. Lastly, the aim and the hypotheses of the current study will be stated.

1.1 Perceived Responsiveness

Significant close relationships are essential in an individual's life (Reis and Clark, 2013). Individuals want to get care of their partner for their thoughts and feelings in such relationships (Shelton et al., 2010). Moreover, they want to feel trust, be listened empathically and get a proper support to form a healthy relationship with significant people around them (Reis and Gable, 2015). Responsiveness is a fundamental element underlying these qualities that shape healthy and satisfying relationships (Reis, Clark and Holmes, 2004; Reis and Gable, 2015). Responsiveness can be described as the belief that a person's needs, aims, and wishes are valued and responded supportively by a significant one (Reis, Clark and Holmes, 2004). How these responsive behaviors are perceived changes from person to person (Reis and Clark, 2013). For instance, even though the behaviors of the significant one are

supportive, these responses may not be perceived in the same way by the other person (Reis and Clark, 2013). Thus, Reis (2014) stated that perception is the key point of responsive behaviors. Therefore, from now on, the term will be used as perceived responsiveness. As can be noticed, perceived responsiveness includes three essential elements: Understanding, validation, and caring (Reis, 2014; Reis and Gable, 2015). Understanding means accurate and appropriate comprehension of the core side of partner's self (e.g., needs, feelings, wishes, traits, strong and weak points etc.). Moreover, validation means respecting or valuing world perspective, qualities, and skills of the other. Lastly, caring means indicating concerns and affectionateness for well-being of others and helping them in case of need (Reis and Clark, 2013; Reis, 2014; Reis and Gable, 2015).

Perceived responsiveness consists of both intrapersonal and interpersonal process (Reis, 2014). First step which is intrapersonal process including needs, goals, and wishes of the first party is followed by interpersonal process (Reis, 2014). Specifically, firstly, behaviors are displayed by the first party and then second party creates supportive or unsupportive reactions and responses in turn (Reis, 2013). Even though the first party expresses a need or a wish, supportive responses may not be produced by the second party in turn (Reis and Clark, 2013). Therefore, according to Reis and Shaver (1988), interpretive filter of the second party is also important. Besides, the person has a perception about responsiveness of the partner according to responses of the partner to herself/himself (Reis and Shaver, 1988). Therefore, enacted responsiveness of the partner has significant influence on perceived responsiveness of the person (Reis, 2014).

Additionally, individuals may make the projection of their responsiveness to the partner so this allows them to perceive more responsiveness from their partners (Lemay, Clark and Feeney, 2007; Lemay and Clark, 2008). If a person has perception that s/he is responsive to the partner, this increases the likelihood of the perception about his/her partners as responsive (Lemay, Clark and Feeney, 2007). Thus, individuals can make inference about responsiveness of their partner from their own responsiveness level to the partner (Lemay and Clark, 2008). Therefore, it can be said that their own responsiveness experience can be promoted by themselves and this projection influences relationship satisfaction of the person (Lemay, Clark and Feeney, 2007; Lemay and Clark, 2008). Moreover, if there is a reciprocal

responsiveness for aims, needs, and values of each party, it is believed that this relationship include closeness and intimacy (Reis, Clark and Holmes, 2004; Selçuk, Karagöbek and Günaydın, 2018). Intimacy is enhanced through self-disclose and partner responsiveness in interpersonal model of intimacy of Reis and Shaver (1988). In other words, feeling and perceiving of being understood, cared, responded, valued, and closely affiliated to a person are experienced in intimacy (Reis and Shaver, 1988). Therefore, perceived responsiveness has a significant role in the foundation of closeness and intimacy in close relationships (Reis, Clark and Holmes, 2004) and provide more intimate interaction experience (Reis and Shaver, 1988). Thus, it can be said that more perception of responsiveness produces closer relationships (Clark and Lemay, 2010). Even though perceived responsiveness has been mostly examined in terms of the partner relationship, it is used to examine all intimate social bonds at different phase of development such as relationship with parents and relationship with friends (Reis, Clark and Holmes, 2004; Selçuk, Karagöbek and Günaydın, 2018).

Perception of responsiveness from parents means a lot for an individual (Bowlby, 1973; Ainsworth et al., 1978). Responsiveness of the caregiver is influential for security feelings throughout life (Bowlby, 1988). If a person creates a secure attachment bond with his/her primary caregiver, that individual perceives his/her primary caregiver as more responsive (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Therefore, this individual will internalize this responsiveness which will lead him/her to perceive future relationships with other people as more responsive as well (Bowlby, 1969, 1973). Research guided by attachment theory suggests that secure attachment relates to greater responsiveness perception from the caregiver which in turn associates with health, long-term happiness, development of satisfying relationships, and well-being (Kane et al., 2012; Selçuk, Karagöbek and Günaydın, 2018). Since greater responsiveness from parents is expected (Reis, Clark and Holmes, 2004), and mother is mostly the primary caregiver, perceived mother responsiveness will be investigated as a possible outcome.

In addition to that, perception of emotional closeness, reciprocal supportiveness, and responsiveness from friends especially from close friends takes significant place in human life all the time (Wrzus et al., 2017). Individuals want to have significant friendships (Shelton et al., 2010). Because friends have significant functions on

social, psychological, physical health of people throughout life and well-being of individuals is influenced by their friendships (Sherman, De Vries and Lansford, 2000). Friends, especially closer ones, provide increased happiness, self-esteem, support, and companionship by providing closeness, supportiveness, and responsiveness (Sherman, De Vries and Lansford, 2000; Wrzus et al., 2017). Research guided by attachment theory suggests that secure attachment relates to greater responsiveness perception from the friends (Grabill and Kerns, 2000) which in turn relates to changes in self-conceptions, emotion expression, decisions about career, and relationship with parents as well as romantic partners especially early adulthood period (Rawlins, 1992; Reis, Clark and Holmes, 2004). Therefore, perceived close friend responsiveness will be examined as another possible outcome in this study.

In previous research, the possible antecedents and outcomes of perceived responsiveness has been measured. Research shows that perceived responsiveness is closely related to personal well-being, trust and commitment (Reis, Clark and Holmes, 2004; Reis and Clark, 2013; Taşfiliz et al., 2018), feeling positive emotions, and coping effectively with challenges in intimate relationship (Maisel and Gable, 2009; Reis, 2014). Moreover, research shows that there can be different predictors that influence perceived responsiveness such as self-esteem, mood, expectations, and goals (Murray, Holmes and Griffin, 2000; Maisel, Gable and Strachman, 2008). In addition to these predictors, in the light of the attachment theory, attachment security may be another possible predictor of the perceived responsiveness. Secure individuals have interactions with sensitive and responsive caregivers (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Therefore, secure children expect that other people would respond to their emotional signals as effectively as their caregivers (Cassidy, 1994). Moreover, it is stated that especially partners would be perceived as more responsive by secure individuals (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016). Therefore, these findings lead us to think that attachment security may be one of the predictors of the perceived responsiveness.

1.2 Attachment Security as a Possible Antecedent of Perceived Responsiveness

Two variables that are most frequently studied are attachment security and responsiveness. Attachment theory says that responsiveness has an essential place in

human bonds (Bowlby, 1988). Just because the mother exists physically, this does not mean that she exists emotionally (Bowlby, 1973). Although there is her physical presence, she may exhibit emotional absence to the child (Bowlby, 1973). Therefore, availability and responsiveness of the caregiver has impact on security, anxiety or distress status of the person (Bowlby, 1973).

Attachment means a long lasting and deep emotional bond of a person or an animal with another one (Bowlby, 1969; Ainsworth and Bell, 1970). Attachment comprises three functions: Proximity seeking/maintenance, secure base, and safe haven (Bowlby, 1969). Proximity seeking means seeking physical closeness to the attachment figure, resistance to separation and distress feeling with separation. Moreover, secure base refers to use of attachment figure as a secure base for confident exploration of the environment. Lastly, safe haven refers to seeking comfort and support from attachment figure in threatening situations (Bowlby, 1969; Ainsworth et al., 1978). The child wants to have closeness and proximity to the caregiver which is mostly the mother (Bowlby, 1969). When there is a threatening or stressful situation, the child wants to have a safe haven by seeking proximity to the caregiver and s/he uses caregiver as a secure base for confident exploration of the environment (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Bowlby, 1982a; Bowlby, 1988). There is an expectation of the child about his or her caregiver's being available, sensitive, and responsive in case of need (Hazan and Campa, 2013). Both physical presence of the caregiver and the confidence of the child about availability and responsiveness of the caregiver in case of need are significant (Bowlby, 1973). Although exploratory behavior is impacted by the presence or absence of the mother, especially her absence produces destructive impact (Ainsworth et al., 1978).

Attachment behaviors which include following, smiling, crying, sucking, and clinging provide closeness and connection (Bowlby, 1958; Bowlby, 1982b; Ainsworth and Bell, 1970). They make available to come close and to be closer to the caregiver (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Thus, they provide better coping with the world (Bowlby, 1982b). Although the intensity of these behaviors can change in different situations, it is enough for attachment to be originated once because it continues (Ainsworth and Bell, 1970). It is a lifelong process that provides security and safety feelings (Bowlby, 1988).

The infant originates internalization of the caregiver's, environment's, and her/his representation through experiences with the caregiver and this is called as "internal working model" (Bowlby, 1969). The child creates expectations about the reaction of her/his environment, caregivers, herself/himself and the interactions of them (Bowlby, 1969). According to working model of the child, she/he generates expectations about lovableness of themselves and responsiveness, availableness or unresponsiveness, unavailableness of the caregiver (Bowlby, 1973). These expectations are at the basis of internal working models (Hazan and Shaver, 1994). She/he regulates her/his behaviors according to these expectations (Hazan and Shaver, 1994). Thus, availableness and responsiveness of the caregiver can be predicted with these models (Hazan and Shaver, 1994). If the child has more sufficient internal working model, her/his predictions about the future can be more accurate (Bretherton, 1992). When the exploration and comfort needs of the child can be accepted and respected by the caregiver, the child can have internalization of working model as trustworthy and valuable (Bowlby, 1973). However, internalization of working model in valuelessness and inadequacy can be formed when these needs are not approved by the caregiver (Bowlby, 1973). Because these models provide the child to make predictions and organization of her/his reactions, the sort of model is significant (Bretherton, 1992).

According to attachment theory, attachment bond can be described as secure or insecure (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Attachment security is sorted into two according to a well-known procedure of Ainsworth called Strange Situation (Van Rosmalen, Van der Veer and Van der Horst, 2015). In Strange Situation procedure, if an infant seeks proximity and contact with the caregiver on her return, this is called as secure attachment; whereas if there are displaying avoidance, ignorance, resistance, and anger to her on reunion, this is called insecure attachment (Ainsworth, Bell and Stayton, 1971; Main and Cassidy, 1988). As a result of this procedure, the security and insecurity of the attachment bond can be defined in terms of the perception of the child about availability of the caregiver in times of need, the responses of the child to the caregiver, and the manner of the child about approaching to and getting in touch with the mother or prevention of connection (Weinfield et al., 2008; Van Rosmalen, Van der Veer and Van der Horst, 2015). More specifically, Ainsworth described the attachment security as being secure with regard to availableness and

responsiveness of the attachment figure (Ainsworth et al., 1978). On the other hand, attachment insecurity is described as being uncertain and having doubts about the accessibility and responsiveness of the caregiver (Bowlby, 1973).

Attachment theory says that if a caregiver is sensitive and responsive to the needs of the child, this provides secure attachment (Bowlby, 1969; Bowlby, 1988; Ainsworth et al., 1978; Sroufe et al., 2005). If infants have a sensitive caregiver, secure attachment is formed but insecure attachment is seen in infants with less sensitive caregiver (Bretherton, 1992). As a result of the Uganda study of Ainsworth, infants who had secure attachment had more available and responsive mothers when compared to insecurely attached infants. On the other hand, infants who had insecure attachment had mother who were less sensitive and responsive to the signals and needs of infants (Ainsworth, 1985). Possessing steady security sense of infants who have secure attachment provides the use of the caregivers as a safe haven and secure base (Hazan and Campa, 2013). Therefore, use of the mother as a secure base for exploration of the strange environment was experienced by securely attached infants (Ainsworth et al., 1978). However, since insecurely attached infants face problem in this security sense, they do not have perception of their caregiver as a secure base and safe haven (Hazan and Campa, 2013). Feeling secure about the availability, responsiveness and help of the caregiver during fearful and alarming conditions in secure attachment is developed and enhanced by being accessible, sensitive, and responsive of mother to the child (Bowlby, 1988). There is no certainty and trust about the availableness, responsiveness and help of the caregiver when needed in insecure attachment (Bowlby, 1988). There was insensitivity in the mothers of insecurely attached infants (Main, Kaplan and Cassidy, 1985; Weinfield et al., 2008). Insecurely attached infants resist proximity, contact and interaction (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Insecurity includes failure of using the mother as a secure base to explore the environment (Ainsworth, Bell and Stayton, 1971). Consequently, while responsiveness of the caregiver is experienced by securely attached child, unresponsiveness is experienced by insecurely attached child (Weinfield et al., 2008).

According to attachment theory, influence of attachment lasts throughout the life (Bowlby, 1988). Therefore, future relationships are influenced by the internalization of relationship with the caregiver (Bowlby, 1969). Attachment security provides

beneficial consequences (Gillath et al., 2014). Security feeling is provided during whole life with the accessibility of the attachment figure which is responsive (Bowlby, 1988). Expectations of people about availableness of other people in the need times are also influenced by the experiences with the caregivers (Bowlby, 1973). According to trust of the child about availableness and responsiveness of the caregiver or absence of this trust, expectations are generated, and they are experienced unchangingly throughout life (Bowlby, 1973). Children develop interpretive filters through past experiences and expectations which are generated with secure or insecure attachments so this provides deciding new social partners and interpretation for social relationships of children (Thompson, 2015). For instance, while insecure children have expectation about distance, nonengagement and unfriendliness from their friends; secure children have expectation about warmth, positive attitude from their friends and so they experience closer relationships (Thompson, 2015). Although perception of partners as responsive produces continuous security sense, insecurity attachment is experienced when there is no perception of responsiveness (Slatcher and Selçuk, 2017). Responsiveness promotes security sense so the usage of the relationship as a secure base to explore and as a safe haven when there is a stressful situation are experienced by partners (Reis and Clark, 2013).

An association between attachment security and more ideal functioning was indicated by several studies (Posada and Trumbell, 2019). Interactions with available and responsive caregiver provides the child to be responsive in intimate close relationships (Reis and Shaver, 1988). Additionally, security of others may be promoted by secure people and this provides positive relationship consequences that strengthen the initial security feeling (Cook, 2000). Moreover, there is also a relationship between attachment security, better subjective well-being, effective coping with stress and high self-esteem (Terzi and Cihangir Çankaya, 2009). Having attachment figures who are responsive and supportive in close relationships provides happiness and flexibility (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016). Several studies specified that attachment security provides greater life satisfaction (Jiang, Huebner and Hills, 2013; Guarnieri, Smorti and Tani, 2015; Kumar and Mattanah, 2016). Besides, individuals with secure attachment have deep experience of thoughts and emotions, being open new insights in even threatening situation and conversation with

relationship partners in conflicts (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016). Adolescents who have secure attachment feel less stress when there are negative events in life (Hamilton, 2000). They can have declined influences of it and more recovery (Whittingham and Coyne, 2019). They have more flexible coping strategy choice (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016). More social competency with peers is experienced in children who have secure attachment (Groh et al., 2014). They can have psychological closeness easily and fun in groups or organizations (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016). Adults who have secure attachment feel comfort in intimacy, confidence about being valued by others, trust for availability of support from others and satisfaction with that support (Collins and Feeney, 2000). According to Mikulincer and Shaver (2016), securely attached individuals have ability to keep calm themselves, have confidence and hope, and be open to the needs of the others. This provides benefits for themselves and their partners in relationships such as friends and romantic partners. This secure caregiving helps the individual to connect with the world and other people. There is no threat for their autonomy in closeness with others. Thus, expression of friendship, romantic relationship, and interactions with group experiences are experienced by people who have secure attachment (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016).

People want to have closeness to have help, relief, and support from close others in stressful and worrying experiences (Collins and Feeney, 2000; Kane et al., 2012). Several studies demonstrated that if people have social support and confidence about availability of significant one, this produces more effective coping in stressful situations and benefits the individual in terms of health and psychological well-being (Collins and Feeney, 2000). Collins and Read (1990) stated that if people have a warm, comfortable, and accepting relationship with their parents, they have a perception that others can give support. People with good mother-child relationship are more aware of others and they evaluate others as support and trust in each type of relationship (Collins and Read, 1990). Because consistent good care and support were provided to securely attached individuals, they can have positive perspective towards both themselves and their partners (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007; Shallcross et al., 2011). Thus, perceived responsiveness in adulthood is affected by early relationship with caregiver (Cook, DeZangré and De Mol, 2017). Securely attached individuals feel more responsiveness in their relationships with friends (Grabill and

Kerns, 2000). Besides, they display more self-disclosure and responsiveness to self-disclosure of the other person (Grabill and Kerns, 2000).

Contrarily, attachment insecurity can have association with some psychological disorders (Whittingham and Coyne, 2019) such as obsessive-compulsive disorder (e.g., Doron et al., 2009), eating disorders (e.g., Illing et al., 2010), depression (e.g., Cantazaro and Wei, 2010). Besides, it produces lower life satisfaction and subjective well-being (Tepeli Temiz and Tari Comert, 2018). A meta-analysis study showed that attachment insecurity is negatively related to relationship satisfaction (Candel and Turliuc, 2019). Besides, insecure individuals use ineffective coping with problems (Lopez et al., 2001) and stress (Terzi and Cihangir Çankaya, 2009). Not only the mental and physical health of the individuals but also their partners is negatively affected by insecure attachment (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2018). Therefore, attachment theory proposes that future relationships are impacted by relationship with caregiver in childhood (Bowlby, 1969; Bowlby, 1973; Bowlby, 1982a).

Attachment insecurity also leads to disruption in both being responsive and perceived responsiveness of the person (Shallcross et al., 2011). Individuals with insecure attachment have both displaying less responsiveness to their partners and perception of less responsiveness from them in positive events especially when they have insecurely attached partner (Shallcross et al., 2011). While attachment security provides being responsive and good care to the partner, insecure attachment produces being unresponsive and poor caregiving to the partner in intimate relationships (Collins and Feeney, 2000; Feeney and Collins, 2001). Another study found that the likelihood of the perceiving the partner as responsive is lower for insecurely attached individuals than secure individuals (Segal and Fraley, 2015). Consequently, the early relationship of the child with the caregiver is significant in the perception of individuals about responsiveness in adulthood (Cook, Dezanré and De Mol, 2017).

As the individual grows, attachment with parents continues, even though attachment with a new figure (i.e., friends or partners) can be formed (Ainsworth, 1989). Even though the position of the parents can change with the maturation of the child, they have a persistent position in attachment (Hazan and Zeifman, 1994; Fraley and Davis, 1997; Laible, Carlo and Roesch, 2004). A parent is mostly the primary

attachment figure of the child but a sexual partner as well as a peer can be the primary attachment figure of the adult (Hazan and Shaver, 1994). We can talk about a change in direction as attachment figures from parents to peers or romantic partner (Fraley and Davis, 1997). There are similarities among the emotional bond of infant with caregiver and attachment bond with romantic partner and peers in adulthood (Zayas et al., 2011). Individuals have security feeling and exploration of the environment with the available peer or partner (Fraley and Davis, 1997).

Besides, emotional bond of the child with the mother is essential in attachment theory (Bowlby, 1973). If a child has emotional distress such as in separation, the need for proximity and contact with the caregiver is experienced for reassurance (Sroufe and Waters, 1977). The child has help from sensitive and responsive caregiver for distress reduction and reestablishment of safety and security feeling (Pietromonaco, Barrett and Powers, 2006). Interaction between the child and the caregiver teaches the child about emotion and emotion regulation strategies (Brumariu, 2015). Learning from these interactions is represented in internal working models (Pietromonaco, Barrett and Powers, 2006). Interaction with accessible, supportive, and responsive caregiver provides perspective that includes manageability of distress and controllability of threatening situations to securely attached individuals (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). Besides, caregiver who is accessible and responsive produce distress relief to the negative emotion expression (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). Positive interaction with the caregiver provides the learning to the securely attached individuals that others produce positive responses to acceptance and exhibition of distress (Shaver and Mikulincer, 2002). Besides, they know that reduction in distress and removal of problems and obstacles are provided through their own actions (Shaver and Mikulincer, 2002; Shaver and Mikulincer, 2007). Thus, the relationship between mother and child is essential in development and regulation of the emotions (Hollenstein, Tighe and Loughheed, 2017).

Emotions are regulated in different ways by different people (John and Gross, 2004). There is a close relation between attachment quality and emotion regulation (Cassidy, 1994). The basis of emotion regulation is produced by attachment security (Sroufe, 2005). Thus, attachment security affects the use of emotion regulation (Cassidy, 1994). Confidence and security variations in relationship with parent are substantial in terms of the development of emotion regulation (Thompson and

Meyer, 2007). The child with secure attachment has an expectation about receiving responses to her/his emotional signals (Cassidy, 1994). Besides, in children who have secure attachment, the reasons and regulation of emotions are understood better because they have more improved comprehension of the emotions in particular negative emotions (Thompson, 2015). Detailed and attentive speech of mothers who have secure infants about experiences of children promotes comprehension of emotion (Thompson, 2015). If parents acknowledge emotions of the child and are willing for open communication; the development of emotional awareness and competent and resilient emotion self-regulation skills of the child are enhanced (Thompson, 2008). There is a relation between attachment security and open, resilient expression of emotion (Cassidy, 1994). For example, securely attached child prefers to openly and directly express to the caregiver and needs help from her/him (Cassidy, 1994). The parent-child relationship which includes warmth and security produces support and setting where the parent and child can talk about emotion, and is appropriate for reciprocal comprehension of emotion; so the development of efficient emotion regulation is provided with this relationship (Thompson et al., 2013).

Differences in emotion regulations strategies are seen between securely and insecurely attached children (Brumariu, 2015). Healthy and flexible regulation of emotions are developed with attachment security so experience and expression of emotions are not distorted defensively (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). Contrariwise, experience of emotions is distorted or denied, potential functional emotions are suppressed, threats are ruminated by attachment insecurity (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). People who have secure attachment use more adaptive emotion regulation strategies which can be problem solving, reappraisal etc. (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2018). Individuals with secure attachment experience being open to their emotions; clear, accurate communication with and expression to others about their emotions whereas there is no denial, exaggeration, and distortion of emotional experience (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). Therefore, they do not need to avoid or deny their emotions (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). Because their mental representations include optimism and hope, this provides problem solving and reappraisal of the situation and maintaining effective emotion regulation (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). Secure individuals also use appraisal of stressful states with more benign

terms (Mikulincer and Florian, 1995). Thus, they can constructively cope and manage distress (Mikulincer and Florian, 1995). Besides, they have a more optimistic viewpoint toward life and more confidence to face threats and challenges (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016). Since securely attached individuals are able to manage events that elicit emotions or use reappraisal for these events, they do not use alteration or suppression for other parts in emotion process (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007).

In insecure relationship, mothers display fewer sensitivity and inconsistent responsiveness to the feelings of the child, they do not feel so much comfort to talk about experiences that includes difficult emotions (Thompson and Meyer, 2007). Expectation about receiving only selective attendance to these signals is experienced by the child with insecure attachment (Cassidy, 1994). Insecurely attached individuals try to have blocking or inhibition of emotional state that activate their attachment system (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2003; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016). They also make an effort for down-regulation of emotions that are related with threats such as fear, anger, distress, anxiety etc. by holding deactivation of attachment system (Shaver and Mikulincer, 2007). Both hyperactivating emotion regulation strategies such as rumination or extreme complains of negative emotions and deactivating emotion regulations strategies such as denial, suppression can be used in insecure attachment (Brenning and Braet, 2013). There is intervention for problem solving and reappraisal (Shaver and Mikulincer, 2007). Negative emotions are repeatedly activated and suppressed in insecure attachment (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016). Rejection of a parent leads that child use suppression of negative emotions (Cassidy, 1994). Parent of insecurely attached child is not successful to help the child for effective regulation of negative emotions (Cassidy, 1994). Thus, effective emotion regulation is intervened by attachment insecurity (Mcneil, 2012).

Consequently, in addition to attachment security, relatively new line of research gives us a clue about other, under researched predictor which may have an influence on perceived responsiveness called emotion regulation. Even though there is not many research examining the relation between emotion regulation and perceived responsiveness, previous research on emotional expression showed that more emotional expression was experienced when there is more perceived responsiveness (Culin, Hirsch and Clark, 2017; Ruan et al., 2019). Therefore, these lead to us to

think that there may be a possible relation between emotion regulation (with its strategies) and perceived responsiveness in this study.

1.3 Emotion Regulation Strategies as Possible Antecedents of Perceived Responsiveness

In addition to attachment security, another possible antecedent of the perceived responsiveness may be emotion regulation strategies (i.e., cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression). Emotion have an essential role in human life (Sheppes and Gross, 2013). Even though emotions are mostly helpful, they may be harmful with the inaccurate intensity level and duration (Gross, 2014). Emotion regulation that produces conflict avoidance and softer, enjoyable interactions is important for close relationships and its optimum functioning (English, Oliver and Gross, 2013). There is a relationship between ineffective, improper emotion regulation and interpersonal problems (English, Oliver and Gross, 2013). Therefore, regulation of emotions is critical (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Emotion regulation is a process that forms which emotions a person has, when a person has them and how these emotions are experienced and expressed by the person (Gross, 1998b). Emotion regulation aims to alter the emotion generation process and it can be operated consciously or unconsciously (Gross, 2002; Gross and Thompson, 2007; Gross, Sheppes and Urry, 2011). It engages in the processes of changing emotion route (Gross, 2014). Although positive emotions can be upregulated and downregulated, mostly regulation of negative emotions are done in daily life by attempting to downregulation of behavioral and experiential aspect (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). However, down regulation of the negative emotions and up regulation of the positive emotions are wanted to do by individuals (Gross, Richards and John, 2006; Quoidbach et al., 2010).

The process model of emotion regulation which is developed by Gross (1998b) is based on the modal model (Gross, 2014). Assessment of the emotional cues that can be internal or external starts the emotion (Gross, 1998a; Gross, 2014; Gross and John, 2003). Emotional response tendencies which consist of behavioral, experiential, and physiological are prompted by these assessments (Gross, 1998a; Gross and John, 2003). There can be changes in the emotional response tendencies so emotional responses are formed with these changes (Gross, 1998a). This model consists of two main emotion regulation ways which are antecedent focused emotion

regulation (i.e., cognitive reappraisal) and response focused emotion regulation (i.e., expressive suppression) (Gross, 1998a; Gross, 1998b). Antecedent focused emotion regulation which consists of situation selection, situation modification, attentional deployment, and cognitive change arise before the generation of emotion response tendencies (Gross, 1998a; Gross, 1998b; Gross, Richards and John, 2006). These antecedent focused strategies aim to change future emotional responses (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Besides, response focused emotion regulation which comprise of response modulation arise during the emotion is in the making after the generation of emotion response tendencies (Gross, 1998a; Gross, 1998b; Gross, Richards and John, 2006). These response focused strategies aim to manage the existent emotions (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). There is a thought that antecedent focused emotion regulation strategies are more effective compared to response focused emotion regulation strategies (Sheppes and Gross, 2013). Because antecedent focused strategies occur early in the process before the total occurrence of emotional response tendencies, they change the emotional route early while response focused strategies arise during the emotion is on the way and after the generation of emotional response tendencies and they deal with powerful emotion response (Gross and John, 2003; Sheppes and Gross, 2013).

Emotion regulation may be beneficial or harmful for physical health (Gross, 1998a). Adaptive functioning can be developed with success of emotion regulation (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Besides, there is a reciprocal relationship between emotion regulation and close relationships which means close relationships affect the emotion regulation and emotion regulation also impacts the close relationships (English, Oliver and Gross, 2013). For example, how responsiveness of a partner is perceived is important for emotion expression (Ruan et al., 2019). If a partner is perceived as caring, this provides emotion expression (Culin, Hirsch and Clark, 2017). Therefore, perceived responsiveness provides an increase in emotional expression (Ruan et al., 2019). If there is a perception of responsiveness, the likelihood of self-disclosure and being responsive toward the self-disclosure of the partner is higher (Taşfiliz et al., 2018). Having a partner who produce supportive responses to needs, aims and values of a person improves emotional self-regulation (Reis, 2014).

People use many different ways for the regulation of their emotions (John and Gross,

2004). Cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression are the two most widespread type of emotion regulation strategies (John and Gross, 2004). Each emotion regulation strategy provides different outcomes so it cannot be said that there is one best strategy in all contexts (Gross, 1998a). Additionally, while quick relief can be achieved with some emotion regulation strategies in a short time, their long-term costs can occur (Sheppes and Gross, 2013). Although according to analysis consequences, reappraisal looks like preferable rather than suppression, reappraisal may not be preferred every time (Gross, 2002). Sometimes there can be difficult times in use of reappraisal so person can need to use suppression (Gross, 2002). However, as a general, it can be said that cognitive reappraisal is healthier form of emotion regulation (John and Gross, 2004). Clinical interventions that are interested in supporting the use of healthy emotion regulation benefit from complete and detailed understanding of advantages and disadvantages of different regulative process (Gross, 1998a). Therefore, in the next section, cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression emotion regulation strategies will be evaluated in a detailed way.

1.3.1 Cognitive Reappraisal Emotion Regulation Strategy

Cognitive reappraisal which is the one form of the cognitive change is an antecedent focused emotion regulation strategy (Gross and John, 2003). Before the origination of emotional response tendencies, cognitive reappraisal can change the order of emotion with the early occurrence in the process (Gross and John, 2003; John and Gross, 2004; Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Therefore, whole route of emotion can be modified by cognitive reappraisal (Gross and John, 2003). Cognitive reappraisal means altering the way of thinking about the situation that brings out an emotion for changing the influence of emotion (Gross, 2002; McRae et al., 2012). Instead of the situation itself, assessment of the individual about the situation produce emotion (Gross, 1999). Therefore, evaluation of the situation is the strong and significant part of emotion regulation (Gross, 1999; Gross, 2002). According to appraisal theories, assessment of individuals about situations has a role to arouse and differentiate emotions (Ellsworth and Scherer, 2003). Given that these attributed meanings decide the generation of responses which are experiential, behavioral, and physiological, it is essential (Gross, 2001).

Reappraisal which is used for down regulation of emotion is cognitively oriented

type of emotion regulation (Gross, 2014). According to process model, down regulation of emotion with reappraisal should produce change in whole emotion response course and decrease in experiential, behavioral, and physiological responses (Gross, 2002). According to several studies, cognitive reappraisal is influential in terms of the decrease in the effects of a negative event (Giuliani, McRae and Gross, 2008). Reappraisal leads to decline in the experience and expressive behavior of negative emotion (Gross, 2002; Gross, Richards and John, 2006). There are a few needs for cognitive resources which is for administration (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). There is no necessity for continuous self-regulation in reappraisal with the early occurrence in the process (Gross, 2002; Gross, Richards and John, 2006). According to Gross (2002), there should be more positive social consequences in reappraisal instead of suppression. There is better functioning of reappraisers in the emotion and interpersonal functioning (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Reappraisal reduces both negative emotion experience and negative emotion behavioral expression, so it positively influences affective domain (Gross and John, 2003; John and Gross, 2004). Rise in positive emotion experience is aimed with reappraisal of positive emotions while decline in negative emotion experience is aimed with reappraisal of negative emotions (Nezlek and Kuppens, 2008). In the film watching study of Gross (1998a), it was found that decline in the experience and behavioral expression of negative emotion (disgust) were experienced in reappraisal group and thus reappraisal has relative impact on inhibition of emotion (Gross, 1998a). Although reduction in expressive behavior of negative emotions is experienced through reappraisal, no decrease in expressive behavior of positive emotions is seen with reappraisal (Gross, 2001). Besides, reappraisal provides more experience and expression of positive emotions and less experience and expression of negative emotions (Gross and John, 2003). For instance, a study indicated that there is an association between cognitive reappraisal, decline in negative emotions (e.g., sadness) and rise in positive emotions (Troy et al., 2018). Similarly, another study found that more positive and less negative emotions are experienced by individuals with frequent use of reappraisal (Mauss et al., 2007). In brief, individuals with more reappraisal use have more experience and expression of positive emotions, whereas less experience and expression of negative emotions (Gross, 2002; Gross and John, 2003). There is an association between reappraisal and better psychological health (Cutuli, 2014; Troy et al., 2018), well-being, enhanced life satisfaction (Haga, Kraft

and Corby, 2009), positive functioning, social success, social sharing (Gross and John, 2003), more liking from peers, and less depressive symptoms (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Cognitive reappraisal is negatively related to psychopathology (Aldao, Nolen-Hoeksema and Schweizer, 2010). A study that was conducted with emerging adults indicated that there is relation of low reappraisal with high depression, stress, anger and anxiety (Martin and Dahlen, 2005). According to studies, compared to suppression strategy reappraisal is found as more effective emotion regulation strategy (Gross, 2002; John and Gross, 2004). People who use reappraisal can have modification of behavioral expression, emotions inside and sharing with close people so they have optimistic manner in stressful situations, reinterpretation of this situations and attempts for repairment of bad moods (Gross and John, 2003). Reappraisers have more personal-growth, self-acceptance, apparent life purpose, better autonomy sense, more positive and better relationships with others and mastery in environment (Gross and John, 2003; Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Additionally, interpersonal behaviors that create social interaction, emotional engagement and responsiveness are generated and carried out with cognitive reappraisal use (Cutuli, 2014). Fewer cognitive resources are needed by cognitive reappraisal for generation and implementation of interpersonal behavior which includes focusing on the partner and produces emotionally engaging and responsive perception for partner (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Individuals who use cognitive reappraisal experience closer relationships (John and Gross, 2004). Additionally, a college study indicated that more social support and relationship satisfaction are predicted by reappraisal (Brewer, Zahniser and Conley, 2016). Therefore, research results consistently shows that there is a positive association between reappraisal and healthy functioning (Gross, Richards and John, 2006).

1.3.2 Expressive Suppression Emotion Regulation Strategy

Expressive suppression, on the other hand, which is a form of response modulation is a response focused strategy (Gross and John, 2003). Expressive suppression refers to reducing and inhibiting emotion-expressive behavior of the individual when there is an emotional arousal (Gross and Levenson, 1993; Gross, 2002; Gross, 2014). There is a requirement to inhibit emotion expressive behavior because suppression arise lately (Gross, 2001). There can be a rise in physiological responses because of inhibition of expressive behavior (Gross, 2002). Behavioral component of emotion

response tendencies can be changed with the late occurrence in the emotion generation process (Gross and John, 2003; John and Gross, 2004; Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Management of emotion response tendencies by individual is necessary because of the late occurrence of suppression in the process (John and Gross, 2004; Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Therefore, there is a need of cognitive resources for optimum performance (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). There is a necessity for self-monitoring and self-correction in suppression (Gross, 2002). Because cognitive resources are spent because of this monitoring, these resources are decreased to remember the situations later (Gross, 2001). It can be said that suppression includes cognitive costs (Gross, 2001). However, suppression of emotion expression sometimes can be wanted to be used by people (Butler et al., 2003). According to studies, inhibition of exterior signs of emotions is mostly used by individuals who are in the early adulthood period (Butler et al., 2003).

Suppression which is behaviorally oriented type of emotion regulation is also used for down regulation of emotion (Gross, 2014). Although down regulation of expressive behavior are effectively produced by suppression, it is not successful for producing relief of individual in the contexts that include negative emotions (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Although expression of negative emotion can be suppressed, this does not lead to decline in experience of negative emotion (Butler et al., 2003). In other words, emotion expressive behavior, but not emotion experience, is reduced by suppression (Gross, 1998a; Gross, 2002). For example, suppressors have less expression of negative emotions than experience of negative emotions (Gross and John, 2003; John and Gross, 2004). Similarly, Gross (1998a) indicated that expressive behavior, but not subjective experience, is reduced by suppression group in his study. Besides, the likelihood of negative emotion experience is higher for individuals with suppression and as a result, they have more negative emotion experience (Gross and John, 2003; John and Gross, 2004). An association between suppression of positive emotions' expression, decline in positive and rise in negative emotional experience was found (Nezlek and Kuppens, 2008). However, the expressive behavior of both positive and negative emotions is declined by suppression (Gross, 2001, 2002). Suppression looks like having a weakening effect on positive experience (Butler et al., 2003). Positive emotion experience is negatively affected by suppression because suppression leads to reduction in it (John

and Gross, 2004; Cutuli, 2014). There is a relation between suppression and less experience and expression of positive emotions (Gross and John, 2003). In the study of Gross and John (2003), although suppressors have more negative emotion experiences when compared to non-suppressors, less experience and expression of positive emotions are seen in suppressors. In a study, lower levels of rise in amusement were reported by suppressors in an amusement film; less amusement, reduction in expression of amusement and smiling was observed in a sad film (Gross and Levenson, 1997). Reduction in amusement subjective experience was experienced with the suppression of amusement (Gross and Levenson, 1997). Namely, it can be said that less expression of both positive and negative emotions, more experience of negative emotions, and less experience of positive emotions are possessed by suppressors (Gross, 2002).

There is an inconsistency sense between internal experience and external expression because of suppression and this produces inauthenticity in individuals who use suppression (Gross, Richards and John, 2006) and they are painfully aware of inauthenticity (Gross and John, 2003). Since individuals who use suppression see themselves as inauthentic, they experience these inauthenticity's painful emotions (Gross and John, 2003). Therefore, this inauthenticity feeling leads to increase in negative emotion (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Thus, evolution of emotionally close relationships is hindered (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Both existing relationships and new relationships are negatively influenced by suppression (Butler et al., 2003). Suppression leads to inhibition of intimacy development (Gross and John, 2003). Besides, social functioning is endangered by suppression (John and Gross, 2004). Individuals who have partner who use suppression feel less rapport (Butler et al., 2003) and people with suppression have less social support (Gross and John, 2003). Besides, communication was disrupted by expressive suppression and there was a decrease in expression and responsiveness (Butler et al., 2003). Consequently, social bonds' development is prevented with suppression (Butler et al., 2003).

Individuals with suppression use have less sharing of both positive and negative emotions with others (Gross and John, 2003). Studies indicated that suppression leads to hiding significant social signals because of the declines in expressive behavior for both positive and negative emotions (Gross, 2002). Close relationships

can be influenced by this decline in expression and responsiveness of the individuals who use suppression (Butler et al., 2003). They do not feel comfortable in closeness and sharing so they try to avoid close relationships (Gross and John, 2003). Their peers realize emotional distance, but they show neutral attitude not dislike toward the individuals who use suppression (Gross and John, 2003). They feel unwillingness for foundation of a relationship with people who use suppression (Gross and John, 2003). Thus, expressive suppression leads to avoidance of interpersonal connection during the relationship development process (Butler et al., 2003). Besides, a research showed that the suppression of emotion expression leads to decrease in the motivation of a woman's partner to meet (Butler et al., 2003). Women who use suppression have a greater experience of negative emotions and a lesser extent positive emotion about the partners (Butler et al., 2003). Therefore, expressive suppression influence both partner and the relationship (Butler et al., 2003).

An association between suppression use and undesirable results was found (Nezlek and Kuppens, 2008). There is a negative relationship between suppression and well-being (Gross and John, 2003; Haga, Kraft and Corby, 2009). Additionally, suppression is related to more psychopathology such as anxiety, depression (Aldao, Nolen-Hoeksema and Schweizer, 2010). Having more negative emotion, less positive emotion, less social support, less closeness, and worse coping are experienced by people who use suppression (Gross and John, 2003; John and Gross, 2004). They hide their inner emotions and suppress their exterior exhibition of emotion in stressful situations (Gross and John, 2003; Gross, Richards and John, 2006). They experience uncertainty about their feelings, failure in repairment of mood, less acceptance of their emotions, ruminations about occasions with bad feelings and more symptoms of depression (Gross and John, 2003). Worse emotional, interpersonal functioning, and well-being are presented by people with suppression use (Gross, Richards and John, 2006). Moreover, they experience more future pessimism, less positive relations with others, less emotional closeness in their relationships, less satisfaction about life, relationship (Gross and John, 2003) and themselves (Gross, 1998a). Low self-esteem is seen in people with suppression (Gross and John, 2003).

Although there is no damaging influence in cognitive reappraisal, social functioning can be negatively impacted by cognitive cost of expressive suppression such as

impaired memory (Gross, 2002; Cutuli, 2014); because individual who uses expressive suppression is not able to get necessary information for appropriate responses to others and this is not appropriate for interaction (John and Gross, 2004; Cutuli, 2014). Besides, communication is disrupted by expressive suppression and decreases in expressivity and responsiveness are experienced (Butler et al., 2003). There is an association between expressive suppression and lesser social intimacy, support so they experience avoidance and deficiency of closeness in social relationships (John and Gross, 2004). In the study of Butler et al. (2003), participants who received instructions for use of suppression in the discussion part experienced weakening in their responsiveness. That is to say, they displayed less responsiveness compared to reappraiser group (Butler et al., 2003). Lesser positive emotions and more negative emotions about partner were experienced in suppressor group (Butler et al., 2003). Additionally, partners of individuals who use suppression experienced and had less rapport feeling than reappraiser or group that did not receive instruction (Butler et al., 2003). Therefore, research results consistently shows that there is a positive relation between suppression and unhealthy functioning (Gross, Richards and John, 2006).

However, there is not so much research about the relationship between perceived responsiveness and emotion regulation strategies. Research mostly focus on the influence of the perceived responsiveness on the emotion regulation or influence of emotion regulations strategies on close relationships. However, it is thought that cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression may have relationship with perceived responsiveness in the light of these.

1.4 The Aim of the Present Study

Given that perceived responsiveness is significant in close relationship literature (Clark and Lemay, 2010), the possible antecedents of it had taken close attention. In the light of the attachment theory, it was assumed that attachment security may be one of the possible predictors of perceived responsiveness. Because a few number of studies showed that attachment security is highly related to perceived responsiveness not just from the partners but also from close friends and mothers (e.g., Grabill and Kerns, 2000). Although there is not much research examining the relationship between emotion regulation strategies and perceived responsiveness, the consistent positive relationship between attachment security and emotion regulation (Lopez et

al., 2001; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016) and perceived responsiveness and emotion expression (Culin, Hirsch and Clark, 2017; Ruan et al., 2019) lead us to think that emotion regulation strategies may be the other possible predictors of perceived responsiveness. Since the most frequently studied strategies of emotion regulation were cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression (John and Gross, 2004) and different people use different emotion regulation strategies and each strategy has different consequences (Gross, 1998a; John and Gross, 2004), cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression emotion regulation strategies were examined as mediators in this study.

Responsiveness mostly studied with the partner in adulthood or parents in the childhood; and adult attachments are evaluated with adults and older age groups in studies. However, people call relationships with romantic partner, family, and friend as close relationships which are significant in human life (Clark and Lemay, 2010; Reis and Clark, 2013; Wrzus et al., 2017). Therefore, it was aimed to study perceived responsiveness in other social groups apart from the partners such as families and friends. Since, the primary caregiver is mostly the mothers, it was aimed to study maternal attachment security and perceived responsiveness from mothers. Emerging adulthood which is from late teens and through the twenties and lying in between adolescence and young adulthood periods is a significant life period (Arnett, 2000). During emerging adulthood period, individuals try to form new responsive relationships with their friends but still demand security and responsiveness from their mothers. Therefore, in this study, it was aimed to focus on this specific age period by sampling university students. Given that previous research investigated relationship between attachment and perceived responsiveness and attachment and emotion regulation, none of them studied all these variables together. Therefore, the aim of the current study is to examine the intervening role of the emotion regulation strategies (i.e., cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) in relation between attachment security and perceived responsiveness.

1.5 Hypotheses of the Present Study

Hypotheses of the present study are the followings:

H₁: It was hypothesized that attachment security would be significantly and positively associated with perceived mother responsiveness. It was expected that

individuals who have reported higher levels of attachment security would perceive more responsiveness from their mothers.

H₂: It was hypothesized that attachment security would have a significant positive relationship with cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy and a significant negative relationship with expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy. More specifically, it was expected that people who reported more attachment security would report more cognitive reappraisal and less expressive suppression strategy.

H₃: It was hypothesized that cognitive reappraisal would be positively linked with perceived mother responsiveness. In other words, participants who reported more cognitive reappraisal were expected to report more perceived mother responsiveness as well.

H₄: Expressive suppression would be negatively associated with perceived mother responsiveness. More specifically, participants who reported less expressive suppression would perceive more responsiveness from their mothers.

H₅: It was hypothesized that attachment security would be significantly and positively related to perceived close friend responsiveness. It was expected that participants who reported more attachment security would perceive more responsiveness from their close friends.

H₆: It was hypothesized that cognitive reappraisal would be positively related to perceived close friend responsiveness. More specifically, it was expected that individuals who reported more cognitive reappraisal would perceive more responsiveness from their close friends.

H₇: It was hypothesized that expressive suppression would be negatively associated with perceived close friend responsiveness. In other words, participants who report less use of expressive suppression would report more perceived responsiveness from their close friends.

H₈: It was expected that cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression would mediate the relationship between attachment security and perceived mother responsiveness. More specifically, it was expected that individuals who reported more attachment security would use more cognitive reappraisal and less expressive

suppression, which in turn would be related to more perceived mother responsiveness. (see Figure 1 for proposed model)

H₉: It was expected that cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression would mediate the relationship between attachment security and perceived close friend responsiveness. More specifically, it was expected that individuals who reported more attachment security would use more cognitive reappraisal and less expressive suppression, which in turn would be related to more perceived close friend responsiveness. (see Figure 2 for proposed model)

Secondary hypotheses of the present study:

H₁₀: Attachment security, cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy, expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy, perceived mother responsiveness, and perceived close friend responsiveness would differ by gender, family status, number of siblings, and perceived income level.

H₁₁: There would be significant relations among attachment security, cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy, expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy, perceived mother responsiveness, perceived close friend responsiveness, and age.

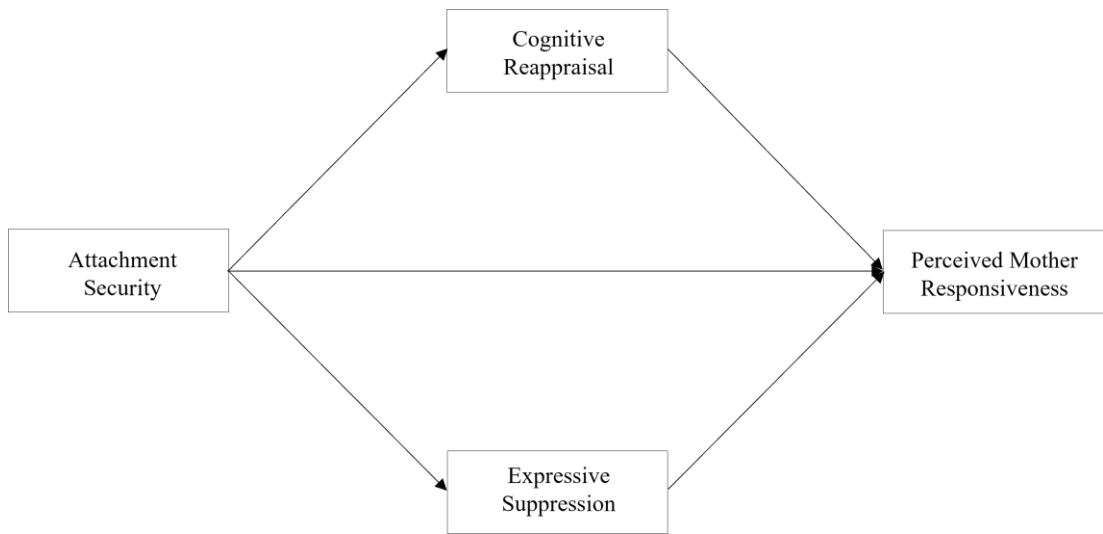


Figure 1. Proposed Model showing the Relationship between Attachment Security and Perceived Mother Responsiveness with the Mediating Role of Cognitive Reappraisal and Expressive Suppression Emotion Regulation Strategies.

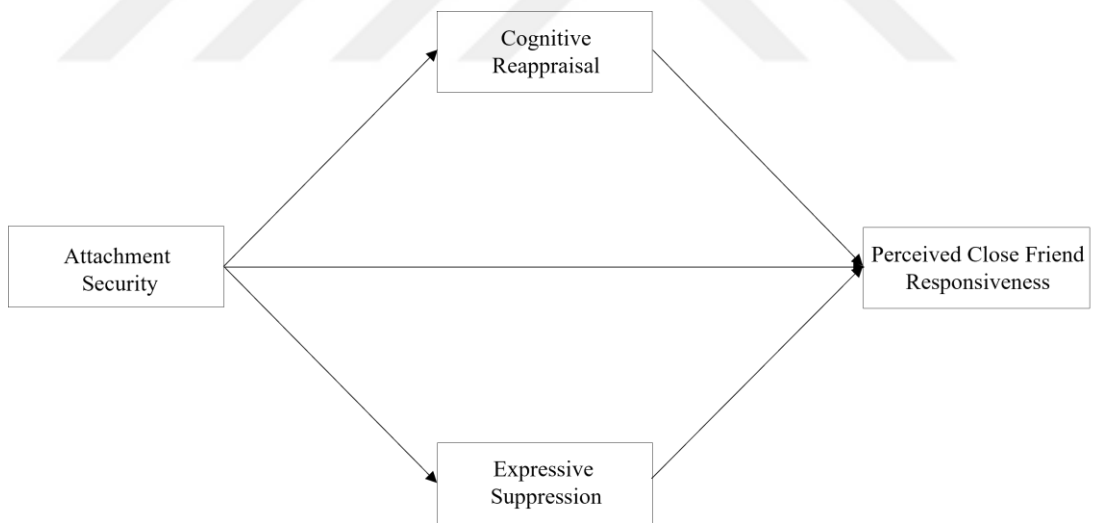


Figure 2. Proposed Model showing the Relationship between Attachment Security and Perceived Close Friend Responsiveness with the Mediating Role of Cognitive Reappraisal and Expressive Suppression Emotion Regulation Strategies.

CHAPTER 2: METHOD

This chapter covers demographic information of participants, procedure, measures used in the study, and statistical analyses.

2.1 Participants

Totally 1116 Turkish university students whose ages were between 18-24 years old ($M_{age} = 20.47$ years, $SD = 1.71$; 800 females (74.9%), 258 males) voluntarily participated in the study. Ten (0.9%) participants did not declare their gender. The inclusion criterion for this study was to be a university student between the ages of 18-24. Therefore, forty-four participants who were older than 24 years old and four participants who were younger than 18 years old were eliminated from the study. Analyses were handled with 1068 Turkish university students, majority of whom living with their families ($N = 895$, 83.8%) and whose mothers and fathers were their biological mothers ($N = 1057$, 99%) and fathers ($N = 1024$, 95.9%). In terms of education level, the number of participants who were in the preparatory class was 62 (5.8%), 344 (32.2%) of them were freshmen, 222 (20.8%) of them were sophomores, 186 (17.4%) of them were juniors, 167 (15.6%) of them were seniors, and 28 (2.7%) of them were attending to the fifth or the sixth grade (mostly students from medicine and dentistry). Lastly, while 53 (4.9%) participants were in the master program, 6 (0.6%) of them were in the doctorate program. Generally, majority of the participants were freshmen.

Regarding to sibling numbers, the number of participants who were only child was 117 (11%); the number of participants who had one sibling was 539 (50.4%); the number of participants who had two siblings was 266 (24.9%); the number of participants who had three siblings was 88 (8.2%); the number of participants who had four siblings was 20 (1.9%); the number of participants who had five and more siblings was 38 (3.6%). Participants mostly had one sibling.

In terms of family status, parents of 886 (82.9%) participants were married and living together. Thirty (2.8%) participants' parents were married but they were living apart. Moreover, 31 (2.9%) of them were divorced and living apart; 6 (0.6%) of them were divorced but they were living together; 66 (6.1%) of them were divorced and participants were living with their mothers; 7 (0.7%) of them were divorced and participants were living with their fathers; 3 (0.3%) participants had divorced parents

and they were living with their relatives. Thirty-nine (3.7%) of the participants did not indicate any answer to this question. Therefore, it can be said that majority of participants' parents were married and living together.

Regarding to perceived socioeconomic status, 78 (7.3%) participants reported their income level as low; 184 (17.2%) participants as below the middle-income level; 573 (53.7%) participants as middle-income level; 207 (19.4%) participants as above the middle-income level, and 26 (2.4%) participants as high. That is, it can be said that majority of the sample perceived their socioeconomic status as middle-income level.

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



Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Participants.

Variables	<i>N</i>	(%)	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age	1068		20.47	1.71
Gender				
Female	800	74.9		
Male	258	24.2		
Other	10	0.9		
Grades				
Preparatory class	62	5.8		
First grade	344	32.2		
Second grade	222	20.8		
Third grade	186	17.4		
Fourth grade	167	15.6		
Fifth grade	22	2.1		
Sixth grade	6	0.6		
Master's degree	53	4.9		
PhD	6	0.6		
Sibling number				
0	117	11		
1	539	50.4		
2	266	24.9		
3	88	8.2		
4	20	1.9		
5+	38	3.6		
Family status				
Married and living together	886	82.9		
Married and living apart	30	2.8		
Divorced and living apart	31	2.9		

Table 1. (continued) Demographic Characteristics of Participants.

Divorced and living together	6	0.6
Divorced and living with their mother	66	6.1
Divorced and living with their father	7	0.7
Divorced and living with their relatives	3	0.3
Other	39	3.7
Perceived income status		
Low-income level	78	7.3
Below the middle-income level	184	17.2
Middle-income level	573	53.7
Above the middle-income level	207	19.4
High-income level	26	2.4

2.2 Measures

Informed Consent Form (see Appendix B), Demographic Information Form (see Appendix C), Kern's Security Scale (KSS) (see Appendix D), Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) (see Appendix E), Perceived Responsiveness Scale for Mother (PRSM) (see Appendix F), and Perceived Responsiveness Scale for Close Friend (PRSF) (see Appendix G), and Participant Information Form (see Appendix H) will be explained in detail in the next section.

2.2.1 Demographic Information Form

This form includes questions about gender, age, grade, number of siblings, family status, and the participant's perception of their socioeconomic level.

2.2.2 Kern's Security Scale (KSS)

Kern's Security Scale was developed by Kerns, Klepac, and Cole (1996) and adapted to Turkish by Sümer and Anafarta-Şendağ (2009). It was used to evaluate the perception of participants about their security of relationship with their mothers. This scale includes 15 items (e.g., "Some individuals wish their mother would help them more with their problems, BUT other individuals think their mother helps them enough") in the form of Harter (1982) type scale. Participants firstly determined the most appropriate statement for themselves and then they looked at the left or right side of the conjunction. They rated the most appropriate statement in a 2-point Likert type scale ("really like" or "sort of like"). Highest point in the scale is 60 and lowest score is 15. Higher scores indicate a more secure attachment. The Cronbach's alpha for Security Scale was found .84, its test-retest correlation was .75 (Kerns, Klepac and Cole, 1996). In the Turkish adaptation study, the Cronbach's alpha of scale was found .84 (Sümer and Anafarta-Şendağ, 2009). In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha of the scale was found as .89.

2.2.3 Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ)

Emotion Regulation Questionnaire was developed by Gross and John (2003) and adapted to Turkish by Ulaşan Özgüle (2011). It was used to assess the emotion regulation strategies of the participants. This questionnaire consists of 10 items (e.g., "I keep my emotions to myself.") with a seven-point Likert type scale (1 for "Strongly Disagree" and 7 for "Strongly Agree"). While six items measure Cognitive Reappraisal Emotion Regulation Strategy, four items measure Expressive Suppression Emotion Regulation Strategy. The Cronbach's alpha for cognitive reappraisal were between .75 and .82 as averaged .79 and the Cronbach's alpha for expressive suppression were found in the range of .68 and .76 as averaged .73. Both cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression dimensions has .69 test-retest reliability (Gross and John, 2003). In the Turkish adaptation of the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha was found for cognitive reappraisal as .78 and Cronbach's alpha for expressive suppression was found as .64 (Ulaşan Özgüle, 2011). In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha for cognitive reappraisal subscale was .77 and the Cronbach's alpha for expressive suppression subscale was .79.

2.2.4 Perceived Responsiveness Scale (PRS)

Perceived Responsiveness Scale was developed by Reis (2003) and adapted to Turkish by Taşfiliz, Sağel Çetiner, and Selçuk (2020). The mother and close friend forms of the scale were used to measure the perceived responsiveness of mothers (e.g., “My mother really listens to me.”) and perceived responsiveness of close friends (e.g., “My close friend really listens to me.”). Each scale includes 18 items with a nine-point Likert type scale (1 for “Not at True All” and 9 for “Completely True”). For mother scale, higher scores specify perceiving higher responsiveness from mother and for close friend scale, higher scores indicate higher perceived responsiveness from close friend. Cronbach’s alpha for mother scale was .96 and for close friend scale was .95 (Taşfiliz, Sağel Çetiner and Selçuk, 2020). In the current study, Cronbach’s alpha for both mother and close friend scales were .97.

2.3 Procedure

Before the data collection, the approval was obtained from Ethical Committee of Izmir University of Economics (see Appendix A). In the study, participants were university students who were between 18-24 years old. Exclusion criteria in the study were being younger than 18 and older than 24 years old and not being a university student. The questionnaires were turned into online survey and data was collected via online survey website (surveey.com.tr). Participants were reached via social media platforms such as Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, and WhatsApp and e-mail groups. Firstly, it was asked to fulfill the informed consent form which includes the aim and general procedure of the study, information about voluntary participation, confidentiality, anonymity of their responses, and their right to withdraw from study whenever they want. After signing the consent form, the participants completed the demographic information form, Kern’s Security Scale, Emotion Regulation Questionnaire, Perceived Responsiveness Scale for Mother, and Perceived Responsiveness Scale for Close Friend. After completing the questionnaire set, they were informed about the study and e-mail address of the researcher was presented in case of more information needed by the participants.

2.4 Statistical Analysis

The aim of this study was to examine the mediating role of the emotion regulation strategies in relation between attachment security and perceived responsiveness. To reach this aim, firstly, data screening was conducted. Descriptive analyses were

handled both for demographic and the study variables. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted to examine group differences in terms of study variables. Correlation Analysis among study variables (i.e., attachment security, cognitive reappraisal, expressive suppression, perceived mother responsiveness, perceived close friend responsiveness, and age) was performed. Finally, mediation analyses were performed to examine the mediating roles of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression emotion regulation strategies in relation to attachment security and perceived responsiveness for mother and for close friend with model 4 of PROCESS version 3.5 by Andrew F. Hayes (2020). The significance of the models was evaluated over 95% confidence interval and the confidence interval including zero was evaluated as statistically nonsignificant (Preacher and Hayes, 2008). These analyses were conducted with IBM SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 22. Data was collected from 1116 participants. Given that exclusion criteria were including being younger than 18 years old and older than 24 years old as well as not being a university student, firstly, 44 participants who were older than 24 years old and 4 participants who were younger than 18 years old were excluded from the analysis. Main analyses were done over remaining 1068 participants.

CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

This chapter includes descriptive statistics, group differences in main variables, correlations among main variables, and main mediation analyses.

3.1 Descriptive Statistics

Firstly, means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum ranges were calculated for attachment security, cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy, expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy, perceived mother responsiveness and perceived close friend responsiveness (see Table 2). The mean score of attachment security was 2.87 ($SD = 0.65$). The mean score of cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy was 3.68 ($SD = 1.01$). The mean score of expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy was 3.36 ($SD = 1.27$). The mean score of perceived mother responsiveness was 6.01 ($SD = 2.17$). The mean score of perceived close friend responsiveness was 6.94 ($SD = 1.66$).

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics for the Study Variables.

Variables	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>
Attachment Security	1060	2.87	0.65	1	4
Cognitive Reappraisal	1068	3.68	1.01	1	6
Expressive Suppression	1068	3.36	1.27	1	6
Perceived Mother Responsiveness	1068	6.01	2.17	1	9
Perceived Close Friend Responsiveness	1068	6.94	1.66	1	9

3.2 Group Differences

Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) were performed to investigate the differences among groups in main study variables in terms of gender, number of siblings, family status, and perceived income level.

3.2.1 Differences between Groups on Study Variables in Terms of Gender

MANOVA was applied to specify group differences among variables regarding to gender. According to the results, significant differences were found between groups in terms of gender, *Wilk's A* = .949, $F(5, 1044) = 11.17$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .051$. There were no significant difference between male and female participants in attachment

security ($p = .381$), cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy ($p = .451$), and perceived mother responsiveness ($p = .214$). However, there was a significant difference between gender in expressive suppression, $F(1, 1048) = 32.24$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .030$. Males ($n = 254$, $M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.25$) were using expressive suppression strategy to regulate their emotion more than females ($n = 796$, $M = 3.25$, $SD = 1.26$). In perceived close friend responsiveness, males and females significantly differed from each other too, $F(1, 1048) = 9.51$, $p = .002$, $\eta^2 = .009$. Females ($n = 796$, $M = 7.04$, $SD = 1.64$) perceived more responsiveness from their close friends than males ($n = 254$, $M = 6.67$, $SD = 1.68$).

Table 3. MANOVA Results for Gender Differences.

Variables	Males		Females		F	p	η^2
	M	SD	M	SD			
Attachment Security	2.84	0.60	2.88	0.66	0.77	.381	.001
Cognitive Reappraisal	3.64	1.06	3.70	1.00	0.57	.451	.001
Expressive Suppression	3.76	1.25	3.25	1.26	32.24	<.001***	.030
Perceived Mother Responsiveness	6.16	1.97	5.97	2.24	1.54	.214	.001
Perceived Close Friend Responsiveness	6.67	1.68	7.04	1.64	9.51	.002**	.009

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

3.2.2 Differences among Groups on Study Variables in Terms of Number of Sibling

According to MANOVA results, number of siblings provided significant differences among groups, *Wilk's A* = .954, $F(25, 3902) = 2$, $p = .002$, $\eta^2 = .009$. Significant differences were found in attachment security, ($F(5, 1054) = 5.02$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .023$). Pairwise comparisons showed that participants who had one sibling ($n = 538$, $M = 2.94$, $SD = 0.63$) reported higher attachment security than participants who had three siblings ($n = 87$, $M = 2.67$, $SD = 0.71$) and participants who had five and more siblings ($n = 36$, $M = 2.61$, $SD = 0.63$). Results indicated that number of siblings provided significant differences in perceived mother responsiveness, $F(5, 1054) = 5.48$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .025$. According to the pairwise comparison results, participants

who had three siblings ($n = 87$, $M = 5.23$, $SD = 2.20$) reported lower perceived mother responsiveness than participants who were only child ($n = 114$, $M = 6.28$, $SD = 2.10$) and participants who had one sibling ($n = 538$, $M = 6.24$, $SD = 2.15$). Significant results were not achieved in perceived close friend responsiveness ($p = .05$), cognitive reappraisal ($p = .164$) and expressive suppression ($p = .124$) emotion regulation strategies.



Table 4. MANOVA Results for Number of Siblings.

Variables	0		1		2		3		4		5+		F	p	η^2
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Attachment Security	2.93	0.66	2.94	0.63	2.82	0.62	2.67	0.71	2.68	0.59	2.61	0.63	5.02	<.001***	.023
Cognitive Reappraisal	3.77	1.04	3.69	1.01	3.73	1.01	3.63	.97	3.23	1.12	3.44	.98	1.58	.164	.007
Expressive Suppression	3.29	1.26	3.29	1.29	3.48	1.26	3.47	1.23	3.20	.88	3.76	1.33	1.74	.124	.008
Perceived Mother Responsiveness	6.28	2.10	6.24	2.15	5.82	2.14	5.23	2.20	4.91	2.09	5.69	2.34	5.48	<.001***	.025
Perceived Close Friend Responsiveness	7.04	1.55	7.08	1.62	6.84	1.67	6.55	1.85	6.71	1.45	6.69	1.84	2.24	.05	.011

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

3.2.3 Differences among Groups on Study Variables in Terms of Family Status

Family status provided statistically significant differences among groups *Wilk's Λ* = .943, $F(30, 4042) = 1.99$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .012$. While no significant results were achieved in cognitive reappraisal ($p = .700$), expressive suppression ($p = .225$) and perceived close friend responsiveness ($p = .404$), there were significant differences in attachment security ($F(6, 1014) = 5.60$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .032$.) and perceived mother responsiveness ($F(6, 1014) = 4.01$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .023$). Pairwise comparisons indicated that participants whose parents were divorced and who were living with their father ($n = 7$, $M = 1.76$, $SD = 0.44$) had lower attachment security than participants whose parents were married and living together ($n = 879$, $M = 2.88$, $SD = 0.64$); participants whose parents were married and living apart ($n = 30$, $M = 2.74$, $SD = 0.63$); participants whose parents were divorced and living apart ($n = 30$, $M = 2.75$, $SD = 0.72$); participants whose parents were divorced and were living together ($n = 6$, $M = 3.01$, $SD = 0.64$); participants whose parents were divorced and who were living with their mother ($n = 66$, $M = 2.99$, $SD = 0.62$).

In perceived mother responsiveness, participants whose parents were divorced and who were living with their father ($n = 7$, $M = 2.91$, $SD = 1.74$) had lower perceived mother responsiveness score than participants whose parents were married and living together ($n = 879$, $M = 6.03$, $SD = 2.15$); participants whose parents were married and living apart ($n = 30$, $M = 5.86$, $SD = 2.29$); participants whose parents were divorced and living apart ($n = 30$, $M = 5.69$, $SD = 2.22$); participants whose parents were divorced and were living together ($n = 6$, $M = 7.34$, $SD = 1.88$), and participants whose parents were divorced and who were living with their mother ($n = 66$, $M = 6.39$, $SD = 2.05$).

Table 5. MANOVA Results for Family Status.

Variables	Married						Divorced						F	p	η^2		
	Living together		Living apart		Living together		Living with their mother		Living with their father		Living with their relatives						
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD					
Attachment Security	2.88	0.64	2.74	0.63	2.75	0.72	3.01	0.64	2.99	0.62	1.76	0.44	1.89	0.34	5.60	<.001***	.032
Cognitive Reappraisal	3.67	0.99	3.65	0.96	3.92	1.02	4.00	1.70	3.76	1.14	4.07	1.53	3.94	0.63	.64	.700	.004
Expressive Suppression	3.34	1.27	3.68	1.22	3.09	1.21	2.58	2.01	3.52	1.31	3.89	1.27	2.92	0.52	1.37	.225	.008
Perceived Mother Responsiveness	6.03	2.15	5.86	2.29	5.69	2.22	7.34	1.88	6.39	2.05	2.91	1.74	3.50	1.54	4.01	.001**	.023
Perceived Close Friend Responsiveness	6.99	1.63	6.69	1.63	6.41	2.17	7.28	1.39	6.89	1.59	6.22	2.08	7.09	2.10	1.03	.404	.006

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

3.2.4 Differences among Groups on Study Variables in Terms of Perceived Income Level

According to MANOVA results, significant group differences were achieved with perceived income status, *Wilk's A* = .931, $F(20, 3486) = 3.80$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .018$. Participants significantly differed in attachment security $F(4, 1055) = 10.97$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .040$, expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy $F(4, 1055) = 7.52$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .028$, perceived mother responsiveness $F(4, 1055) = 6.40$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .024$, and perceived close friend responsiveness $F(4, 1055) = 4.59$, $p = .001$, $\eta^2 = .017$. However, they did not significantly differ in cognitive reappraisal ($p = .508$).

According to pairwise comparisons, participants who had low-income level ($n = 77$, $M = 2.60$, $SD = 0.66$) had lower attachment security than participants who were in the middle-income level ($n = 567$, $M = 2.89$, $SD = 0.63$); participants who were in the above the middle-income level ($n = 206$, $M = 3.04$, $SD = 0.61$); participants who were in the high-income level ($n = 26$, $M = 3.05$, $SD = 0.56$). Participants who were in the above the middle-income level ($n = 206$, $M = 3.04$, $SD = 0.61$) had higher attachment security than participants who were in the below the middle-income level ($n = 184$, $M = 2.70$, $SD = 0.66$) and participants who were in the middle-income level ($n = 567$, $M = 2.89$, $SD = 0.63$). Participants who were below the middle-income level ($n = 184$, $M = 2.70$, $SD = 0.66$) had lower attachment security than participants who were in the middle-income level ($n = 567$, $M = 2.89$, $SD = 0.63$).

Pairwise comparisons showed that participants who were above the middle-income level ($n = 206$, $M = 3.02$, $SD = 1.27$) were using less expressive suppression than participants who were in the low-income level ($n = 77$, $M = 3.48$, $SD = 1.32$), below the middle-income level ($n = 184$, $M = 3.71$, $SD = 1.24$), and middle-income level ($n = 567$, $M = 3.36$, $SD = 1.25$). Participants who were below the middle-income level ($n = 184$, $M = 3.71$, $SD = 1.24$) had higher score in using expressive suppression than participants who were in the middle-income level ($n = 567$, $M = 3.36$, $SD = 1.25$).

According to pairwise comparisons in perceived mother responsiveness, participants who were in the above the middle-income level ($n = 206$, $M = 6.54$, $SD = 2.02$) had higher score than participants who were in the low-income level ($n = 77$, $M = 5.51$,

$SD = 2.45$), below the middle-income level ($n = 184$, $M = 5.58$, $SD = 2.22$) and middle-income level ($n = 567$, $M = 6.01$, $SD = 2.15$). Participants who were in the above the middle-income level ($n = 206$, $M = 7.24$, $SD = 1.57$) had higher perceived friend responsiveness score than participants who were in the below the middle-income level ($n = 184$, $M = 6.64$, $SD = 1.79$).



Table 6. MANOVA Results for Perceived Income Level.

Variables	Low		Below the Middle		Above the Middle		High		F	p	η^2		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD					
	Attachment Security	2.60	0.66	2.70	0.66	2.89	0.63	3.04				0.61	3.05
Cognitive Reappraisal	3.59	1.16	3.63	1.06	3.68	1.00	3.76	.90	3.87	1.15	0.83	.508	.003
Expressive Suppression	3.48	1.32	3.71	1.24	3.36	1.25	3.02	1.27	3.33	1.39	7.52	<.001***	.028
Perceived Mother Responsiveness	5.51	2.45	5.58	2.22	6.01	2.15	6.54	2.02	6.50	1.92	6.40	<.001***	.024
Perceived Close Friend Responsiveness	6.64	1.75	6.64	1.79	6.96	1.62	7.24	1.57	7.51	1.37	4.59	.001**	.017

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

3.3 Correlation Analyses among Study Variables

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to examine the relations among study variables namely attachment security, cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy, expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy, perceived mother responsiveness, perceived close friend responsiveness, and age.

Results indicated that attachment security was significantly and positively correlated with cognitive reappraisal ($r = .13, p < .001$), perceived mother responsiveness ($r = .72, p < .001$), and perceived close friend responsiveness ($r = .25, p < .001$), and negatively correlated with expressive suppression ($r = -.19, p < .001$). Cognitive reappraisal was significantly and positively correlated with expressive suppression ($r = .09, p = .003$), perceived mother responsiveness ($r = .19, p < .001$), and perceived close friend responsiveness ($r = .19, p < .001$). Expressive suppression was negatively correlated with perceived mother responsiveness ($r = -.11, p = .001$) and perceived close friend responsiveness ($r = -.07, p = .019$). There was a significant positive correlation between perceived mother responsiveness and perceived close friend responsiveness ($r = .40, p < .001$). Lastly, age was only positively correlated with perceived mother responsiveness ($r = .10, p = .002$).

Table 7. Correlations between the Study Variables.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5
1. Attachment Security	-				
2. Cognitive Reappraisal	.13**	-			
3. Expressive Suppression	-.19**	.09**	-		
4. Perceived Mother Responsiveness	.72**	.19**	-.11**	-	
5. Perceived Close Friend Responsiveness	.25**	.19**	-.07*	.40**	-
6. Age	.04	.02	-.05	.10**	.10

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

3.4 Mediation Analyses

Mediation analysis was performed to examine the mediating role of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression emotion regulation strategies in relation between attachment security and perceived mother and close friend responsiveness. In this analysis, attachment security was predictor variable, perceived mother responsiveness and perceived close friend responsiveness were outcomes and emotion regulation strategies were mediators. Lastly, given that age was positively correlated with perceived mother responsiveness and gender differences were found for the expressive suppression and perceived close friend responsiveness variables, both of them were included to the analysis as covariate variables. The mediation analyses were handled first for perceived mother responsiveness and then for the perceived close friend responsiveness through model 4 of PROCESS macro.

3.4.1 The Mediating Roles of Cognitive Reappraisal and Expressive Suppression in Relation between Attachment Security and Perceived Mother Responsiveness

The first mediation analysis was conducted to investigate the mediating roles of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression emotion regulation strategies in relationship between attachment security and perceived mother responsiveness.

According to the results, attachment security positively predicted cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy, $B = 0.201$, $SE = .048$, $\beta = .128$, 95% CI [0.106, 0.295], $p < .001$ and negatively predicted expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy, $B = -0.354$, $SE = .059$, $\beta = -.180$, 95% CI [-0.469, -0.238], $p < .001$. Cognitive reappraisal, in turn, positively predicted perceived mother responsiveness, $B = 0.188$, $SE = .047$, $\beta = .087$, 95% CI [0.097, 0.279], $p < .001$. However, expressive suppression did not significantly predict perceived mother responsiveness, $B = 0.025$, $SE = .038$, $\beta = .015$, 95% CI [-0.050, 0.099], $p = .515$. Both direct effect of attachment security on perceived mother responsiveness $B = 2.380$, $SE = .074$, $\beta = .707$, 95% CI [2.236, 2.525], $p < .001$, and total effect of attachment security on perceived mother responsiveness, $B =$

2.409, $SE = .072$, $\beta = .715$, 95% CI [2.267, 2.551], $p < .001$ were significant.

The indirect effect of attachment security on perceived mother responsiveness through cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy was significant, $B = 0.038$, $SE = .004$, $\beta = .011$, 95% CI [0.004, 0.021]. However, the indirect effect of attachment security on perceived mother responsiveness through expressive suppression was not significant, $B = -0.009$, $SE = .004$, $\beta = -.003$, 95% CI [-0.012, 0.006]. These results showed that while the mediating role of cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy in relation between attachment security and perceived mother responsiveness was achieved, there was no mediating role of expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy in relation between attachment security and perceived mother responsiveness.

In terms of covariates, gender ($p = .489$) and age ($p = .729$) did not significantly predict cognitive reappraisal. However, gender positively, $B = 0.531$, $SE = .090$, $\beta = .179$, 95% CI [0.355, 0.707], $p < .001$ and age negatively predicted expressive suppression, $B = -0.051$, $SE = .023$, $\beta = -.068$, 95% CI [-0.095, -0.007], $p = .024$. Moreover, gender, $B = 0.238$, $SE = .111$, $\beta = .047$, 95% CI [0.019, 0.456], $p = .033$ and age positively predicted perceived mother responsiveness $B = 0.080$, $SE = .028$, $\beta = .063$, 95% CI [0.026, 0.134], $p = .004$.

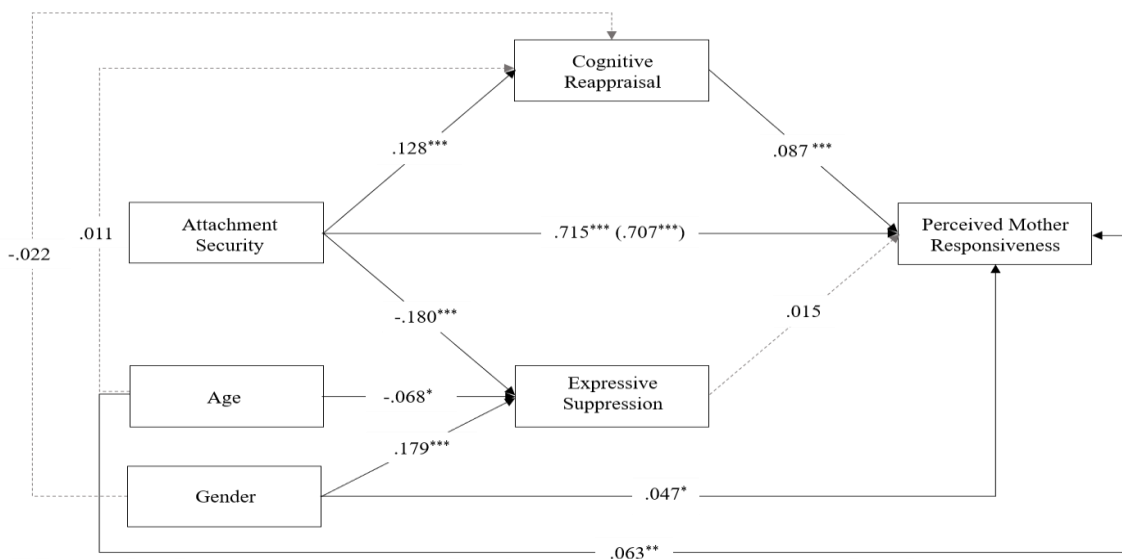


Figure 3. The mediating role of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression in relation between attachment security and perceived mother responsiveness.

Total effect: $B = 2.409$, $SE = .072$, $\beta = .715$, 95% CI [2.267, 2.551], $p < .001$

Direct effect: $B = 2.380$, $SE = .074$, $\beta = .707$, 95% CI [2.236, 2.525], $p < .001$

Indirect effect of cognitive reappraisal: $B = 0.038$, $SE = .004$, $\beta = .011$, 95% CI [0.004, 0.021].

Indirect effect of expressive suppression: $B = -0.009$, $SE = .004$, $\beta = -.003$, 95% CI [-0.012, 0.006].

Model: $R^2 = (.528)$, $F(5, 1044) = 233.586$, $p < .001$.

Note 1. The standardized values were used in the figure.

Note 2. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

3.4.2 The Mediating Roles of Cognitive Reappraisal and Expressive Suppression in Relation between Attachment Security and Perceived Close Friend Responsiveness

The second mediation analysis was conducted to investigate the mediating roles of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression emotion regulation strategies in relationship between attachment security and perceived close friend responsiveness.

According to the results, attachment security positively predicted cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy, $B = 0.201$, $SE = .048$, $\beta = .128$, 95% CI [0.106, 0.295], $p < .001$, and negatively predicted expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy, $B = -0.354$, $SE = .059$, $\beta = -.180$, 95% CI [-0.469, -0.238], $p < .001$. Cognitive reappraisal, in turn, positively predicted perceived close friend responsiveness, $B = 0.254$, $SE = .049$, $\beta = .155$, 95% CI [0.157, 0.350], $p < .001$. However, expressive suppression did not significantly predict perceived close friend responsiveness, $B = -0.036$, $SE = .040$, $\beta = -.027$, 95% CI [-0.114, 0.043], $p = .373$. Both direct effect of attachment security on perceived close friend responsiveness $B = 0.574$, $SE = .078$, $\beta = .224$, 95% CI [0.421, 0.727], $p < .001$ and total effect of attachment security on perceived close friend responsiveness, $B = 0.638$, $SE = .077$, $\beta = .248$, 95% CI [0.487, 0.788], $p < .001$ were significant.

The indirect effect of attachment security on perceived close friend responsiveness through cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy was significant, $B = 0.051$, $SE = .007$, $\beta = .020$, 95% CI [0.008, 0.034]. However, the indirect effect of attachment security on perceived close friend responsiveness through expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy was not significant, $B = 0.013$, $SE = .006$, $\beta = .005$, 95% CI [-0.007, 0.017]. The results showed that cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy played a significant intervening role in relation between attachment security and perceived close friend responsiveness. However, expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy did not mediate the relationship between attachment security and perceived close friend responsiveness.

In terms of covariates, gender ($p = .489$) and age ($p = .729$) did not significantly predict cognitive reappraisal. However, gender positively, $B = 0.531$, $SE = .090$, $\beta = .179$, 95% CI [0.355, 0.707], $p < .001$ and age negatively predicted expressive suppression, $B = -0.051$, $SE = .023$, $\beta = -.068$, 95% CI [-0.095, -0.007], $p = .024$.

Lastly, while gender significantly predicted perceived close friend responsiveness, $B = -0.313$, $SE = .118$, $\beta = -.081$, 95% CI [-0.544, -0.082], $p = .008$, age did not significantly predict perceived close friend responsiveness, $p = .936$.

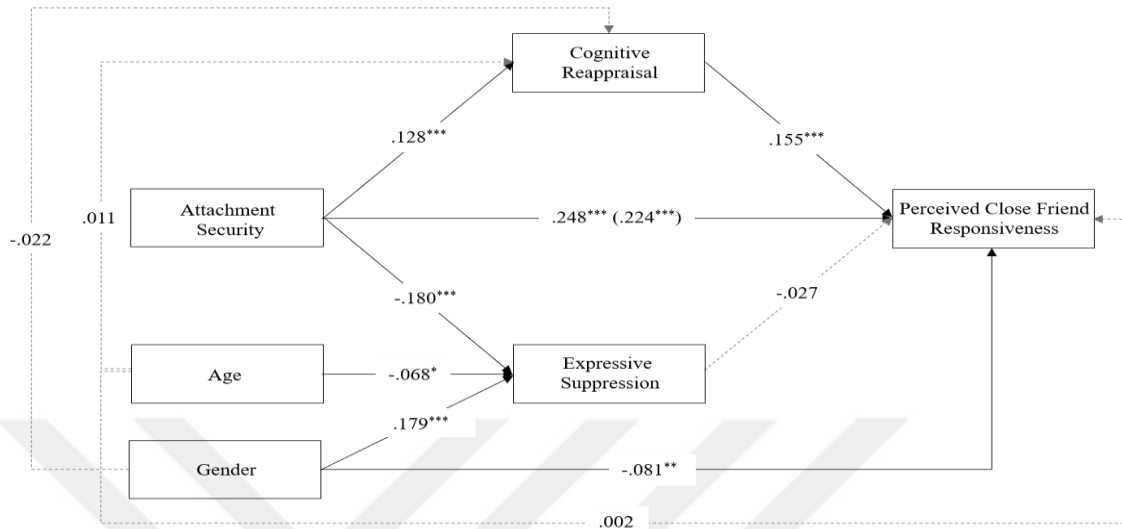


Figure 4. The mediating role of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression in relation between attachment security and perceived close friend responsiveness.

Total effect: $B = 0.638$, $SE = .077$, $\beta = .248$, 95% CI [0.487, 0.788], $p < .001$

Direct effect: $B = 0.574$, $SE = .078$, $\beta = .224$, 95% CI [0.421, 0.727], $p < .001$

Indirect effect of cognitive reappraisal: $B = 0.051$, $SE = .007$, $\beta = .020$, 95% CI [0.008, 0.034].

Indirect effect of expressive suppression: $B = 0.013$, $SE = .006$, $\beta = .005$, 95% CI [-0.007, 0.017].

Model: $R^2 = (.094)$, $F(5, 1044) = 21.631$, $p < .001$.

Note 1. The standardized values were used in the figure.

Note 2. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

3.5 Supplementary Analysis

Given that there were some inequalities in the number of participants among groups and MANOVA results showed some significant differences in study variables in terms of the demographic characteristics of the participants, we wanted to test the same mediation models by including these demographic variables as additional covariates. Therefore, sibling number, family status, and perceived income level were entered to the models in addition to age and gender. According to results, none of the demographic variables were found significant in both models (all $ps > .05$).

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

In the current study, the aim was to examine the mediating roles of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression emotion regulation strategies in relation between attachment security and perceived responsiveness from mothers and close friends in Turkish university students. Self-reports of the university students were used. Attachment security was evaluated over mother who is mostly considered as the primary caregiver, while perceived responsiveness was assessed in terms of relationship with mothers and close friends. Two mediation analyses were handled separately for perceived mother and close friend responsiveness outcomes. This chapter covers discussion of the reported findings with the literature, the limitations of the present study, and directions for future research.

4.1 Findings related to Relationships between Study Variables

Firstly, it was hypothesized that attachment security would be positively associated with perceived mother responsiveness. It was expected that individuals who have reported higher levels of attachment security would perceive more responsiveness from their mothers. In the current study, consistent with our hypothesis, it was found that increase in attachment security related to an increment in perceived mother responsiveness. In other words, individuals who are securely attached perceived more responsiveness from their mothers. Consistent with the previous literature, this result indicated that perception of responsiveness from the caregiver in adulthood is influenced by relationship with the caregiver in the childhood (Cook, Dezangré and De Mol, 2017). However, there were no research directly examine the relationship between attachment security and perceived mother responsiveness in emerging adulthood period. Responsiveness from mothers is mostly studied in childhood period (e.g., Bornstein and Tamis-LeMonda, 1997; Kochanska and Aksan, 2004; Bornstein et al., 2008; Scherer et al., 2019), the impacts of the mother's responsiveness on attachment security of the child have been generally examined (e.g., Crockenberg, 1981; Raval et al., 2001) or responsiveness from romantic partner has been examined in adulthood (e.g., Selçuk et al., 2016, 2017; Taşfiliz et al., 2018; Jolink, Chang and Algoe, 2021). Although perceived mother responsiveness has not been studied specifically and directly, this finding is consistent with the literature on perceived responsiveness. There are some research that individuals with more attachment security perceive more responsiveness in their

relationship (Segal and Fraley, 2015) and lower perceived responsiveness is experienced in attachment insecurity (Shallcross et al., 2011). In the similar vein, there is a tendency in insecure individuals to perceive less responsiveness from their partners and secure individuals have higher possibility to perceive responsiveness. For example, low-support messages, prior behavioral interaction, and messages of partners were perceived as less supportive by insecure individuals. However, secure individuals reported equal supportiveness from partners in both supportive or unsupportive notes (Collins and Feeney, 2004). Mothers of secure children are sensitive and responsive (Ainsworth et al., 1978) and secure individuals have expectation about responsiveness and accessibility of their mothers (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Therefore, since they experience responsiveness and sensitivity in their childhood, they may learn from their prior experiences with their mother, and they may have more positive perception about the behavior of their mothers in the future. Therefore, they may perceive more responsiveness from their mother in also emerging adulthood.

Secondly, it was hypothesized that attachment security would have a significant positive relationship with cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy and a significant negative relationship with expressive suppression emotion regulation strategy. More specifically, it was expected that people who reported more attachment security would report more cognitive reappraisal and less expressive suppression strategy. Consistent with the hypothesis, findings pointed out that reporting more attachment security related to use of more cognitive reappraisal and less expressive suppression. Research shows that there is a close relation between emotion regulation and attachment security (Cassidy, 1994). Differences in the security of child's relationship with his/her parent have a significant place in the development of emotion regulation (Thompson and Meyer, 2007). Therefore, secure and insecure individuals use different strategies to regulate their emotions (Cassidy, 1994). Effective emotion regulation is used by securely attached children (Brumariu, 2015; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016). Therefore, this finding of the present study is in line with the literature, which indicates that individuals with secure attachment use more adaptive emotion regulation strategy namely cognitive reappraisal (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2018). They use reappraisal for events instead of suppression. Besides, they prefer to express emotions not to suppress (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007).

Another study pointed out that more cognitive reappraisal and less expressive suppression are used by securely attached individuals (Winterheld, 2016). This may be because mothers of securely attached children elaboratively talk about experiences of the child so the child can have more understanding of emotion (Thompson, 2015). Besides, secure children also have self-awareness about emotion and flexible management capacity (Thompson and Meyer, 2007). Having repeated interaction with sensitive and responsive caregiver provides constructive approach to emotion regulation. Therefore, flexible and healthy regulation is achieved with attachment security and secure individuals can openly experience and express their emotions (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). Additionally, secure individuals have more willingness for self-disclose (Grabill and Kerns, 2000). Their expectation is that other people produce useful reactions to their expression of emotion (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016). Thus, there is no need for them to deny, avoid, or suppress. Modifications and constructive reappraisal of event that elicit emotions are displayed by securely attached people and they are able to use problem solving, planning, and reappraisal strategies in a more efficient way (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). However, mothers of insecure children produce less sensitiveness and inconsistent responsiveness and do not feel comfortable about talking about their emotions. Therefore, insecure children possess limited comprehension of emotions and they use suppression for expression of negative emotions (Thompson and Meyer, 2007). In other words, emotional experience is denied and distorted, threats are ruminated and emotions are unconsciously suppressed in attachment insecurity (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007). Consequently, the finding of the current study which individuals with more attachment security used more cognitive reappraisal and less expressive suppression is consistent with the literature.

Thirdly, it was expected that cognitive reappraisal would be positively related to perceived mother responsiveness. According to the results of the current study, consistent with the third hypothesis, more cognitive reappraisal use found to be related to more perceived mother responsiveness. In the literature, although there are some research examining the relationship between cognitive reappraisal and perceived social support (e.g., D'Arbeloff et al., 2018; Sachs-Ericsson et al., 2019), the relationship between cognitive reappraisal and perceived mother responsiveness

have not been studied yet. These studies indicated that cognitive reappraisal use is linked with higher perceived social support (D'Arbeloff et al., 2018; Sachs-Ericsson et al., 2019). Cognitive reappraisal is an adaptive emotion regulation strategy (John and Gross, 2004) and it includes reassessment of the situations (Gross, 2002). Besides, individuals using reappraisal strategy have positive perspective for difficult situations (John and Gross, 2004), so they may have more favorable reframing for their relationships. They may have more adaptive evaluation of the relationship with mother and her behaviors by using benign terms (Mikulincer and Florian, 1995). Therefore, they may perceive behaviors and relationship as more responsive so they may perceive more responsiveness from their mothers.

Fourthly, it was hypothesized that expressive suppression would be negatively associated with perceived mother responsiveness. More specifically, it was assumed that participants who reported less expressive suppression would perceive more responsiveness from their mothers. Findings did not confirm that participants using less expressive suppression strategy reported more perceived mother responsiveness. In the same way with previous hypothesis, there has been no research about this relationship. However, in the literature, there have been some findings that challenge this finding. For example, in the literature, it was found that less social closeness and support was significantly related to expressive suppression use (John and Gross, 2004). A study indicated that while stable suppression was related to less support from parents (Srivastava et al., 2009). There is also a study revealed that expressive suppression had a negative relationship with perceived social support (D'Arbeloff et al., 2018). Besides, self-disclosure is significant in intimacy (Reis and Shaver, 1988). Relationship partners give reactions to the disclosure of the person with their responsive behaviors (Maisel, Gable and Strachman, 2008). There is a strong relation between clear and direct expression of her/his need and more responsiveness and support to the person, whereas an association between indirect expression of needs and less responsiveness and more negative support was found (Collins and Feeney, 2000). Therefore, it can be said that self-disclosure and emotional expression are important for partners to display responsiveness (Reis and Shaver, 1988). Besides, in a study, the impact of perceived responsiveness on emotional expression is focused (e.g., Ruan et al., 2019). They found that there is a relationship between higher perceived responsiveness and expression of positive and negative emotions. Namely,

it was indicated that individuals who have higher perceived responsiveness express more emotions (Ruan et al., 2019). For example, in the similar vein, when they perceive more responsiveness from their partners, they have more willingness for sharing and expression of their emotions (Culin, Hirsch and Clark, 2017). However, individuals who use expressive suppression exhibit less sharing of both positive and negative emotions (Gross and John, 2003). Nonetheless, this may not mean that individuals do not share anything. They may see their mothers as a close person in their life. They may suppress some of their emotions but they may also share and express some of their emotions. This may not include total suppression of all emotions. Besides, while a study found that there is no relation between persistent use of expressive suppression and less beneficial results (Meyer et al., 2012), no relation between dynamic suppression and support from parents was found (Srivastava et al., 2009). Additionally, using suppression may not be a maladaptive strategy for the person who especially and intentionally choose this strategy. Because the frequency of suppression use may be influential, their suppression of emotions may not affect their perception about responsiveness from their mothers. Use of suppression may not sufficiently decrease the perception of individuals about their perceived mother responsiveness. Thus, the results may not provide significant negative relationship between expressive suppression and perceived mother responsiveness.

Fifth hypothesis was that there would be a positive relationship between attachment security and perceived close friend responsiveness. Results indicated that participants with more attachment security reported more perceived responsiveness from their close friends. This finding of the current study is consistent with the previous research in the literature, which feeling more responsiveness from friends was experienced in securely attached individuals (Grabill and Kerns, 2000). More attachment security leads to perception of more intimate conversation and more intimacy with friends (Grabill and Kerns, 2000). More companionship was reported by dyads who have secure attachments (Kerns, Klepac and Cole, 1996). Although parents remain as attachment figures, their place can be changed through the place of peers in adulthood (Hazan and Shaver, 1987). However, attachment has a lifelong impacts (Bowlby, 1988). How attachment relationship with caregiver is internalized influence future relationships (Bowlby, 1969). Additionally, according to attachment

theory, reflection of the security of the child relationship with the caregiver is seen in the interpersonal relationships of the child (Schneider, Atkinson and Tardif, 2001). For instance, if individuals have perception about their parents as responsive, they possess belief about others as reliable (Collins and Read, 1990). Thus, since secure individuals who have experience with responsive and supportive caregiver also expect other people to be responsive (Bowlby, 1982a), they may perceive more responsiveness from their close friends. Not only for friends, less perceived responsiveness from partners is also experienced by insecurely attached individuals (Segal and Fraley, 2015). In other words, perception about partner in the close relationships as responsive is provided through secure relationship with caregiver (Taşfiliz, Sağel Çetiner and Selçuk, 2020). Therefore, it can be concluded that securely attached children have expectation from their partners and peers to be responsive to their needs (Lieberman, Doyle and Markiewicz, 1999) and to produce positive responses (Cohn, Patterson and Christopoulos, 1991). Additionally, there is a positive relation between secure attachment to parents and quality of friendships such as help, closeness, and security (Lieberman, Doyle and Markiewicz, 1999; Grabill and Kerns, 2000). If a parent is evaluated as available by children, they also evaluate their friendships as including greater positive qualities (Lieberman, Doyle and Markiewicz, 1999). Moreover, the likelihood of eliciting positive responses from peers is higher for securely attached children (Cohn, Patterson and Christopoulos, 1991). However, friends are considered as unresponsive to their needs by insecurely attached individuals (Lieberman, Doyle and Markiewicz, 1999).

The sixth hypothesis was that there would be a positive relationship between cognitive reappraisal and perceived close friend responsiveness. Results revealed that increase in cognitive reappraisal related to increase in perceived responsiveness from close friend. Again, there has been no research that directly examine the relationship between cognitive reappraisal and perceived close friend responsiveness. However, there are some research examining the relationship between reappraisal use and interpersonal functioning (Gross and John, 2003). For example, better social functioning such as social connection, liking, social status was predicted by reappraisal across college period (English et al., 2012). Besides, since reappraisal is a healthier form of emotion regulation (John and Gross, 2004), closer relationship with friends, and being liked are experienced in individuals with reappraisal (John and

Gross, 2004). Development of close bonds may be facilitated by reappraisal use (English et al., 2012). Individuals who use cognitive reappraisal are socially successful because although they share negative emotion, they do not direct these emotions to their social partners (Gross and John, 2003). They are desired as friends by means of having more positive emotion experience and expression and positive view about compelling situations (John and Gross, 2004). Besides, they are more optimistic (Gross and John, 2003). Therefore, they may have more positive perspective toward situations. Individuals who use cognitive reappraisal may perceive more responsiveness from their friends.

Seventhly, it was hypothesized that expressive suppression would be negatively associated with perceived close friend responsiveness. In other words, participants who report less use of expressive suppression would report more perceived responsiveness from their close friends. The results of the current study did not confirm the seventh hypothesis. In the literature, to the best of our knowledge, there is no study examining the relationship between expressive suppression and perceived close friend responsiveness. However, there have been some opposite results to this finding in the literature. For example, there is a research indicating a relationship between suppression and lower levels of perceived responsiveness (Gingrich et al., 2017). According to functionalist theories of emotion, emotion expressive behavior has significance in terms of maintenance of social bonds (Baumeister and Leary, 1995). Others are able to get information about emotional status, needs and intentions of the individuals through expressive behavior (Baumeister and Leary, 1995). However, expressive suppression decreases expressive behavior (John and Gross, 2004). Both negative and positive emotions are less likely to be shared by individuals with suppression use (Gross and John, 2003). Additionally, individuals who use suppression display avoidance in close relationships (Gross and John, 2003) and they possess less social support (John and Gross, 2004). Thus, they experience absence of close social relationships and support (John and Gross, 2004). There is a tendency for evaluation of emotions with negative terms in individuals who use suppression (Gross and John, 2003). In a study, it was found that both stable and dynamic components of expressive suppression was related to less social support from friends at college, less closeness to others, and lower social satisfaction (Srivastava et al., 2009). Their peers realize their emotional distance (Gross and

John, 2003). Development and maintenance of close relationships are intervened by suppression (English, Oliver and Gross, 2013). Opportunity of an individual for establishing relationships in college may be decreased by chronic suppression use (English et al., 2012). However, although they possess less emotional close relationships, they do not experience being disliked by their peers (Gross and John, 2003; Srivastava et al., 2009; English et al., 2012; English, Oliver and Gross, 2013) and this may not mean that individuals who use suppression do not have any good and responsive friendships. Suppressing some emotions may be functional. For example, suppression of angry face toward the boss or angry feelings towards the speaking of associate (Aldao, Sheppes and Gross, 2015) may provide benefits in relationships. Besides, closeness of close friends may provide different consequences. Perceived responsiveness provides increase in the expression of emotions (Ruan et al., 2019), individuals may feel more responsiveness from their close friends and may express more emotions. They may have more close and easy communication, expressions of emotions and openness to their close friends. They may also perceive more responsiveness from close friends when compared with normal friends. Additionally, their close friends also may use expressive suppression. Therefore, although individuals use suppression, they may have good relationship with their close friends so suppression use may influence their perception about responsiveness of their close friends and they may perceive responsiveness from their close friends. Thus, this hypothesis may not be confirmed because of them.

4.2 Findings related to Mediating Roles of Cognitive Reappraisal and Expressive Suppression Emotion Regulation Strategies

Two mediation analyses were separately conducted to investigate the mediating roles of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression in relation among attachment security, perceived mother responsiveness and perceived close friend responsiveness. Initially, it was hypothesized that cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression would mediate the relationship between attachment security and perceived mother responsiveness. The first sequence of the hypothesis was proven and the results showed that cognitive reappraisal played a significant mediating role in this relation. In other words, individuals who reported higher levels of attachment security reported more cognitive reappraisal strategy, which in turn, related to higher levels of perceived mother responsiveness. Moreover, the significant mediating role of

expressive suppression was also expected. It was hypothesized that individuals with higher attachment security were less likely to use expressive suppression, which then led to more perceived mother responsiveness. However, the mediating role of expressive suppression was not found in this relation.

In the literature, significant relationship was found between attachment security and cognitive reappraisal (e.g., Winterheld, 2016; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2018). That means individuals who are securely attached use more cognitive reappraisal (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2018). One explanation may be that secure individuals have more positive perspective toward life (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016) and reevaluate the situations in more benign term (Mikulincer and Florian, 1995). Furthermore, cognitive reappraisal produces more perceived social support (D'Arbeloff et al., 2018; Sachs-Ericsson et al., 2019) and closer relationships (John and Gross, 2004). Individuals using more reappraisal are more optimistic (John and Gross, 2004). Therefore, they may perceive more responsiveness from their mothers. Perceived responsiveness is also influenced by individuals' own relationship with their caregivers in their childhood (Cook, Dezangré and De Mol, 2017). While secure individuals have more perceived responsiveness (Grabill and Kerns, 2000), less perception of responsiveness is experienced by insecure individuals (Segal and Fraley, 2015). This may be because of secure individual's having internal working model of themselves as loveable and others as responsive (Bowlby, 1973). They feel confident and have expectation about available and responsive figures (Bowlby, 1973). Besides, they have more positive view about world and they evaluate people as reliable (Collins and Read, 1990). On the other hand, insecure individuals do not feel confident about availableness and responsiveness of the other people (Ainsworth et al., 1978). If they have a relationship with an unresponsive and inconsistent parent, they have more negative view about other people (Collins and Read, 1990). Since securely attached individuals have more experiences with available and responsive mothers (Ainsworth, 1985), they feel confident about accessibility and responsiveness of others (Ainsworth et al., 1978). Therefore, they may have more positive expectations about responsiveness from other individuals, because there is a tendency for these expectations to be permanent (Bowlby, 1973). Although there is no specific study that focus on perceived mother responsiveness, it is a meaningful expectation that secure individuals would use more cognitive reappraisal, and in turn,

they would perceive more responsiveness from their mothers in the light of these knowledge. Consequently, cognitive reappraisal that would be preferred by securely attached individuals would provide increment in perceived mother responsiveness.

It was also hypothesized that cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression would mediate the relationship between attachment security and perceived close friend responsiveness. Results indicated that while cognitive reappraisal played a significant mediating role in this relationship, the mediating role of expressive suppression in this relationship was not found. More specifically, individuals who reported higher levels of attachment security reported more cognitive reappraisal use, which led to a rise in perceived close friend responsiveness. However, in the literature, there was no research focusing on the mediating role of cognitive reappraisal in relation between attachment security and perceived close friend responsiveness. Besides, there are not so many research that investigate perceived close friend responsiveness (see Taşfiliz, Sağel Çetiner and Selçuk, 2020, for an exception). However, as already known, friendships have a special significance in young adulthood period (Rawlins, 1992). Considerable time are spent with friends (Legge and Rawlins, 1992). Therefore, higher responsiveness from friends is expected (Reis, Clark and Holmes, 2004). Young individuals have learning about initiation and maintenance of satisfying and intimate friendships through their relationships with their parents (Engels et al., 2001). The significant relationship between attachment security and peer competence of the children was indicated (Groh et al., 2014). Besides, there was a relationship between attachment security with mother and peer relationship functioning as a result of meta-analysis study (Schneider, Atkinson and Tardif, 2001). Because receiving open communication and responsiveness for their emotional needs may provide having same qualities in other relationships so secure attachment may support more satisfying relationships (Kerns and Stevens, 1996). Additionally, closer relationships with friends are experienced by individuals who use reappraisal (John and Gross, 2004). Development of social bonds may be promoted by reappraisal (English et al., 2012). There was a relationship between reappraisal and favorable consequences for social connection, likeability, and social status (English et al., 2012). For example, reappraisers experience more liking from their friends (Gross and John, 2003; John and Gross, 2004). Besides, expressive behaviors are significant in terms of continuation of

social bonds because others are informed about needs and emotions by expressive behaviors (Srivastava et al., 2009). Cognitive reappraisal produces rise in positive emotion expressive behavior (Gross, 2002). Besides, individuals with reappraisal freely and socially share both positive and negative emotions (John and Gross, 2004). They have social success because although they share negative emotions with their partner, they do not direct these emotion to them (John and Gross, 2004). Thus, this social sharing may be informative for partners in the relationship so partners may produce more responsiveness to the person. Besides, cognitive reappraisal use decrease negative emotion experience and expression (Gross, 1998a). It was found that there was a relationship between strong negative emotions and negative relationship functioning (Sanford and Rowatt, 2004). Therefore, decrease in experience and expression of negative emotions may be beneficial for relationship with friends. Besides, since individuals who use reappraisal reframe the situations (Gross, 2002), they may have more positive perspective toward situations. It is known that reappraisal use is mostly preferred by secure individuals (Mikulincer and Shaver, 2007; Mikulincer and Shaver, 2016). Consequently, it can be inferred that cognitive reappraisal that would be preferred by securely attached individuals would provide beneficial consequences for perceived close friend responsiveness. Moreover, the child starts to be responsive in her/his relationships through interactions with responsive caregiver (Reis and Shaver, 1988). Furthermore, partners of individuals who use reappraisal perceive these individuals as responsive (John and Gross, 2004). Therefore, individuals with more attachment security and reappraisal use may produce more responsiveness and project their responsiveness to the partners. Thus, partners of these people may produce more responsiveness because of the literature behind the projection of responsiveness. Consequently, individuals may have more perceived mother and close friend responsiveness. Besides, it was found that if securely attached individuals feel their relationships as closer, they frequently use cognitive reappraisal (Winterheld, 2016). However, as stated before, there has been no research that directly study the mediating role of cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy in relation to attachment security and perceived mother and close friend responsiveness.

However, no mediating role was found for expressive suppression in both relationship of attachment security with perceived mother and close friend

responsiveness. Given that attachment security has strong influence on perceived responsiveness (Cook, Dezangré and De Mol, 2017) and internalization of infant-caregiver relationship has influence on future relationships (Bowlby, 1969), it can be assumed that an individual has expectation about other people to be responsive (Bowlby, 1973). Therefore, it can be said that if she/he has high attachment security, a person's use of suppression may not have affected perceived responsiveness. They may have strong attachment security and adequate baseline to perceive their mother as responsive. Their attachment security may be more important and critical for perceived mother responsiveness. Using suppression may not change their perception about their relationship with their mother and close friends. Thus, a person may have also perceived responsiveness in his/her relationship with his/her mother and close friends while she/he uses expressive suppression.

Additionally, individuals sometimes may have to use suppression for negative emotions (Gross, 2002). However, suppression of positive or negative emotions may produce different consequences. For example, in adulthood both negative and positive consequences of suppression are experienced (Gross and Cassidy, 2019). Successful downregulation of emotion may be achieved with suppression of emotion (Dunn et al., 2009). While suppression of negative emotions may provide positive consequences, suppression of positive emotions may not be so beneficial. Sometimes even securely attached individuals may use suppression. Suppression use may not mean that there are negative results all the time and the person may not use suppression for all emotions and may express nothing. There may be different influence of dynamic and stable use of suppression. Therefore, it is important which emotion is suppressed and how often she/he uses suppression. Besides, there are time limited harmful influence of expressive suppression (Meyer et al., 2012). Therefore, it cannot be said that using suppression is beneficial at no time (John and Gross, 2004). It is speculated that use of suppression may not change their perceived responsiveness. Thus, suppression may not mediate these relationships in expected way. Given that there is no study examining the mediating role of expressive suppression in relation between attachment security and perceived mother and close friend responsiveness, these are just speculations. Therefore, further studies are needed to make more specific evaluations about stated relations among study variables.

Given that the emerging adulthood is a significant age period (Arnett, 2000) in which individuals, especially females, try to form new responsive relationships with their friends but still demand security and responsiveness from their mothers (e.g., Cumsille and Epstein, 1994; Kendler, Myers and Carol Prescott, 2005; Tam and Lim, 2009), it was thought that especially age and gender might have an influence on the study variables. Therefore, the potential role of them were considered in the main models. Although previous research showed that there are gender differences in terms of cognitive reappraisal (e.g., D'Arbeloff et al., 2018), expressive suppression (e.g., Gross and John, 2003; Chen et al., 2005), and perceived friend responsiveness (e.g., Grabill and Kerns, 2000) as well as age differences in terms of cognitive reappraisal (e.g., John and Gross, 2004; Masumoto, Taishi and Shiozaki, 2016) and perceived family responsiveness (e.g., Taşfiliz, Sağel Çetiner and Selçuk, 2020), we could not find any significant relationship of gender and age with the study variables. This may be because of the inequalities in the number of male and female participants and just focusing on a specific age period. Therefore, future research may balance the number of participants in terms of the gender and sample other age groups to be able to make comparisons.

Since significant differences were found for other demographic variables such as sibling number, family status, perceived income level, a supplementary model was tested to see unique roles of these demographics. It was thought that there might have influence of these demographic variables on study variables so they were included in the model. However, there was no significant roles of these demographic variables on the main variables. These may be also because of inequalities in groups. Thus, more equal group sizes may be achieved in future studies.

4.3 Limitations of the Present Study and Suggestions for Future Studies

The results of the current study should be evaluated with its limitations. Firstly, the groups did not have equal distribution in terms of demographic variables. For example, majority of the participants were female and majority of the participants had middle income level. Given that significant group differences were found, these differences among groups may have been achieved because of these inequalities in the demographic variables. Therefore, generalizability of the study findings should be done in a cautious way. Thus, group sizes and characteristics should be equalized in future studies.

Secondly, online surveys were used in the current study. It can include some negative impacts such as distraction because of completing surveys in a long time, asking questions to another person and having problems because of the complications in phones or computers. Besides, self-reports of the participants were used in the present study. It may lead to participants to give wrong and deceptive answers. They might also try to give more positive answers to survey. Moreover, the Kern's Security Scale that includes "but" conjunction may not be understood so easily. Although detailed explanations were written about not choosing "but" conjunction, some participants chose it accidentally or carelessly without reading the instructions. Therefore, some participants data were entered as missing data in the Kern's Security Scale.

Thirdly, the data was just collected from university students. In the future studies, the reports of mothers or caregivers, romantic partners as well as the friends would be more beneficial to understand the nature of study variables such as attachment security, emotion regulation, and responsiveness. If the partners in each type of relationships may be included, the data can be analyzed by considering the dyadic nature of study variables.

Furthermore, specific age period was focused in this study. Therefore, generalizability to different ages may not be so high. Results can be the qualities of this specific age period. For example, in this period, family and friends may have significance. Besides, romantic relationships arise in the emerging adulthood (Gala and Kapadia, 2013). Therefore, the place of the parents in attachment hierarchy may be modified (Hazan and Shaver, 1987). However, childhood, adolescence and older adulthood may include different dynamics. Thus, replicating the study with different age groups may provide different significant results.

Lastly, this study was handled cross-sectionally. Therefore, in order to talk about causes and effects, the longitudinal design may be used in future research. There may be changes over time. Therefore, more detailed comprehension of participants' attachment security, emotion regulation strategies and perceived responsiveness in their relationships may be observed in longitudinal design. Thus, longitudinal design may provide more accurate and causal findings.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

The aim of the present dissertation was to examine the mediating roles of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression emotion regulation strategies in relation between attachment security and perceived mother and close friend responsiveness in university students. In general, the results showed that cognitive reappraisal mediated the relationship between attachment security and perceived mother responsiveness as well as attachment security and perceived close friend responsiveness. In other words, the likelihood of more perceived mother responsiveness of individuals who have more attachment security is predicted through the mediating role of cognitive reappraisal. Particularly, individuals who have higher attachment security were more likely to use cognitive reappraisal, which then found to be related to more perceived mother responsiveness. In the similar vein, the likelihood that the person with more attachment security have more perceived close friend responsiveness is predicted by cognitive reappraisal. Namely, individuals with more attachment security were more likely to use cognitive reappraisal, which then led to more perceived close friend responsiveness. This chapter covers the contributions and possible clinical implications of the present study.

5.1 Contributions of the Present Study

The current study contributed the literature in terms of its strengths. Firstly, the number of the participants were considerably large. This is important to have reliable findings. The present study aimed to investigate the mediating roles of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression emotion regulation strategies in relation to attachment security and perceived responsiveness in university students. According to results, while cognitive reappraisal mediated this relationship, expressive suppression has not had a mediating role in this relationship. Since the effects of age and gender on the model were controlled, the influence of the attachment security and cognitive reappraisal emotion regulation strategy on perceived responsiveness could be presented. Thus, the current study provides important findings and makes contribution to the literature. To the best of our knowledge, there has been no previous research that examined the relationship of attachment security, perceived mother and close friend responsiveness with the mediating role of cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression emotion regulation strategies. Although especially the relationships of attachment security with emotion regulation strategies

and responsiveness have been studied frequently, the mediating role of cognitive reappraisal in this relationship is still not known. Therefore, while the current study supports the relationship of attachment security with cognitive reappraisal, it also makes contributions to the literature by demonstrating the mediating role of cognitive reappraisal in these relationships. Since perceived responsiveness is a new topic which has been studied recently, there are limited studies in perceived responsiveness in the literature. This current study also provided the precursors of perceived mother and close friend responsiveness and more detailed comprehension of perceived responsiveness.

Moreover, especially perceived responsiveness mostly has been studying with romantic partner in adulthood. There is not many research about perceived mother responsiveness whereas there are limited studies about perceived friend responsiveness (e.g., Taşfiliz, Sağel Çetiner and Selçuk, 2020). Besides, attachment is studied in childhood with mostly mother or adult attachment with romantic partner is studied in adulthood. However, in the current study, it was aimed to study attachment security of emerging adults in their relationship with their mother because of the significance of emerging adulthood period in human life. Besides, friendships take significant place in emerging adulthood (Özen, Sümer and Demir, 2011). However, there is a continuity in attachment of individuals with parents so attachment with mother maintains and does not disappear (Ainsworth, 1989). Close friends and mothers are also seen and experienced as ones of the primary sources for social support by college students (Furman and Buhrmester, 1992). Thus, attachment security with mother and perceived responsiveness with mother and close friends were aimed to study in emerging adulthood. Therefore, this study has importance because examination of emerging adulthood may provide more detailed comprehension of this period.

5.2 Clinical Implications

The present study also provides contribution about more detailed comprehension of this significant period especially for professionals who are working with emerging adults and about attachment security, emotion regulation and perceived responsiveness for practitioners who are working in these areas. Therefore, professionals in these areas may benefit from these results and they may arrange their treatments in the light of these findings. For example, according to the results of

the study, attachment security and cognitive reappraisal use are important in perceived responsiveness. Therefore, more detailed comprehension of attachment security and emotion regulation strategies that are used may provide beneficial information in the clinical settings in terms of perceived responsiveness. This study also provides the information about the possible outcomes of attachment security and antecedents of perceived responsiveness for professionals who are working with emerging adults. For instance, professionals who are working with this specific age period may make inferences that if individuals do not have high attachment security, they may experience problems in emotion regulation and relationships with their mothers and friends. On the other hand, they may also make some inferences about the individuals who have problems in their relationships with their mothers and close friends that they may have some security issues with their parents and emotion regulation problems in their social relations. Additionally, improvement in attachment security and cognitive reappraisal use may enhance perceived responsiveness in the close relationships of the clients. Because having supportive and responsive partner in the relationships of individuals would be significant for them, therapists may take intervention by considering these information. Besides, family therapists may also benefit from these findings to help their clients because perceived responsiveness would be valid in close relationships especially with mothers and friends. Consequently, the information that cognitive reappraisal use would enhance the influences of the attachment security on perceived mother and close friend responsiveness is important in the literature and clinical practice. It is expected that the current study may inspire further research on attachment security, emotion regulation strategies, and perceived responsiveness.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. Ethics Committee Approval

SAYI : B.30.2.İEÜ.0.05.05-020-108

22.01.2021

KONU : Etik Kurul Kararı hk.

Sayın Aylin Koçak,

“THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EMOTION REGULATION IN RELATION BETWEEN ATTACHMENT SECURITY AND PERCEIVED RESPONSIVENESS ” başlıklı projenizin etik uygunluğu konusundaki başvurunuz sonuçlanmıştır.

Etik Kurulumuz 25.12.2020 tarihinde sizin başvurunuzun da içinde bulunduğu bir gündemle toplanmış ve projenin incelenmesi için bir alt komisyon oluşturmuştur. Projenizin detayları alt komisyon üyelerine gönderilerek görüş istenmiştir. Üyelerden gelen raporlar doğrultusunda Etik Kurul 22.01.2021 tarihinde tekrar toplanmış ve raporları gözden geçirmiştir.


Sonuçta 22.01.2021 tarih ve 116 numaralı

“THE MEDIATING ROLE OF EMOTION REGULATION IN RELATION BETWEEN ATTACHMENT SECURITY AND PERCEIVED RESPONSIVENESS”

konulu projenizin etik açıdan uygun olduğuna oy birliği ile karar verilmiştir.

Gereği için bilgilerinize sunarım.

Saygılarımla,


Prof. Dr. Murat Bengisu
Etik Kurul Başkanı

Appendix B. Informed Consent Form

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

Çalışmanın amacı nedir?

Araştırmanın amacı, 18-24 arası üniversite öğrencilerinin bağlanma güvenliği ile algılanan duyarlılık arasındaki ilişkide duygu düzenlemenin aracı rolünün anlaşılmasıdır. Bu doğrultuda size anneniz, ve yakın arkadaşlarınızla olan ilişkilerinizle ve kendinizle ilgili sorular sorulacaktır.

Bize nasıl yardımcı olursunuz?

Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ederseniz, bu aşamada sizden yaklaşık 10-15 dakikanızı alacak anketimizi doldurmanız istenecektir. Soruların doğru ya da yanlış cevapları yoktur. Bundan dolayı soruları kendiniz yanıtlamanız ve size en doğru gelen yanıtları tercih etmeniz araştırmanın doğruluğu ve güvenilirliği açısından önemlidir.

Sizden topladığımız bilgileri nasıl kullanacağız?

Araştırmada kimse sizden kimlik bilgilerinizi ortaya çıkaracak bilgiler istemeyecektir. Verdiğiniz yanıtlar gizli tutulacak, bu bilgilere sadece araştırmacılar ulaşabilecektir. Katılımcılardan elde edilecek bilgiler toplu halde değerlendirilecek, bilimsel yayınlar ve akademik amaçlar için kullanılacaktır.

Katılımınız ile ilgili bilmeniz gerekenler:

Araştırmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışma, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz çalışmaya katılmayı reddedebilir veya cevaplama işini yarıda bırakıp çıkabilirsiniz.

Çalışmaya katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz Ecem Çıkmaz (ecemcikmaz@gmail.com) ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılmayı kabul ediyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı

yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Evet Hayır



Appendix C. Demographic Information Form

1. Cinsiyetiniz:

- Kadın
- Erkek
- Belirtmek istemiyorum.

2. Doğum Yılıınız: (Örn: 1998) _____

3. Sınıfınız:

- Hazırlık
- 1.Sınıf
- 2.Sınıf
- 3.Sınıf
- 4.Sınıf
- 5. Sınıf
- 6. Sınıf
- Yüksek Lisans
- Doktora

4. Kiminle yaşıyorsunuz?

- Romantik Partner
- Aile üyeleri
- Arkadaşlar
- Yalnız
- Diğer _____

5. ANNE

- Öz anne
- Koruyucu anne

- Evlat edinen anne
- Üvey anne
- Anne hayatta değil

6. BABA

- Öz baba
- Koruyucu baba
- Evlat edinen baba
- Üvey baba
- Baba hayatta değil

7. Kaç kardeşiniz var?

- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5+

8. Aile durumunuz

- Annem-babam evli, birlikte yaşıyorlar
- Annem-babam evli, ayrı yaşıyorlar
- Annem-babam boşandı, ayrı yaşıyorlar
- Annem-babam boşandı, birlikte yaşıyorlar
- Annem-babam boşandı, ben annemle yaşıyorum
- Annem-babam boşandı, ben babamla yaşıyorum
- Annem-babam boşandı, ben bir akrabamla yaşıyorum
- Diğer (belirtiniz) _____

9. Kendinizi hangi gelir grubuna ait görüyorsunuz?

- Alt gelir grubunda
- Ortanın altı gelir grubunda
- Orta gelir grubunda
- Ortanın üstü gelir grubunda
- Üst gelir grubunda



Appendix D. Kern's Security Scale

Aşağıda yer alan her bir soruda AMA ile ayrılmış iki seçenek verilmiştir. Her bir maddeyi okuduktan sonra maddenin ilk koşulu sizin için doğruysa seçenek metninde AMA bağlacından önce gelen iki seçeneği, maddenin ikinci koşulu sizin için uygunsa seçenek metninde AMA bağlacından sonra gelen iki seçenektan birini işaretleyiniz. Seçenek metninde yer alan AMA sadece iki ifadeyi ayırmak amaçlı kullanılmıştır. Lütfen AMA seçeneğini işaretlemeyiniz.

1.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler annelerine kolayca güvenirlir.	AMA	Bazı gençler annelerine güvenip güvenemeyecekleri konusunda emin değildirler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
---	---	--	-----	--	---	---

2.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler yaptıkları her şeye annelerinin çok karıştığını düşünürler.	AMA	Bazı gençler kendi başlarına bir şeyler yapmalarına annelerinin izin verdiğini düşünürler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
---	---	--	-----	---	---	---

3.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler için annelerinin yardım edeceğine inanmak kolaydır.	AMA	Bazı gençler için annelerinin yardım edeceğine inanmak zordur.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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4.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler annelerinin onlarla yeterince zaman geçirdiğini düşünürler.	AMA	Bazı gençler annelerinin onlarla yeterince zaman geçirmediğini düşünürler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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5.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler annelerine ne düşündüklerini veya hissettiklerini söylemekten pek hoşlanmazlar.	AMA	Bazı gençler annelerine ne düşündüklerini veya hissettiklerini söylemekten hoşlanırlar.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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6.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler her şeyde annelerine ihtiyaç duymaz.	AMA	Bazı gençler annelerine hemen hemen her şey için ihtiyaç duyar.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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7.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler “Keşke anneme daha yakın olabilseydim” derler.	AMA	Bazı gençler annelerine olan yakınlıklarıyla mutludurlar.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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8.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler annelerinin onları gerçekten sevmediğinden endişe duyarlar.	AMA	Bazı gençler annelerinin onları sevdiğinden emindirler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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9.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler annelerinin onları anladığını hissederler.	AMA	Bazı gençler annelerinin onları anlamadığını hissederler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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10.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler annelerinin onları terk etmeyeceğinden gerçekten emindirler.	AMA	Bazı gençler annelerinin onları terk edebileceğinden bazen endişelenirler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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11.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler ihtiyaç duyduklarında annelerinin yanlarında olamayacağını düşünerek endişelenirler.	AMA	Bazı gençler ihtiyaç duyduklarında annelerinin yanlarında olacağından emindirler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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12.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler annelerinin kendilerini dinlemediğini düşünürler.	AMA	Bazı gençler annelerinin onları gerçekten dinlediğini düşünürler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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13.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler üzgün olduklarında annelerinin yanına giderler.	AMA	Bazı gençler üzgün olduklarında annelerinin yanına pek gitmezler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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14.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler “Keşke annem sorunlarımla daha çok ilgilense” derler.	AMA	Bazı gençler annelerinin onlara yeterince yardım ettiğini düşünürler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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15.

Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bazı gençler anneleri etrafta olduğunda kendilerini daha iyi hissederler.	AMA	Bazı gençler anneleri etrafta olduğunda kendilerini daha iyi hissetmezler.	Bana biraz benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>	Bana çok benziyor <input type="checkbox"/>
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Appendix E. Emotion Regulation Questionnaire

Aşağıda insanların duygularını kontrol etmekte kullandıkları bazı yöntemler verilmiştir. Lütfen her durumu dikkatlice okuyunuz ve her birinin sizin için ne kadar doğru olduğunu içtenlikle yanıtlayınız.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6
Hiç Çok az Bazen Kısmen Oldukça Tamamen
doğru değil doğru doğru doğru doğru doğru

1. Duygularımı içinde bulunduğum durum hakkındaki düşüncelerimi değiştirerek kontrol ederim.
2. Hissettiğim olumsuz duyguları azaltmak istediğimde, içinde bulunduğum durum hakkındaki düşüncelerimi değiştiririm.
3. Hissettiğim olumlu duyguları arttırmak istediğimde, içinde bulunduğum durum hakkındaki düşüncelerimi değiştiririm.
4. Hissettiğim olumlu duyguları (sevinç veya eğlence/coşku gibi) arttırmak istediğimde, düşündüğüm şeyleri değiştiririm.
5. Hissettiğim olumsuz duyguları (üzüntü veya kızgınlık gibi) azaltmak istediğimde, düşündüğüm şeyleri değiştiririm.
6. Stres yaratan bir durumla karşılaştığımda, sakin kalmama yardımcı olacak şekilde düşünmeye çalışırım.
7. Duygularımı onları belli etmeyerek kontrol ederim.
8. Olumsuz duygular hissettiğimde, onları belli etmemek için elimden geleni yaparım.
9. Duygularımı kendime (içimde) saklarım.
10. Olumlu duygular hissettiğimde, onları belli etmemeye özen gösteririm.

Appendix F. Perceived Mother Responsiveness Scale

Lütfen annenizle ilişkinizi düşünerek aşağıda verilen cümlelerin sizin için ne kadar doğru olduğunu belirtiniz.

Annem çoğu zaman:

1 Hiç doğru değil	2	3 Biraz doğru	4	5 Orta derecede doğru	6	7 Oldukça doğru	8	9 Tamamen doğru
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... nasıl biri olduğumu çok iyi bilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... “gerçek ben”i görür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... iyi yönlerimi ve kusurlarımı, beni kendimde gördüğüm gibi görür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... söz konusu bensem yanılmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... zayıf yönlerim de dahil her şeyimi takdir eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... beni iyi tanır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... iyisiyle kötüsüyle “gerçek ben”i oluşturan her şeye değer verir ve saygı gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... çoğu zaman en iyi yönlerimi görür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... ne düşündüğümün ve hissettiğim farkındadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... beni anlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... beni gerçekten dinler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... bana olan sevgisini gösterir ve beni yüreklendirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... ne düşündüğümü ve hissettiğimi duymak ister.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... benimle birlikte bir şeyler yapmaya heveslidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... yetenek ve fikirlerime değer verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... benimle aynı kafadadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... bana saygı duyar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
...ihtiyaçlarıma duyarlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Appendix G. Perceived Close Friend Responsiveness Scale

Lütfen yakın arkadaşınızla olan ilişkinizi düşünerek aşağıda verilen cümlelerin sizin için ne kadar doğru olduğunu belirtiniz.

Yakın arkadaşım çoğu zaman:

1 Hiç doğru değil	2	3 Biraz doğru	4	5 Orta derecede doğru	6	7 Oldukça doğru	8	9 Tamamen doğru
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... nasıl biri olduğumu çok iyi bilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... “gerçek ben”i görür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... iyi yönlerimi ve kusurlarımı, beni kendimde gördüğüm gibi görür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... söz konusu bensem yanılmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... zayıf yönlerim de dahil her şeyimi takdir eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... beni iyi tanır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... iyisiyle kötüsüyle “gerçek ben”i oluşturan her şeye değer verir ve saygı gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... çoğu zaman en iyi yönlerimi görür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... ne düşündüğümün ve hissettiğim farkındadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... beni anlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... beni gerçekten dinler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... bana olan sevgisini gösterir ve beni yüreklendirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... ne düşündüğümü ve hissettiğimi duymak ister.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... benimle birlikte bir şeyler yapmaya heveslidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... yetenek ve fikirlerime değer verir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... benimle aynı kafadadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
... bana saygı duyar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
...ihtiyaçlarıma duyarlıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Appendix H. Participant Information Form

Arařtırmaya vakit ayırdığınız için teřekkür ederiz.

Bu arařtırmanın amacı 18-24 yař arası üniversite öğrencilerinin bağlanma güvenlięi ile algılanan duyarlılık arasındaki ilişkide duygu düzenlemenin aracı rolünün anlaşılmasıdır. Bu doğrultuda size anneniz ve yakın arkadaşınızla olan ilişkileriniz ve kendinizle ilgili sorular yöneltilmiştir.



Bu çalışmaya katılımınız ve katkılarınız için teřekkür ederiz.

