NEAR EAST UNIVERSITY

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MASTER'S THESIS

THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN FATHERHOOD PERCEPTION,
SOCIAL SUPPORT, LONELINESS, AND MENTAL HEALTH IN
ADULTS WHOSE PARENTS DIVORCED OR NOT

SACİDE ŞAHİN

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**We certify the thesis is satisfactory for the award of degree of
Master of CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGY**

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ABSTRACT

THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN FATHERHOOD PERCEPTION, SOCIAL SUPPORT, LONELINESS, AND MENTAL HEALTH IN ADULTS WHOSE PARENTS DIVORCED OR NOT

Sacide Şahin

January, 2017

This study aims to examine the relationships between perception of fatherhood, social support, loneliness, and mental health in adult children whose parents divorced and did not divorce. Furthermore, this study examines the effects of socio-demographic factors and variables, such as which the participant lived with after the divorce and the developmental age of the participant during the divorce, on the participant's perceptions of their father. This study is carried out in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. A total of 160 adults, ages between 18-40, participated in the study. 80 participants are adults whose parents divorced, and 80 participants are adults whose parents did not divorce. Each participant was individually interviewed. A socio-demographic form was given to obtain information about the participants to determine how it may relate to parental divorce. The fatherhood scale was used to measure the participant's perceptions of their father. The multidimensional scale of perceived social support was used to measure the participant's perceived social support. The UCLA loneliness scale was used to measure the degree of loneliness of each participant. The brief symptom inventory was used to measure mental health. The results of this study show that there is a significant difference in fatherhood perception between adult children whose parents divorced and adult children whose parents did not divorce. Adult children whose parents divorced had a lower positive fatherhood perception compared to adult children whose parents did not divorce. Furthermore, there was no significant difference among the two groups regarding levels of anxiety, depression, negative self-perception, somatization, and hostility. Parents' marital status, support of family and special people, and loneliness are predictors of positive fatherhood perception.

Key Words: Fatherhood, Divorce, Social Support, Loneliness, Mental Health

ÖZ

EBEVEYNLERİNDE BOŞANMA ÖYKÜSÜ OLAN VE OLMAYAN YETİŞKİNLERİN BABA ALGISI, SOSYAL DESTEK, YALNIZLIK VE RUH SAĞLIĞI ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİLER

Sacide Şahin

Ocak, 2017

Bu çalışmada, ebeveynlerinde boşanma öyküsü olan ve olmayan yetişkinlerin baba algıları, sosyal destek, yalnızlık ve ruh sağlığı düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkileri incelemek amaçlanmıştır. Araştırmanın diğer bir amacı ise, yetişkinlerin baba algılarının, sosyo-demografik özellikler bakımından, boşandıktan sonra kiminle birlikte yaşadıkları, boşanma sürecinin yetişkinin hangi gelişim evresinde gerçekleşmiş olduğu gibi araştırmanın amacına uygun soru değişkenleri açısından da anlamlı bir farkın olup olmadığının incelenmesidir.

Araştırma Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti'nde yaşayan, yaşları 18-40 arası olan, 80'i ebeveynlerinde boşanma öyküsü olan 80'i olmayan toplamda 160 yetişkinin kartopu metodu yöntemiyle seçilerek, anket uygulanarak ve birebir görüşmeler yapılarak yürütülmüştür. Araştırmada katılımcıların sosyo-demografik özellikleri hakkında bilgi sahibi olmak ve ebeveyn boşanmasına dair, araştırmanın amacı doğrultusunda bilgiler edinmek için "Kişisel Bilgi Formu" kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca babalık algısını ölçmek için Babalık Ölçeği, algılanan sosyal destek düzeyini ölçmek için Sosyal Destek Ölçeği, yalnızlık düzeylerini ölçmek için de UCLA Yalnızlık Ölçeği ve ruh sağlığını taramak amacıyla Kısa Semptom Envanteri kullanılmıştır. Sonuç olarak: Ebeveynlerinde boşanma olan ve olmayan yetişkinlerin babalık algıları arasında anlamı fark bulunmuştur. Anne ve babası boşanmış olanların olumlu babalık algısı diğer gruba göre daha düşük bulunmuştur. İki grup arasında kaygı, depresyon, olumsuz benlik, somatizasyon, düşmanlık puanları arasında anlamlı fark bulunmamıştır. Ayrıca ebeveynlerin boşanmış olup olmama durumu, aile ve özel insan desteği, yalnızlık değişkenlerinin babalık algısını yordadığı bulgulanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Babalık, Boşanma, Sosyal Destek, Yalnızlık, Ruh Sağlığı

Acknowledgement

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ABBREVIATIONS

FS   : Fatherhood Scale

MSPSS : Multidimentional Scale of Perceived Social Support

UCLA : University of California Los Angeles Loneliness Scale

BSI   : Brief Symptom Inventory

1. Introduction

Divorce is a complicated situation affecting many people. Divorce rates have been increasing in recent years and this poses a fundamental problem in our lives. The process of divorce has a major impact on the lives of children and can result in the separation of a child from his/her mother or father.

In most cases, custody of the children is given to the mother, and the children can only see their fathers once a week or sometimes even less (Cüceloğlu, 2006, p. 380). Studies have shown that in more than 80 percent of divorces, children continue to live with their mothers since custody is not given to the father (Öngider, 2013, p. 144). Consequently, the child's perception of their father is bound to be affected by this situation.

There are numerous studies about the relationships between children and their mothers. However in recent years, there is an increase in the number of studies about the relationships of children with their fathers.

Our study focuses on adults whose parents are divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce. We analyze their perceptions of their fathers and what factors affect these perceptions. The next section explains the key terms used in the study.

1.1. Fatherhood Perception

In order to understand the perception of fatherhood, it is important to understand the descriptions of a father throughout the ages. The description of a father has changed greatly over the years. That is why a father's role in raising children is changing and gaining more importance.

Gordon (1944) mentions that primitive people could not comprehend the role of a father in the conception of a child. Since there is a 9 month period between time of conception and birth of a child, the role of the father was not appreciated. People believed that the conception of a child was a result of eating certain foods. The role of the father in the

conception of a child was accepted much later. With this realization, respect for the father within society increased (Kuruçay, 2012, p. 4).

Similar studies show that previous societies had a good understanding of the concept of motherhood, however there was no concept of fatherhood. The main reason being that the biological role of the father in the conception of a child was not yet understood. The father was seen only as bread-maker and provider for the family. As a result of work conditions, most fathers worked far from home and family (Telli, 2014, p. 4).

In the 16th century, fathers worked at home in the garden or farm. They were always near their children. Despite being so close to the children, raising and taking care of the child was the mother's responsibility. The father was responsible for providing food, money, opportunities for education, opportunities for work, and getting their children married. All authority belonged to the father and the children and mother were expected to listen to him in all situations. One of the important roles of the father was to teach their children their religion and good manners (Yalçınöz, 2011, p.10).

With the growth of technology and industry, fathers started to leave their homes to go work far from home. Since mothers were left alone with their children, they started to have a more authoritative role over their children. The father continued to have an authoritative role, but the emotional bonds between father and children began to decrease (Tecik, 2013, p. 43).

Pleck (1998; 1990) mentions three eras regarding fatherhood. Starting from the mid-19th century until mid-20th century, the father was known as the bread-maker and provider. In the years between 1940 and 1970, the father was seen as a gender role model for children. From the year 1970 until today, the father is considered as the new child-raiser (Poyraz, 2007, p. 4).

According to Rotundo, the history of fatherhood can be divided into the patriarchal age from 1620-1800, and the modern age from 1800s until today. In these two periods, there were economic, cultural, and social changes happening in the world. With the growth of

economy in America, Rotundo claims a new androgynous era started for fathers. In this new era, fathers are more involved with the emotional and physical aspects of raising children, and they have more responsibilities socially compared to previous periods. In addition, fathers during this area accept that girls and boys have equal importance and value (Tecik, 2013, p. 46)

1.1.1. The role and importance of a father

The importance of a mother's role in caring and raising a child is emphasized in many studies. The theories of Freud and Bowlby may play a part in portraying the role of the father in raising children as insignificant and unimportant. Freud believed that the mother plays a major role in the development of a child in his/her first years of life. The bond that occurs between mother and child in this time is the foundation that determines the child's personality and his/her social relationships. Furthermore, Freud claims that the father has absolutely no importance for a child. However, he claims that the father contributes in the later developmental stages of the child (Poyraz, 2007, p. 7).

Freud describes the father's role in a child's life as a super ego that controls the moral behavior of his child (Tecik, 2013, p. 45).

According to Lamb (1979), the father has more than one role in the family. The father has profound effects on his children, whether direct or indirect. When a father takes on the responsibility of caring for a child, he will have a positive effect on the development of the child. When a father spends time with his children, plays with them, becomes a friend for them, teaches them different things, helps them with their homework, supports the child in every step of their development, contributes to the development of the child's personality and consciousness, and shares and talks about the happy and sad moments in life, he will have a profound positive effect on the development and growth of the child (Altın, 2014, p. 9).

During his studies, Lamb (1979) established the concept of paternal involvement. This theoretical concept is comprised of three fundamental stages. The first stage is interaction.

This stage is described as the physical activities that a father and child do together, such as going to the cinema and doing homework together. The second stage is accessibility. Even if the father and child do not do the same activities, just showing emotional and physical warmth and understanding and spending time doing what the child likes to do is accessibility. The third stage is responsibility. This includes the responsibilities of a father to provide a happy and healthy life for the child (Kocayörük, 2010, p. 38).

Dick (2005) adapted Lamb's concept in his study about individuals who were subject to marital violence. One of these roles is the good provider, a father who provides financial support for his children. The gender role is described as the father being a male role model for his children. The moral father role is a father who participates in activities such as taking his children to the mosque/church and praying with his children after eating meals. The responsible father is physically involved in his child's daily activities, helps with homework, and takes his children to the doctor. An accessible father is always available to the child in times of need or if he/she has any questions. Positive paternal emotional responsiveness is the characteristic of a father who shows his love towards his children and constantly says loving words to them. Positive engagement is when a father participates in fun activities and entertainment with his children. Negative paternal engagement includes physical and verbal abuse of the child (Dick, 2005, p. 14).

Studies have shown that the love and care of the father is as important as the love and care of a mother for a child's psycho-social development (Acar, 2013, p. 25).

According to Lareau (2000), a child's esteem for his/her father does not decrease despite the father being non-caring (Yalçınöz, 2011, p. 24).

According to Cüceloğlu, (2006) boys who live apart from their fathers due to divorce have a significant need for their fathers. These children require a male figure that will play the role of a father and have a trustworthy and loving relationship with the child (Cüceloğlu, 2006, p. 383).

Jordan and colleagues determined that there is a positive correlation between a male child's thinking skills and the level of care of his father. When studying this theory in more detail, they found that during the very first developmental stages of a child, the quality of a father's behavior towards his child will affect the child's thinking skills (Poyraz, 2007, p. 9).

1.1.2. Fatherhood perception of adult children whose parents divorced

Some studies have shown that the quality of the father - child relationship after divorce is affected by the child's feelings of enmity towards their father. However, there are other studies with opposing results. Wenk and colleagues performed a study in 1994 and concluded that both girls' and boys' relationships with their fathers did not change after the father moved out of the house. In addition, no differences were seen in both girls' and boys' well-being (Öngider, 2006, p. 23).

It was shown that several factors have a negative effect on young adults' relationships with their fathers, such as disagreements and fighting between mother and father, remarriage of the father soon after divorce, and the decreased care and involvement of the father in the few years after the divorce (Ahrons & Tanner, 2003, p. 340).

According to Dick's studies, the close and warm relationship between child and father has a long term effect on the child that affects his/her adulthood (Dick, 2005, p. 85).

According to Amato and Sobolewsk's (2001) study on the effects of divorce on young adults, children whose parents divorced have a low level of well-being during their adult years. It was shown that the arguments that husband and wife experience during marriage affect the bond between mother and child after divorce. Furthermore, the disagreements between husband and wife during marriage and during divorce have a negative effect on the bond between father and child. It was seen that children who cannot build good, positive bonds with their parents are more prone to psychological stress. Children who grow up in an unhealthy home environment cannot build relationships as adults (Sancaklı, 2014, p. 11).

One study found that children whose fathers show a lot of care and attention towards them become more independent, more self-conscious, and have more positive feelings about their parents (Şahin, 2012, p. 21).

1.1.3. Studies

Blanchard and Biler (1971) performed a study on children who do not live with their fathers to determine the relationship between the absence of their father and the effect it has on their academic achievement. 44 elementary students from the fourth grade were divided into 4 groups. The first group comprised of children who were separated from their fathers at a very early age (less than 5 years of age), the second group comprised of children who were separated at a later age (more than 5 years of age), the third group comprised of children who spent very little time with their fathers (less than 6 hours per week), and the fourth group comprised of children who spent a lot of time with their fathers (at least 2 hours every day). The academic achievements of the 4 groups of children were measured. It was found that children who spent the most time with their fathers had the highest academic achievement compared to the other groups. Children who were separated from their fathers at a very early age had the worst academic achievement. The other two groups displayed average academic achievement (Poyraz, 2007, p. 11).

When analyzing the role of fathers in the development of children, it was shown that girls have a romantic bond with their fathers. The father is the first male that a girl communicates with. Therefore, a girl's relationship with her father will form the foundation for what type of relationship she will have with other males in the future. On the other hand, a father has an important role in a boy's acceptance of his sexuality. Similar studies show that male children who have fathers, display more masculine behaviors compared to male children who do not have fathers. It was shown that pre-schoolers and toddlers who lived without a father can have problems with sexual development in the future (Telli, 2014, pp. 8-11).

Saunum and colleagues performed a study that compared I.Q. results of two groups of children ages 6 to 11. The first group comprised of 5,493 children whose families are intact. The second group comprised of 6,116 children who live without their fathers. It was found that the children with unbroken families had higher I.Q. points (Poyraz, 2007, p. 9).

A study in Pakistan studied the relationship between perception of fatherhood and masculinity ideology between 130 fathers and 154 teenagers. Masculinity ideology is described as being aggressive, dominant, non-emotional, and refusing to do things that women normally do. The results of the study showed that fathers who do not embrace the masculinity ideology are more emotional towards their children, listen to them more, and are more open to communication. On the other hand, fathers who embrace the masculinity ideology are observed to have poor relationships with their children (Rizvi, 2013, pp. 18-20).

Another study by Tallman, Pasley, and Buehler (1993) argues that if a father cuts off his relationship with his child after divorce, the child will be more prone to serious behavioral problems and low self-esteem (Poyraz, 2007, p. 14).

Another study carried out in America by Blakenhorm (1995) showed a strong association between the absence of a father and the child's feelings of sadness. The absence of a father can lead to criminal and violent behavioral problems in children. Children who are raised solely by their mothers are more devoted to their mothers and they are less social (Şahin, 2012, p. 14).

Another study found that math test results were much lower in children who do not have fathers or see their fathers very little compared to similar aged children (Poyraz, 2007, p. 11).

1.2. Divorce

Divorce is defined as the process by which a husband or wife files for divorce from their spouse due to certain legal reasons in which the court grants divorce, ending their marriage. After being divorced, a mother and father must learn to adapt to a new lifestyle. That is why divorce is comprised of legal, social, and psychological components (Kabaoğlu, 2011, p. 16). Divorce is also defined as the end of a marriage in which husband and wife no longer feel emotionally satisfied and their expectations and demands are no longer met (Aydın, 2013, p. 11). Another definition describes divorce as a crisis that develops within a family causing a change in the roles of family members and disrupting their emotional well-being (Öngider, 2013, p. 145).

According to Weiss (1975), divorce is not the termination of a family, but only the separation of a husband and wife. A similar viewpoint by Ahrons describes family as a building and describes divorce as two separate buildings (Yılmaz, 2002, p. 26).

There are many different definitions of divorce in the literature. In addition, literature shows that the process of divorce varies greatly from one couple to the next.

According to Bohannan (1970), divorce is complex and disordered. This disorder is a result of the mixed emotions experienced by husband and wife during this process. The husband and wife may experience several levels of divorce, including emotional divorce, legal divorce, economic divorce, parental divorce, social divorce, and metal divorce. Emotional divorce is explained by the mixed emotions experienced by both husband and wife. There is usually a decrease in feelings towards each other and loss of desire. Legal divorce, on the other hand, is defined as the ending of the marital contract by a legal court. Economic divorce is when husband and wife become economically independent from each other and their material belongings are divided amongst themselves. The next level of divorce is parental divorce. Although husband and wife divorce each other, a mother or father cannot divorce their children. Their role as a father or mother continues their whole life. Social

divorce is related to the perceptions of society regarding divorce. The husband and wife's social life will change as a result of divorce. As they try to adjust to their new, changing social life, they will face many difficulties. Mental divorce is the most difficult level of divorce. The husband and wife must mentally accept this situation and become an independent individual. This will help the individual to live an independent life (Akyol, 2013, p. 11). Divorce is a long process that starts with discontentment and ends with acceptance and adjustment (Yılmaz, 2002, p. 30).

Divorce is a situation that is frowned upon in many societies because it is believed to destroy families and devastate family members (Pancar, 2009, p. 18).

Wiseman (1975) defines divorce as a period of mourning and describes this period in 5 stages: denial, loss and depression, anger and ambivalence, reorientation of lifestyle and identity, and acceptance and new level of functioning. The first stage is denial. The husband and wife are aware of the problems happening in their lives; however they are not able to accept or acknowledge it. The second stage is loss and depression. In this stage, the husband and wife become aware that they have problems that they are not able to resolve. In the next stage, anger and ambivalence, the husband and wife realize that they are on their way to divorce, so their feelings of depression are replaced by intense feelings of anger and mixed feelings towards each other. After that comes the stage of reorientation of lifestyle and identity. In this stage, the husband and wife start adjusting to their new lifestyle and make plans for their future. In the final stage, acceptance and new level of functioning, the person adapts to their new life, becomes more self-sufficient in their profession and more independent in every aspect of their life. Their feelings of depression and anxiety start to lessen, their social relationships start to grow, they become more self-confident, and feelings of anger toward their ex-spouse decreases (Akyol, 2013, p. 11-12).

According to statistics about divorce, countries with a high incidence of divorce are western countries and developing countries. Although the rate of divorce in Turkey is less

than other countries, the rate is rapidly increasing. In the last 20 years, the country with the highest divorce rate is the United States of America (USA), followed by Lithuania, Letonia, Canada, France, and Great Britain. In the year 1915, in the USA, every 1 in 10 marriages resulted in divorce (Kabaoğlu, 2011, p. 14).

According to Tuik's (2015) research, the number of marriages in 2015 increased by % 0.5 since the previous year, resulting in 602,982 marriages. The average marriage rate was 7.71 per thousand. The number of divorces increased by %0.7, resulting in 131,830 divorce incidences. The average divorce rate was 1.69 per thousand. In the year 2015, %39.3 of divorces occurred in the first 5 years of marriage, while %21.5 of divorces occurred between the 6th and 10th years of marriage.

According to the statistics in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC), 803 couples were divorced in 2012, 818 couples divorced in 2013, and 829 couples divorced in 2014 (KKTC İstatistik Yıllığı, 2014, p. 9).

1.2.1. The short term and long term effects of parental divorce on children

According to studies, one third of individuals getting divorced have children. That is why one of the levels of divorce is called, "parental divorce" (Öngider, 2013, p. 144). Family has an important impact on a child's physical and emotional health. When a child is separated from their mother or father due to divorce, they will be adversely affected physically, emotionally, and even mentally (Hatun, 2012, p. 29). All children are affected by their parents' divorce. How the children are affected and to what degree vary depending on the child's age, sex, and their parent's attitudes and behaviors (Aydın, 2013, p. 25).

Every individual's attitude towards divorce is different. Even siblings in the same family can have different opinions and viewpoints. A child's age and temperament determines the effects that divorce will have on him/her (Acar, 2013, p. 24).

Most studies have shown that the two years after divorce are the most important in determining the effects of divorce on children. Divorce can have short term negative effects

on children. However, 6 - 12 months after divorce, the negative effects start to decrease and children usually start to get accustomed to the situation. Short term effects are seen in the form of withdrawal and depression. Many children claim that growing up is very difficult after their parent divorce. The reason being that major life changes occur in areas such as financial support, social life, and school. Studies like this show that the short term effects of divorce can have a negative impact on children (Öngider, 2013, pp. 147-148).

There are many conflicting findings regarding the long term effects of divorce. Some studies claim that long after divorce, children become free of any previous negative effects and have the same mental and emotional well-being of children whose parents did not divorce. On the other hand, some studies claim that the long term effects of divorce remain with the individual, even when they marry themselves (Vural, 2015, p. 18).

1.2.1.1 Effects of divorce on toddlers/preschoolers

There are several different studies in the literature that try to determine which child-developmental age and stage is affected the most by divorce.

Some studies have shown that infants aged 0-2 years' experience the least amount of damage by their parents' divorce compared to any other age group. There are several reasons supporting this theory. One reason is that infants in this age cannot comprehend that their parents are arguing or fighting and they cannot differentiate between right or wrong. Another reason is that children in this age group are almost always given custody to their mothers. However, if a mother is negatively affected by the divorce, this can be reflected in her children and several behavioral problems, such as sleep problems, eating disorders, stubbornness, stuttering, and bed-wetting have been reported in children in this age group (Akyüz, 1979, p. 4).

Other studies have shown that children aged 0-5, who are separated from one of their parents due to divorce, lack enough stimuli which can delay the child's social development. Children aged 0-3 are especially affected if their relationship with their mother is weakened

due to divorce and this can affect the child's personality pattern. These children become antisocial individuals who live in their own world. In addition, children aged 0-5 years who are separated from their mothers blame themselves (Vural, 2015, p. 19).

In contrast, some studies say that children ages 0-5 are affected more than school aged children. One reason supporting this is that children ages 0-5 are more dependent on their parents and since they do not go to school, they spend more time with their parents and can witness their parents' arguments and fights. Furthermore, children in this age group cannot comprehend what is happening between mother and father since their cognitive capacity is more limited compared to school aged children (Özen, 1998, p. 30).

One explanation as to why there are so many contrasting studies regarding this topic is that the only factor taken into consideration is divorce. Important factors that are not considered in studies, but play an important role in the degree to which the child is affected by divorce include the parents' attitudes towards each other during the divorce period, the parents' degree of respect towards each other, and whether or not they argue and fight in front of their children (Cüceloğlu, 2006, p. 383).

1.2.1.2. Effects of divorce on school-aged children

School-aged children are aware of their parent's emotional problems and they know what divorce means. Sometimes children may disagree with their mother or father. Sometimes they may feel that their mother or father is justified. Sometimes they may even blame themselves. But as they grow older, they start to comprehend divorce in a different way (Büyükşahin, 2009, p. 13).

School-aged children are very aware of their parent's disagreements and they may choose sides. Divorce may cause these children to lose their sense of trust towards their parents. Behavioral problems seen in these children include low academic achievement at school, lying, stealing, and sexual perversion. During the divorce period, children are faced

with problems that they cannot resolve and as a result can develop feelings of incompetence (Akyüz, 1979, p. 4).

Most studies show that school-aged children wish for their parents to be together and when this does not happen, they develop feelings of anger, sadness, and feelings of guilt towards the parents, opposing authority, jealousy, and low academic achievement (Erkal, 2013, p. 61).

1.2.1.3. Effects of divorce on adolescents

Adolescents truly understand what divorce means. In general, adolescents have feelings of anxiety about their future. They may have conflicting feelings towards their parents, but try to understand from their parents' point of view. Most adolescents assume responsible roles within the family after the divorce period is over (Büyükşahin, 2009, p. 13).

Adolescents are able to understand divorce completely and they may have different reactions towards divorce. Some may interpret divorce as a sad loss and mourn, others may quickly take responsibility of their family, while others may require emotional support (Akyol, 2013, p. 18).

1.2.2. Studies

Studies show that there are several factors that affect the adaptation period of a child during the divorce process. These factors can be divided into 3 groups: structural, economic, and emotional. Structural is explained by the breaking up of the family. As a result, there are many changes in child-parent relationships, family roles and responsibilities. Economic factors may include insufficient financial circumstances that can result in moving to a new house and neighborhood. Emotional factors arise from anger and mixed feelings towards family members (Özen, 1998, p. 19).

Thirty different studies were conducted involving young adults whose parents divorced when they were children and young adults whose parents did not divorced. The results conclude that young adults whose parents divorced when they were children have

poorer socio-economic conditions, poorer psychological adaptation, and more marital problems compared to young adults whose parents did not divorce (Öngider, 2006, p. 26).

According to a study conducted by Guidibaldi, Parry and Nastasi (1986), being separated from a parent for more than 6 years will lead to behavioral and adaptation problems in children. Furthermore, toddlers and preschoolers who are separated from their parents suffer more adaptation problems compared to children whose parents did not divorce (Özen, 1998, p. 16).

According to a study conducted by Amato in 2005, children whose parents divorced experience more problems regarding academic achievement, behavior, psychological conformity, self-perception, self-esteem, and social relationships compared to children whose parents did not divorce. Children whose parents are not divorced received higher marks compared to children whose parents are divorced. In addition, children whose parents are divorced are 2-3 times more likely to drop out of school. These children can be aggressive, run away from school, and smoke. Furthermore, these children are more likely to suffer from depression and suicidal thoughts and require professional help in these situations. These children's self-esteem and self-perception are much lower than other children. These children are not successful socially. They have difficulty making friends and building emotional bonds (Kabaoğlu, 2011, pp. 39-40).

Long-term studies show that individuals whose parents divorced are more likely to get divorced themselves. According to statistics, the percentage of divorce among couples whose parents have not divorced is 13%. The percentage of divorce among couples in which one spouse's parents divorced is 19%. The percentage of divorce among couples in which both spouses' parents are divorced is 37% (Akyol, 2013, p. 16).

One study tried to determine whether there is a difference in the effects of divorce in different generations. The divorce of grandparents was shown to have an effect on the well-being of their grandchildren. Their grandchildren were seen to have problems with their own

marriages, weak relationship with their parents, and insufficient education. It has been shown that the frequent arguments and fights of a spouse can affect their grandchildren as well (Sancaklı, 2014, p. 13).

One study showed that divorce affects girls' academic success, whereas divorce can affect boys' discipline and behavior (Storksen, Roysamb, Holmen & Tambs 2006, p. 78).

Another study showed that the adolescent period of boys is the most affected by divorce. This age period is the time when boys see their father as a role model for their sexual identity (Altundağ, 2013, p. 21).

One study, which analyzed the effects of divorce on 131 children of different ages, reported a wide spectrum of effects. According to the study, toddlers/preschoolers blame themselves for their parent's divorce and display behavioral problems such as acting childish. School-aged children, 7 and 8 years old, display depressive symptoms because they think their parents are abandoning them. In addition, they can feel very angry towards their parents and hopefully wait for them to get back together again. Children ages 9 and 10 are likely to blame one or both parents for the divorce and they feel very uncomfortable at the fact that their parents may fall in love with someone else. These children experience problems with their academic studies. According to this study, adolescents experience very different effects of divorce compared to other age groups (Kabaoğlu, 2011, pp. 44-45).

1.3. Social Support

Social support is a term that is becoming increasingly popular and is the subject in many studies. Social support is explained as a person being loved, accepted, and valued by the people around them. A person's social support comes from their family, friends, work colleagues, professionals that they may see, and any other member of society that they come into contact with (Fırat, 2015, p. 8).

According to Thoit (1986), social support is the helping hand in times of difficulty and stress. In other words, social support is the physical and spiritual help and support by a person's close ones (Akal, 2010, p. 25).

Another definition by Cassel (1974) says that social support is a person's community who tries to change a person's bad behaviors and habits. A similar definition by Cobb (1976) says that social support is the information that the community provides to a person that they value (Özkara, 2010, p. 15).

Kurt Lewin's field theory, also known as life space, and behavior theories are the basis for social support theory. There are two concepts that support this theory. The first concept is living space and the second concept is psychological ecology (Akyol, 2013, p. 34). According to Lewin, behavior is comprised of the differences in a person's psychological ecology or environment. He claims that all the factors that make up a person's psychological ecology affect a person's attitudes. Accordingly, in order to eliminate undesirable behaviors, first a person's psychological environment must be changed. Psychological ecology is an important component in a person's social support (Akdoğan, 2012, p. 31).

Caplan (1974) has divided social support into 5 groups: emotional, appraisal, material, informational, and community. Emotional support is the need to be loved and cared for by society. Appraisal support is the need to be accepted and approved by peers. Material support is providing all forms of material necessities. Informational support is the information needed to resolve any problems. Community support is a person's need to spend free time with loved ones (Fırat, 2015, pp. 11-12).

Social support is the factor that affects a person's physical and mental relationships and well-being starting from childhood until adulthood (Oktan, 2005, p. 185).

Social support is most important during a person's youth, since this is the time when they are experiencing different ideas and feelings. This is the period when a person is being introduced to adult roles and more responsibilities (Akal, 2010, p. 21).

1.3.1. Social support for adult children whose parents have divorced

It is important to note that social support protects a person during times of stress such as when losing a loved one or getting divorced (Özabacı, Gamsız, Biçen, Altınok, Dursun, Sandıkçı, Altunbaş & Ağcagil, 2015, p. 459).

A study on adult children was performed by Riggio in America in 2004. A total of 566 young adults, ages between 18 - 32, were used in the study. The first group of participants includes 401 adult children whose parents did not divorced. The second group of participants includes 165 adult children whose parents divorced. The factors that were analyzed in this study include the fights and arguments between mother and father, the parent-child relationships, social support, and anxiety. Comparing the perceived social support among the two groups revealed that the group whose parents divorced received lower scores (Akyol, 2013, p. 54).

A study by Gabardi and Rose (1991) found that young university-aged girls whose parents divorced one year ago were better able to express themselves compared to university-aged girls and boys whose parents divorced five years ago. It was determined that these university-aged girls whose parents divorced one year ago are in more need of social support. A similar study showed that adolescent girls whose parents divorced one and a half years ago were in desperate search of social support. A study on children and adolescents shows that those whose parents have divorced have a lower perception of social support compared to those whose parents have not divorced (Özen, 1998, pp. 28-35).

According to Helsen, Volleberg, and Meesus (2000), social support is important in preventing emotional problems in girls. Liu (2002) has found that a positive perception of parental support has an effect on adolescents' psychological conformity. The more the perceived parental support, the less the emotional problems experienced by girls. Many studies have shown that the perceived family support of adolescents has an effect on well-

being, academic achievement, self-respect, and happy family atmosphere (Aksoy, Kahraman & Kılıç, 2008, p. 4).

Another study analyzed the perceived social support scores of 608 high school students. The academic success of each student was different. The group of students who never witnessed arguments and fights within the family had higher perceived social support scores compared to the group of students who frequently witnessed fights within the family (Haskan, 2009, p. 49).

When looking at social support from the point of view of parents, studies show that mothers who live alone with their children after divorce have less social support and more stress compared to married couples (Öngider, 2013, p. 151).

It seems that the perceived social support of youth varies with their changing age. For example, according to one study, children ages 9-15 receive equal social support from both friends and parents, whereas teenagers ages 16-18 receive more social support from their friends rather than their parents. (Turgut, 2015, p. 21).

1.3.2. Studies

Various studies have shown that a high social support perception results in a better well-being and better ability to cope with stress. A low social support perception can lead to the start of depression in both males and females (Polat, 2012, p. 45).

Kenny (1990) performed a study on senior university students to analyze the amount and consistency of the participants' perceived family bonds. According to the results, it was found that the perceived family support was average for males and high for females (Akdoğan, 2012, p. 34).

Another study carried out by Prezza and Pacilli (2002) used a social support scale to measure the results of a total of 1041 participants, including 418 males and 623 females between the ages 18 and 77. Results showed that males in general received higher scores from family related social support. Furthermore, the degree of social support from friends seems to

decrease with age. Social support perceived by married couples was the highest (Kaya, 2009, p. 22).

A different study compared the relationship between perceived family and friend social support and anxiety. It was found that there is a relationship between social support from family and friends. As the perceived social support from family and friends decreases, the degree of anxiety seems to increase (Haskan, 2009, p. 49).

Beest and Baervelat (1999) carried out a study to determine the sources of social support among a total of 1,528 teenagers. It was found that those who have high perceived friend support also had a high perceived family support. Consequently, an important relationship is found between family support and friend support. Therefore, someone who has low perceived family support will have a lower perceived friend support (Akal, 2010, p. 34).

Adolescents who are going through the period of identity development and socialization while facing difficulties without any social support will grow to become adults who are incompetent and dependent. Furthermore, they will face difficulties in daily life since they have not learned to deal with stress (Haskan, 2009, p. 42)

1.4. Loneliness

Weiss (1987) describes two important terms regarding loneliness: the need to be attached to someone and the feeling of belonging. Attachment is the need to share with those who are important to a person's life. Belonging is the need to be a part of a group. Loneliness is the state when these two needs are not being met (Altundağ, 2013, p. 47).

Another definition of loneliness by Genctan is that loneliness is a feeling that frightens a person and makes them feel sad. Also, feelings of loneliness can occur in different situations in a person's life. Therefore, loneliness can be categorized according to these different life situations. One example of loneliness is being physically alone and in solitude. Another example of loneliness is not being able to fit into any group and feeling alienated. Another example of loneliness is not being accepted by people and being rejected. Yet another

example of loneliness is when someone intentionally stays away and avoids any relationships with his/her society. Another example is when someone feels that no one understands them and they are all alone in the world. These are all different examples of loneliness that can occur in life (İmamoğlu, 2008, p. 93).

Peplau and Perlman (1982) describe loneliness as the negative feelings that arise from the difference between a person's desired social relationships and his/her actual social relationships. Loneliness is not a feeling that is experienced only when people are physically by themselves. Many people can feel lonely even when surrounded by many people (Altundağ, 2013, p. 34).

Young divides loneliness into 3 types based on the length of time that loneliness was experienced. The first type is temporary loneliness. This is a temporary and short term feeling that someone can consistently experience. Situational or transitional loneliness happens when a previously positive relationship becomes unpleasant due to certain temporary situations. Chronic loneliness is when a person has been feeling loneliness for a very long time and ceases to feel any pleasure from life (Buluş, 1997, p. 83).

1.4.1. Loneliness in adult children whose parents divorced

Adolescents whose parents have divorced can have feelings of loneliness due to negative feelings among family members and the disruption of the family. Brage and Meredidt followed up on a study that found a negative relationship between loneliness and family unity and the communication between mother and adolescents (Vural, 2013, pp. 46-48).

A study found that adolescents whose parents enforce too much discipline experience more loneliness and more social support from friends compared to adolescents whose parents constantly show care and affection towards their children. Another study showed that children who live with only one parent experience more loneliness compared to children who live with both parents. Another result of this study showed that living with biological parents is more

important than the number of parents a child is living with regarding loneliness (Pancar, 2009, p. 19).

A study that analyzed the relationship between divorce and loneliness concluded that females experience more loneliness compared to males. The loneliness experienced by females is more when they cannot find support during difficult financial situations (Vural, 2013, p. 46).

1.4.2. Studies

The number of people experiencing loneliness in the United States is %26. The number of university students experiencing loneliness in Turkey in 1990 was determined by Demir to be %15.4, whereas Bulus found it to be %17.3 (Buluş, 1997, p. 84).

A study that looked at loneliness among students living in dormitories and students living with their parents found that females have a higher percent of loneliness compared to males (Yılmaz, Yılmaz & Karaca, 2008, p. 77).

A similar study by Aytekin and Bulduk (2000) found that university students who are far from home experience social compatibility difficulties and psychological problems. The biggest problem among these students is loneliness. The reason for this being that they are being separated from their home for the very first time in their lives (İmamoğlu, 2008, p. 45).

A study was carried out in Ankara with participants from 3 different socioeconomic backgrounds. There was a total of 108 participants ages 16-72. Several variables were analyzed to determine the level of loneliness of these participants living in the city. When looking at the variable of socioeconomic background, participants from the lowest socioeconomic group experienced the most loneliness. When looking at the age variable, young adults aged 20 - 30 experienced the most loneliness. Furthermore, young adults without any family experienced the most loneliness (İmamoğlu, 2008, p. 45).

A study carried out by Bıyık (2014) found a correlation between feelings of loneliness and the tendency to become angry among 578 university students. Results showed that those

students who had a very high tendency to become angry felt more loneliness compared to those students who had an average or low tendency to become angry (Haskan, 2009, p. 51).

Gümüş from Kocaeli University performed an extended study on university students from 190 different universities. The correlation between loneliness, satisfaction with body image, and social anxiety was analyzed. As a result, a positive correlation was found. Those who received low scores in the loneliness category also had low scores in their satisfaction of body image and social anxiety (Kılıç, 2014, p. 34).

Another study looked at the passing of loneliness from one generation to another. A weak bond between mothers and daughters can lead to loneliness (Pancar, 2009, p. 49)

1.5. Mental Health

Mental health is the consistency between what a person hears, says and does (Aydın, 2013, p. 21.).

The definition of mental health by the World Health Organization in 2011 is the state of well-being where a person is happy, able to do whatever they want, able to deal with the stresses of life, and is hard working and productive (Cengiz, 2013, p. 23).

According to Gisburg (1955), mental health is comprised of 3 components: work relationships, marital relationships, and pleasure. In other words, mental health can be described as living a happy and peaceful life with a family, a good job, and following all rules and regulations in society (Öztuna, 2011, p. 33).

There are many factors in the literature that are known to affect mental health. One of the most important factors is age. At different ages, the frequency of psychological problems can either increase or decrease. Mental health is also affected by relationships with other people. Different experiences in life can either have a positive or negative effect on a person's mental health. Individuals with extensive psychological problems have experienced many negative incidences in life (Ünalan, 2014, p. 7).

1.5.1. Mental health in adult children whose parents divorced

We can see in the literature that divorce has a great effect on mental health. Several studies have shown that immediately after divorce, parents and their children display various symptoms. Most studies about the effects of mental health on divorce are carried out on parents and their children. However, there are few studies on the effects of divorce on mental health in adult children.

One study found that females experience more symptoms of anxiety and depression compared to males after divorce (Storksen & Arkadaşları, 2006, pp. 42-46).

A different study showed that if an individual's parents divorced or passed away during their childhood, the foundation is set for psychological problems such as depression, anxiety, and somatization to occur in that person's adulthood (Vural, 2015, p. 34).

A similar study was performed on 76 university students from 91 universities. Participants were chosen between ages 18 - 25 whose parents divorced when they were between 11 - 17 years old. It was determined that these individuals experienced more anxiety compared to those whose parents have not divorced (Altuntaş, 2012, p. 34).

Another study found that adolescents whose parents divorced are more prone to depression, suicidal ideation, and being in a constant state of anxiety compared to adolescents whose parents have not divorced. Furthermore, it is expected that these adolescents will suffer psychological problems due to divorce and the difficulties they experienced during their puberty period (Kurt, 2013 p. 36).

Another study found that children whose parents divorced have a higher incidence of mental pathology and have two times more risk of mental problems compared to children whose parents have not divorced (Kabaoğlu, 2011, p. 76).

It was found that children whose parents divorced are more likely to suffer mental illnesses compared to children whose parents have not divorced. The explanation for this being that these children are exposed to too many arguments and fights between mother and

father, financial problems, and lack of attention from parents. Lack of care and attention from mothers is an especially important factor (Sancaklı, 2014, p. 11).

1.6. Studies about fatherhood perception, social support, mental health and loneliness

There are very few researchers who study the relationship between fatherhood perception, loneliness, social support, and mental health. Consequently, there are very few studies in the literature regarding this topic. In contrast, there are many studies that are done about mothers or the mother and father together.

Amato and Gilbert carried out a meta-analysis study in 1999 about a father's relationship with his child after divorce and the effect it has on the child's mental health. The degree of fatherhood responsibility was analyzed for each father. The children's' perceptions of their fathers was that they are distant, unapproachable, and not welcoming. This shows that fathers are not just separating from their wives, but also from their children. These children experience more difficulty in dealing with the problems in life and become more dependent individuals (Öngider, 2013, p. 155).

Another study compared the depression scores between children whose parents divorced and children whose parents did not divorce. However, a significant correlation was not made. Children who see their parent, who lives far away due to divorce, only a few times a year had high depression scores. It was found that males are affected less compared to females (Büyükşahin, 2009, p. 24).

A long term study that lasted 16 years comprised of women ages 32. Those women whose parents divorced when they were children had more frequent psychological problems compared to women whose parents did not divorce. These women also had more signs of depression, psychomotor symptoms, and low general health (Öngider, 2013, p. 48).

Another study looked at the difference between children whose parents divorced and children whose parents did not divorce. Children whose parents divorced had a weaker emotional bond with their fathers, had more fights with their siblings, and the perceived father

support and family unity was less compared to children whose parents did not divorce. Studies that claim that divorce can lead to loneliness in children have shown that divorce destroys deep family bonds and can cause an emotional barrier between mother, father, and child. This emotional barrier is perceived by children as rejection and leads to intense feelings of loneliness (Vural, 2013, pp. 46-48).

Studies have shown that a child is in need of emotional support and advice from the parent they are living with after the divorce. However, most individuals are affected by the trauma of divorce and when they cannot overcome their own problems, then they cannot give adequate support to their child. These children who do not receive support from their parents will try to get support from their friends or grandparents. However, nothing can take the place of a mother's or father's support. That is why a child expects support from his/her parents after the divorce (Öngider, 2013, p. 145).

A study that looked at the effect of loneliness on depression in children and adults found that individuals who feel lonely desire and need more social support. However, when they fail to initiate or maintain a relationship with others, they become more depressed. Another study showed that loneliness gives rise to pessimistic perceptions of relationships that can lead to a constant state of depression (İmamoglu, 2008 p. 102)

2. Method

This section will describe the research model, samples, measurement techniques, and types of data analysis used in this study.

2.1. Research Model

This is a descriptive research study that will try to determine the relationships between perceptions of fatherhood, social support, loneliness, and mental health in adult children whose parents divorced compared to adult children whose parents did not divorce.

2.2. Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to analyze the relationships between adult children's perceptions of their fathers, social support, loneliness, and mental health in adult children whose parents divorced as well as adult children whose parents did not divorce. This study also aims to determine if certain variables, such as which parent the participant lived with directly after the divorce, the age of the participant when his/her parents divorced, parental marital status, and how often he/she spent time with the parent who lived separate from them, will have any significant differences on the effects on adult children who parents divorced.

The hypotheses of this Study:

1. There is a significant difference between adult children whose parents divorced and adult children whose parents did not divorce regarding fatherhood perception, social support, loneliness, and mental health.

2. There is a significant difference in fatherhood perception of adult children whose parents divorced based on variables such as parental marital status, the age of the participant when his/her parents divorced, how often he/she spent time with the parent who lived separate from them, and which parent the participant lived with directly after the divorce.

3. There are significant correlations between gender, parental marital status, fatherhood perception, social support, loneliness, and mental health.

4. Age, gender, parental marital status, social support, loneliness, and mental health are significant predictors of fatherhood perception.

2.3. Participants

The study sample is comprised of 89 women and 71 men, ages varying between 18 - 40, forming a total of 160 participants. The participants all reside in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC). All participants volunteered willingly. The snowball sampling method was used to reach the participants. The snowball sampling method is a universal technique that involves one person interacting with another person, then that person interacts with a second person, then that person interacts with a third person, and so on. (Yazıcıoğlu & Erdoğan, 2004, s.45). The quantitative statistics can be found in detail in the results section.

2.4. Instruments for Collecting Data

2.4.1. Socio-demographic form

The socio-demographic form was prepared by the researcher to obtain the socio-demographic information about the participants' age, gender, marital status, etc. The socio-demographic form also includes questions about the participant's age during which their parents divorced, which parent the participant lived with directly after the divorce, and how often the participant spent time with the parent who lived separate from them. (Appendix 1)

2.4.2. The fatherhood scale (FS)

The FS was first developed by Gary Dick in 2001 and it consists of 64 items. This scale is a 5-point Likert-type scale: 1= never, 2= rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= often, 5= always. This scale measures an adult child's perception of their relationship with their father and their emotional relationships with their fathers during their childhood and adolescent periods, and the roles that the father took on and the different types of a father's relationships with his children (Dick, 2004, p. 83).

According to Gary (2001), there is a need for a new scale due to the fact that there are new definitions of fatherhood, changing roles of fathers in the family, and the increasing importance of the father within the family. That is why Gary developed the FS. Gary defends that a responsible father is necessary in a child's life, whether or not they are divorced.

In addition, clinicians recognize the importance of this scale in the diagnosis and treatment of psychological problems related to divorce due to the changing roles of fathers in the family. The aim of this scale is to help clinicians. Gary observed that a father's care is effected by history, culture and the conditions of life. This scale includes questions which will determine the behaviors of a father that have positive and negative effects on children (Dick, 2004, pp. 80-83).

The study's adaptation to Turkish, its validity and reliability were developed by Üstüner in 2009. This scale has been reduced to 63 items. There are 9 sub-scales: positive emotions responsiveness, positive engagement, negative engagement, moral father role, good provider role, gender role model, androgynous role, paternal accessibility, and paternal responsibility. There are 11 negative items in this scale. These items are inversely scored. Higher total points indicate more positive paternal involvement. The internal consistency of the Cronbach alpha coefficient was calculated to vary between 0.72 and 0.81 (Üstüner, 2009, p. 16).

2.4.3. Multidimensional scale of perceived social support (MSPSS)

The MSPSS was designed by Zimmet and colleagues (1988) and is comprised of 12 items. This scale is a 7-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1= very strongly disagree to 7= very strongly agree. The MSPSS aims to determine an individual's type of perceived social support. Items 3, 4, 8, and 11 are questions measuring perceived social support from family. Items 1, 2 5, and 10 are questions measuring perceived social support from a special individual. Items 6, 7, 9, and 12 are questions measuring perceived social support from friends (İnan, 2012, p. 28).

The MSPSS was adapted to Turkish by Eker ve Akar (1995). The scale is comprised of 3 sub-scales with 4 items each, that measures perceived social support from family, friends, and special individuals. The lowest possible score that can be acquired from the sub-scales is 4, whereas the highest possible score is 28. The lowest possible score that can be acquired in total is 12, whereas the highest possible score is 84. A high score indicates that perceived social support is high (Eker & Akar, 1995. p. 47).

The sample that was used in the process of adaptation is comprised of university students with mental problems, in-patients at a psychiatry hospital, out-patients, and healthy

individuals. Differences were observed in the internal consistency coefficient between the different groups of the sample. The coefficients in order are 0.85, 0.77, 0.88, 0.86, and 0.87. The brief symptoms inventory and Beck depression inventory were compared with constant state anxiety inventory points when performing the validity study. A strong significant correlation was found among university students and psychiatry patients among these two scales (İnan, 2012, p. 28).

2.4.4. University of California Los Angeles (UCLA) loneliness scale

The UCLA scale was developed by Russell, Peplau, and Ferguson (1978). This scale consists of 20 items and is a 4-point likert type scale. The internal consistency of Cronbach alpha coefficient is .96. The test correlation consistency was repeated over 2 months and was determined to be .73. The adaptation, validity, and reliability tests were developed by Demir (1989). The reliability and internal consistency Cronbach alpha coefficient is found to be .80. The scale was developed to measure a person's overall loneliness level. There are a total of 20 items, 10 of which are straightforward and the other 10 inverse. Each item is ranked from 1 - 4 points. The maximum possible points that can be acquired are 80 and the minimum possible points that can be acquired are 20. Higher points indicate a higher level of loneliness. A person who receives a high score is considered to experience a high degree of loneliness (Yılmaz, Yılmaz and Karaca, 2008, p. 72). The positive questions in this scale are items 1, 4, 5, 6, 9, 10, 15, 16, 19, 20, whereas the negative questions are items 2, 3, 7, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 17, 18. The scoring system for the positive questions is: 4= never, 3= rarely, 2= sometimes, 1= often. The scoring system for the negative questions is inverse: 1= never, 2= rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= often (Doğrusever, 2015, p. 60).

2.4.5. Brief symptom inventory (BSI)

The BSI, developed by Derogatis (1992), is the shorter version of the SCL-90 symptom list. The BSI is a 5-point Likert-type scale that is comprised of 53 items. It includes 9 sub-scales: somatization, obsessive-compulsive disorder, interpersonal sensitivity, depression, anxiety, hostility, phobic anxiety, paranoid ideation, and psychotic. The BSI also includes 3 global indices: global severity index, positive symptom total, positive symptom distress index. The internal consistency of the Cronbach alpha coefficient is between .84-.87 (Derogatis, 1992).

The study's adaptation to Turkish, its validity and reliability were developed by Şahin and Durak (1994). Each item is answered on a scale from 0 – 4: 0= not at all, 1= a little bit, 2= moderately, 3= quite a bit, 4= extremely. As a result of the compatibility to Turkish, only 5 sub-scales were used: anxiety, depression, negative self-perception, somatization, and hostility. The internal consistency of the Cronbach alpha coefficient is between .95 and .96 (Şahin and Durak, 1994, p. 50).

The range of possible points that can be acquired is 0 - 212. The scale is given to adolescents and adults. The total points acquired indicate the participants' frequency of mental health symptoms (Barlas, Karaca, Onan and Işıl, 2010, p. 19).

2.5. Data Collection

The data was collected individually among adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce between the time periods of December 2015 - December 2016. The method of data collection, the aims of the researcher and the study, the confidentiality of the answers, and the fact that all answers will be used for statistical purposes only was written and given to all participants as a separate form. The participants' identity card information was not requested.

2.6. Data Analysis

The t test was used to determine if a significant difference exists between fatherhood perception, social support, loneliness, and mental health in adult children whose parents divorced and adult children whose parents did not divorce. ANOVA was used to determine the effects of important variables, such as parental marital status, the age of the participant when his/her parents divorced, how often he/she spent time with the parent who lived separate from them, and which parent the participant lived with directly after the divorce, on perception of fatherhood among the group of adult children whose parents divorced. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationships between gender, parental marital status, fatherhood perception, social support, loneliness, and mental health. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to determine whether certain variables, such as age, gender, parental marital status, social support, degree of lonliness, and mental health, will predict an individual's perceptions of their father. All data was analyzed using SPSS 22.0 software package.

3. Results

As mentioned in the introduction, the purpose of this study is to investigate the relationships between age, gender, marital status, participant's age during their parent's divorce, which parent the participant lived with after the divorce, how often the participant spent time with the parent who lived separate from them, perception of fatherhood, social support, loneliness and mental health.

This section will discuss the results from the statistical analyses that were performed to verify the hypotheses.

First of all, the frequency and percentage ranges were explained in order to describe the general information about the participants such as age, gender, marital status etc. The t test was used to determine if a significant difference exists between fatherhood perception, social support, loneliness, and mental health in adult children whose parents divorced and adult children whose parents did not divorce. ANOVA was used to determine the effects of important variables, such as whether or not the participant's parents remarried, the age of the participant when his/her parents divorced, how often he/she spent time with the parent who lived separate from them, and which parent the participant lived with directly after the divorce, on perception of fatherhood among the group of adult children whose parents divorced. Secondly, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to determine the relationships between gender, parental marital status, fatherhood perception, social support, loneliness, and mental health. Finally, the hierarchical multiple regression analysis was used to determine whether certain variables, such as age, gender, parental marital status, social support, degree of lonliness, and mental health, will predict an individual's perceptions of their father.

3.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 1.

Demographic Information of adult children whose parents divorced and did not divorce

	Divorced (n)%	Married (n)%	Total Participants
Gender			
Female	47 (%58.8)	42 (%52.5)	89 (%55.6)
Male	33 (%41.3)	38 (%47.5)	71(%44.4)
Total	80(%100.0)	80(%100.0)	160 (%100.0)
Age			
18-25	56 (%70.0)	52 (%65.0)	108 (%67.5)
26-34	19 (%23.8)	19 (%23.8)	38 (%23.8)
35-40	5 (%6.3)	9 (%11.3)	14 (%8.8)
Total	80(%100.0)	80 (%100.0)	160 (%100.0)
Marital Status			
Marrie	19 (%23.8)	18 (%22.5)	37 (%23.1)
Single	61 (%76.3)	62 (%77.5)	123(%76.9)
Total	80(%100.0)	80 (%100.0)	160 (%100.0)
Nationality			
KKTC	49 (%61.3)	22 (%27.5)	71(%44.4)
TC	23 (%28.8)	55 (%68.8)	78 (%48.8)
KKTC-TC	8 (%10.0)	3 (%3.8)	11 (%6.9)
Total	80 (%100.0)	80(%100.0)	160(%100.0)

Table 1 shows that 89 participants are women and 71 are men. The total number of participants is 160. 80 of these participants' parents are divorced and the other 80 participants' parents are married.

70% of adults whose parents are divorced are in the age range of 18-25, 23.8 % are in the age range of 26-34, and 6.3% of them are in 35-40 age range. %65 of adults whose parents are not divorced are in the age range of 18-25, 23.8% of them are in age range 26-34, and the other 11.3% are in 35-40 age range.

23.8% of the participants whose parents are divorced are married and the remaining 76.3% are single. 22.5% of participants whose parents are not divorced are married and the remaining 77.5% are single.

61.3% of the participants whose parents are divorced are from TRNC, %28.8 belong to Turkish Republic and the remaining 10% belong to both TRNC-TR. 27.5% of the participants whose parents are not divorce are from TRNC, %68.8 belong to Turkish Republic and the remaining %3.8 belong to both TRNC-TR.

Table 2.

Demographic Information of adult children whose parents divorced

Demographic Information	N	%
Who lived with		
Mother	55	68.8
Father	15	18.8
Both of them	3	3.8
Other	7	8.8
Total	80	100
Frequency of seeing		
Everyday	7	8.8
Once a week	18	22.5
Once in two week	2	2.5
Once a month	6	7.5
Couple of times in a year	15	18.8
Never	18	22.5
Other	14	17.5
Total	80	100
Remarriage of parents		
My father married again	26	32.5
My mother married again	10	12.5
Both of them married again	18	22.5
None of them married again	26	32.5
Total	80	100
How old were you when your parents divorced?		
1-12 (childhood)	49	61.3
13-17 (puberty)	19	23.8
18-30 (adulthood)	12	15.0
Total	80	100

Table 2 shows that 68.8% of participants whose parents divorced stayed with their mother, 18.8% of them stayed with their father, 3.8% stayed with their mother and father and the remaining 8.8% stayed with other family members such as aunt or uncle.

Meeting frequency shows how much time the participant spent with the parent who lived separate from them. 8.8% of participants see their divorced parent every day, 22.5% of them see once a week, 2.5% see twice a week, 7.5% see once a month, 18.8% of the participants see their divorced parent a few times a year, 22.5% of them never see their divorced parent and the remaining 17.5% reported as other.

32.5% of the participants' fathers remarried, 12.5% of their mothers remarried, 22.5% of participants' both parents remarried and the remaining 32.5% of their parents did not remarry.

It was found that 61.3% of the participants were in 1-12 age range, which is the childhood period when their parents divoced, 23.8% of them were in 13-17 age range which is the adolescence period, and the other 15% of the participants were in age range of 18-30 which is adulthood period.

Tablo 3.

T-test Results of Adult children whose parents Divorced and Not Divorced According to All Variables

Variables	Parental Marital Status	N	X	S	Sd	T	P
Positive Engagement	Divorced Parents	80	11,61	5,58	155,87	-3,96	,000*
	Married Parents	80	14,92	4,96			
Positive Emotions Res.	Divorced Parents	80	31,67	13,22	154,17	-5,78	,000*
	Married Parents	80	42,91	11,28			
Moral Father	Divorced Parents	80	12,76	5,31	157,88	-4,91	,000*
	Married Parents	80	16,83	5,16			
Negative Engagement	Divorced Parents	80	48,82	5,15	145,50	1,48	,140
	Married Parents	80	47,38	6,96			
Gender Role Model	Divorced Parents	80	12,85	4,96	157,46	-4,29	,000*
	Married Parents	80	16,12	4,68			
Good Provider Role	Divorced Parents	80	12,46	4,86	133,71	-5,93	,000*
	Married Parents	80	16,28	3,08			
Paternal Accesible	Divorced Parents	80	8,737	4,26	157,79	-5,76	,000*
	Married Parents	80	12,56	4,11			
Andrognouns Role	Divorced Parents	80	16,68	6,47	146,42	-3,73	,000*
	Married Parents	80	20,06	4,84			
Responsible Paternal	Divorced Parents	80	15,97	7,19	157,88	-4,02	,000*
	Married Parents	80	19,98	6,98			
Anxiety	Divorced Parents	80	11,26	7,86	146,02	-1,26	,207
	Married Parents	80	13,12	10,55			
Depression	Divorced Parents	80	14,82	10,56	157,71	-,388	,699
	Married Parents	80	15,48	11,02			
Negative Self Percep.	Divorced Parents	80	10,36	9,56	157,90	-,301	,764
	Married Parents	80	10,81	9,33			
Hostility	Divorced Parents	80	6,52	5,65	152,51	,277	,782
	Married Parents	80	7,73	6,85			

Somatization	Divorced Parents	80	9,90	6,59	156,24	-1,22	224
	Married Parents	80	9,62	5,93			
Family Support	Divorced Parents	80	19,07	7,44	156,07	2,956	,004*
	Married Parents	80	22,37	6,65			
Special Person Support	Divorced Parents	80	19,53	8,73	157,73	,212	,832
	Married Parents	80	19,25	8,38			
Friends Support							
	Divorced Parents	80	21,43	6,75	157,95	14,16	,159
	Married Parents	80	19,91	6,86			
Loneliness							
	Divorced Parents	80	35,78	10,12	157,55	13,62	,175
	Married Parents	80	37,91	9,59			

Table 3 shows that there is a significant difference in positive engagement scores of the fatherhood subscales between the participants whose parents divorced and the participants whose parents did not divorced (t(158)=-3,96, p<0.05). Therefore, it can be seen that participants whose parents did not divorce had higher positive engagement scores compared to participants whose parents divorced.

The average scores of postive emotions response showed that there is a significant difference between the divorced parents' children and married parents' children. (t(158)=-5.78, p<0.05). Therefore, it was found that adults whose parents divorced had lower positive emotions response compared to adults whose parents did not divorce.

There was a significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce regarding moral father scores (t(158)=-4.91, p<0.05). Therefore, it was found that adults whose parents did not divorced had higher moral father scores.

The t-test was performed to determine if there is a significant difference regarding negative engagement between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce. Results showed that there was no significant difference between the two groups ($t(158)=1.48$, $p>0.05$).

There was a significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce in terms of gender role model ($t(158)=-4.29$, $p< 0.05$). It was found that participants whose parents divorced had lower scores.

There was a significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce in terms of good provider role ($t(158)=-5.93$, $p< 0.05$). The good provider scores of adults whose parents did not divorced were higher than the other group.

There was a significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce in terms of paternal accessible father scores ($t(158)=-5.76$, $p< 0.05$). Therefore, it was determined that the accessible father scores of participants whose parents did not divorce were higher.

A significant difference was found between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce in terms of average androgynous role scores ($t(158)=-3.73$, $p< 0.05$). Adults whose parents did not divorce had higher scores compared to adults whose parents divorced.

There is a significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce in terms of average responsible paternal scores ($t(158)=-4.02$, $p< 0.05$). It was found that adults whose parents did not divorce had higher responsible paternal scores.

Table 3 shows that there was no significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce regarding anxiety levels $t(158)=-1.26$, $p>0.05$).

There was no significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce regarding depression scores ($t(158)=-388$, $p>0.05$).

There was no significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce regarding negative self-perception ($t(158)=-,301$, $p>0.05$).

There was no significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce regarding hostility ($t(158)=.277$, $p>0.05$).

There was no significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce regarding somatization ($t(158)=-1.22$, $p>0.05$).

Table 3 shows that there is a significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce regarding social support scores from family memebers. Adults whose parents did not divorce have higher scores ($t(158)=-2.956$, $p<0.05$).

There was no significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce regarding social support scores from special persons ($t(158)=.212$, $p>0.05$).

There was no significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce regarding social support scores from friends ($t(158)=14.16$, $p>0.05$).

There was no significant difference between adults whose parents divorced and adults whose parents did not divorce regarding loneliness scores ($t(158)=-.13.62$, $p<0.05$).

Tablo 4.

The mean of total FS score of adult children whose parents divorced according to the parent they live with

Demographic Information	N	Mean	Standart Deviation
Mother	55	165,10	46,61
Father	15	194,80	45,82
Both of Them	3	207,33	48,91
Other	7	157,42	36,44
Total	80	171,58	47,08

Tablo 5.

The results of variance analysis of total FS scores of adult children whose parents divorced according to the parent they live with

Variance Source	Sum of Squares	Sd	Mean Square	F	p
Between Groups	15627,26	3	5209,08	2,482	,067
Within Groups	159504,12	76	2098,73		
Total	175131,38	79			

Table 4 shows the means and standard deviations of total FS scores of adults whose parents divorced according to which parent they live with. Table 5 shows the results of the one way variance analysis. The results of this test showed that there was significant difference among adults whose parents divorced in total FS scores (F=2.482.p>,05).

Tablo 6.

The mean of total FS score of adult children whose parents divorced according to the frequency of seeing the divorced parent

Demographic Information	N	Mean	Standart Deviation
Everyday	7	161,14	43,39
once a week	18	203,16	45,16
once in two weeks	2	210,00	83,43
once a month	6	185,16	21,04
couple of times in a year	15	165,53	41,98
Never	18	138,94	40,77
Other	14	173,35	43,40
Total	80	171,58	47,08

Tablo 7.

The results of variance analysis of total FS scores of adult children whose parents divorced according to the frequency of seeing divorced parent

Variance Source	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F	p	Significant Difference
Between Groups	42545,305	6	3,904	,002*	Never- Once a week
Within Groups	132586,083	73			
Total	175131,387	79			

Table 6 shows the means and standard deviations of total FS scores in adults whose parents divorced according to the frequency that they see the divorced parent who lives seperate from them. Table 7 shows the results of the one way variance analysis. The results of this test showed that there is a significant statistical difference among adults whose parents divorced in total FS scores (F=3,904, p<.05). The Tukey multiple comparison test was used to

determine which group resulted in this difference. This test showed that the difference resulted from two groups: never (X =40,77) and once a week (X =45,16). According to these results, it can be said that the positive fatherhood perception of adults who see their divorced parent once a week is higher than the adults who never see their divorced parent.

Tablo 8.

The mean of total FS score of adult children whose parents divorced according to remarriage of parents

Demographic Information	N	Mean	Standart Deviation
my father married again	26	161,88	36,97
my mother married again	10	173,90	60,95
both of them married again	18	185,38	49,85
none of them married again	26	170,84	48,71
Total	80	171,58	47,08

Tablo 9.

The results of the variance analysis of total FS scores of adult children whose parents divorced according to remarriage of parents

Variance Source	Sum of Squares	Sd	Mean Square	F	p
Between Groups	5980,563	3	1981,390	,450	,890
Within Groups	169150,825	76	2226,148		
Total	175131,387	79			

Table 8 shows the means and standard deviations of total FS scores in adults whose parents divorced according to the remarriage of their parents. Table 9 shows the results of the

one way variance analysis. The results of this test showed that there is a significant statistical difference among adults whose parents divorced in total FS scores (F= ,890 p>,05)

Tablo 10.

The mean of total FS score of adult children whose parents divorced according to the age during parent's divorce

Demographic Information	N	Mean	Standart Deviation
(1-12)	49	167,85	49,47
(13-17)	19	168,21	47,74
(18-30)	12	192,16	31.09
Total	80	171,58	47,08

Tablo 11.

The results of the variance analysis of total scores of FS of adult children whose parents divorced according to the age during parent's divorce

Variance Source	Sum of Squares	Sd	Mean Square	F	p
Between Groups	5980,56	2	2990,28	1.361	,262
Within Groups	169150,82	77	2196,76		
Total	175131,38	79			

Table 10 shows the means and standard deviations of total FS scores in adults whose parents divorced according to the age of the adult child when their parents divorced. Table 11 shows the results of the one way variance analysis. The test showed that there are no significant differences among adults whose parents divorced in total FS scores due to the age of the adult child when their parents divorced (F=1,361 p>.05).

3.2.Relationship between Gender, Parental Marital Status, Anxiety, Depreesion, Negative Self Perception, Somatization, Hostility, Family Support, Special Person Support Family Support and Loneliness

Table 12.

Relationsip between Gender, *Parental Marital Status, Fatherhood Perception, Anxiety, Depreesion, Negative Self Perception, Somatization, Hostility, Family Support, Special Person Support Family Support and Loneliness*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Gender	-	063	.005	-.016	-.118	-.065	-.171*	.030	-.135	-.029	-.131	.080
2. Parental Marital		-	.377**	.100	.031	.024	.097	-.022	.229**	-.017	-.112	.108
3.Fatherhood P.			-	-.068	-.110	-.173*	-.067	-.147	.356**	.259**	.188*	- .248**
4. Anxiety				-	.842	.839	.763	.777	-312**	-.269**	-.218**	.448**
5. Depression					-	.865	,761	.770	-321**	-.341**	-.255**	.490**
6. Negative Self P.						-	.697	.758	-293**	-.292**	-206**	.491**
7. Somatization							-	.602	-295**	-.270**	-.234**	.434**
8. Hostility								-	-256**	-216**	-.175*	.395**
9. Family Support									-	.306	.478	-396**
10. Special Person S.										-	.442	-.356**
11. Friends Sup.											-	-.538**
12.Loneliness												-

* p<.05   ** p<.01

Table 12 shows the results of the pearson spearman correlation test that shows the relationships between parental marital status, gender, fatherhood perception, social support, loneliness and psychological health.

Table 12 shows that there was a negative significant relationship between gender and somatization. The somatization scores of women were higher ($r= -0.17, p<.05$). There is no correlation between gender and parental marital status, fatherhood perception, anxiety, depression, negative self perception, family support, special person support, friends support and loneliness levels.

There was a positive correlation between parental marital status and total points of fatherhood perception ($r=38, p<.01$) and perceived family support ($r=0.23, p<.01$). Positive fatherhood perception and family support scores of adults whose parents did not divorce were high. There were no significant correlations between parental marital status and anxiety, depression, negative self perception, somatization, hostility, friend support, special person support and loneliness.

There was a negative correlation between positive fatherhood perception and negative self perception ($r=0.17, p<.05$) and loneliness ($r=0.25, p<.01$). A positive correlation was found between positive fatherhood perception and family support ,($r=0.31, p<.01$), friends support($r=0.22, p<.01$) and special person support ($r=0.27, p<.01$). Therefore, as positive fatherhood perception increases, negative self perception and loneliness levels decrease. As the adult's perception of positive fatherhood increases, the friend and special person support also increases.

According to this data, there is a negative correlation between anxiety levels of adults, family support, ($r=-.31, p<.01$), friends support ($r=.-84, p<.01$), and special person support ($r=-$

.84,p<.01). According to the correlational analysis, as anxiety level increase, levels of friends and special person support decrease.

There is a negative correlation between depression and family support (r=.-32, p<.01), special person support (r=.-34, p<.01) and friends support (r=.-26, p<.01). As levels of depression increase, family, friends and special person support decrease.

There is a negative correlation between negative self perception and family support (r=.-29, p<.01), special person support (r=.-29, p<.01), and friends support (r=.-21, p<.01) levels. As levels of negative self perception increase, family, friends, and special person support decrease.

There was a negative correlation between Somatization and family support (r=.30, p<.01), special person support (r=.27, p<.01) and friends support (r=.23, p<.01). As somatization levels increase, family, friends and special person support levels decrease.

There is a negative relationship between hostility and family support (r=-.26, p<.01), special person support (r=-.21, p<.01) and friends support (r=-.18, p<.05). As hostility levels increase, special person, family and friends support decrease.

It was found that there is a negative significant relationship between family support and loneliness (r=-.40, p<.01). When levels of family support increase, levels of loneliness decrease.

There is a negative correlation between special person support and loneliness (r=-.36, p<.01). As levels of special person support increase, levels of loneliness decrease.

There is a negative significant relationship between friends' support and loneliness levels (r=-.54, p<.01). As levels of friends' support increase, levels of loneliness decrease.

3.3. Findings about Prediction of Positive Fatherhood Perception

Table 13.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis about Prediction of Positive Fatherhood Perception

Variables	R	R²	R² Change	F Change	Sig. F Change	B	ß	t	P
Stage 1	.377	.142	.142	8.639	.000				
Age						.042	.006	.074	.941
Gender						-1.824	-.019	-.259	.796
P. Marital S.						35.581	.378	5.076	.000**
Stage 2	.513	.263	.121	8.368	.000				
Age						-.682	-.090	-1.236	.218
Gender						2.906	.031	.433	.666
P. Marital S.						31.715	.337	4.547	.000**
Family S.						1.489	.228	2.615	010*
S.Personal S.						1.058	.191	2.435	.016*
Friend S.						.302	.044	.498	.619
Stage 3	.532	.283	.020	4.205	.042				
Age						-.694	-.092	-1.271	.206
Gender						2.799	.030	.421	.674
P. Marital S.						33.530	.356	4.818	.000**
Family S.						1.259	.193	2.193	.030*
S.Personal S.						.936	.169	2.158	.032*
Friend S.						-.144	-.021	-.226	.821
Loneliness						-.827	-.173	-2.051	.042*
Stage 4	.561	.315	.031	1.349	.247				
Age						-.596	-.079	-1.042	.299
Gender						5.575	.059	.793	.429
P. Marital S.						30.541	.324	4.275	.000**
Family S.						1.432	.219	2.463	.015*
S.Personal S.						1.035	.187	2.349	.020*
Friend S.						-.098	-.014	-.153	.879
Loneliness						-.827	-.173	-1.853	.066
Anxiety						.925	.183	1.147	.253
Depression						1.220	.278	1.658	.100
N. Self-Perc.						-1.439	-.287	-1.869	.064
Somatization						.065	.009	.073	.942
Hostility						-1.110	-.147	-1.219	.225

Table 13 shows results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, which was held in order to investigate the variables that predict positive fatherhood perception.

In the first stage, it can be seen that age, gender and parental marital status predicted 14.2% of the total variance [F value (8,639)=8.639 p<.01]. Parental marital status (ß=.378, p<.01) positively predicted positive fatherhood perception. This finding showed that adults whose parents are not divorced had higher positive fatherhood perceptions. The variable also predicted positive fatherhood perception at second (ß=.337, p<.01), third (ß=.356, p<.01) and fourt

In the second stage, the addition of family, friends and special person support variable predicted 12,1% of the total variance [F value (9.116)=8.368 p<.01]. Family support (ß=-.228, p<.01) and special person support (ß=-.191, p<.01) predicted positive fatherhood perception in a positive way. This means that high levels of family and special person support leads to high levels of positive fatherhood perception. Family support and special person support predicted positive fatherhood perception also in third stage (ß=.193, p<.01), (ß=.169, p<.01) and in fourth stage (ß=.219, p<.01) (ß=.187, p<.01).

In the third stage, the addition of loneliness variable predicted 2% of total variance of positive fatherhood perception [F value (4.205)=8.578, p<.01]. Loneliness (ß=-.173, p<01) negatively predicted positive fatherhood perception. It explains that low levels of loneliness predicts high levels of positive fatherhood perception.

In the fourth stage, the addition of anxiety, depression, negative self perception, somatization and hostility variables explained 3.1% of the total variance. However, they did not predict the positive fatherhood perception [F value (1.349)=5.623].

When the dual correlations were reviewed, it can be seen that there were positive correlations between positive fatherhood perception and parental marital status (r=.377),

family support (r=.356), special person support (r=.259) and friends support (r=-.188). However, there were negative correlations between positive fatherhood perception and loneliness (r=-.248), negative self perception (r=-.173) and hostility (r=-.147).

According to the findings that were gathered from the regression analysis, parental marital status predicted positive fatherhood in all stages, wherase family and special person support predicted in second, third, and fourth stages, and loneliness predicted only in third stage.

4. Discussion

In this section, the research findings were discussed and interpreted in accordance with the literature. As stated in the introduction part of the paper, when explaining the concept of fatherhood Lamb (1979) states that, a father has several roles based on the perception of the child. He explains fatherhood roles with concepts of interaction, accessibility and responsibility. Interaction is defined as all activities fathers do with their children. Accessibility is defined as the father's physical and emotional intimacy to his child and making the child feel that he cares about him/her. Responsibility is defined as the duties the father has to perform for his child's health and happiness. (Kocayörük, 2010, p. 38). Rotundo, on the other hand, mentions about the changing roles of the fathers and raises the concept of 'androgynous'. Androgynous Role is described as a fatherhood role in which the father is more interested in his child in physical and emotional terms and undertakes more responsibilities (Tecik, 2013, p.46) Understanding Rotun's and Lamb's concepts of fatherhood for better evaluation of the subscales of the fatherhood scale used in the research will be useful when discussing the issue.

According to the research findings, when the fatherhood perception is evaluated with respect to adults whose parents have divorced and whose have not, there is a significant difference in terms of the subscales of fatherhood scale, which are positive engagement, positive emotions responsiveness, gender father role, moral father role, good provider role, paternal accessible, androgynous role and responsible paternal engagement scores. Whereas there is no significant difference in the negative engagement subscale. With the correlation analysis of the study, it is seen that there is a significant positive relation between the parental marital status variable and the total scores of the FS. The total scores of FS for those with divorced parents were found to be lowest than those with non-divorced parents. When we look at the results of the regression analysis of the study, we see that, they also support these

findings and that parental marital status variable significantly contributes to the positive fatherhood perception. This finding suggests that, those with non-divorced parents have a higher level of positive fatherhood perception. Considering that adult children with divorced parents did not differ from the other group in terms of negative engagement scores, we can say that, the divorce does not differentiate the fatherhood perceptions of adults in negative terms. Children who grew up together with their parents have a more positive relationship with their fathers than others. On the other hand, those who did not grow up together with both parents do not perceive their fathers in negative. In his study evaluating the fatherhood perception in terms of witnessing violence, Dick (2005) found a significant difference between the fatherhood perception and whether they had witnessed violence between their parents or not. The evaluation of the subscales of fatherhood showed that there was a significant difference in terms of the subscales of positive emotional responsiveness, positive paternal engagement, paternal accessibility, responsibility paternal role, child abuse (negative engagement) and emotional abuse (negative engagement). Consequently, the negative engagement scores of those who witnessed violence between their parents were found to be higher than those who did not witness violence. Whereas the violence between the parents affects the fatherhood perception of the child negatively, divorce, which is the subject of our research, does not change the fatherhood perception of the child negatively. Again in the same study, there was no significant difference in moral father role, good provider and gender father role subscale levels of those who witnessed the violence of their parents in childhood. In other words, the fathers continue to earn the living of the family and to be a role model in terms of gender and morals whether their father applies violence or not. (Dick, 2005, pp. 10-14). In our study, the subscales of Moral father role, Good Provider role and Gender father role were significantly different between the groups with divorced and non-divorced parents. The Moral father role, Good Provider role and Gender father role scores of adult children with divorced parents were found to be lower than those with non-divorced parents. When

evaluation is made on the basis of father who is a role model for his child in terms of gender and morals, it is thought that, as the research is carried out in different cultures, the meaning and the tasks ascribed to the father will also change from one society to another. When evaluated in terms of the good provider role, it is thought that, as the society in which the research was conducted had legally enforced sanctions on fathers in issues such as divorce and domestic violence, the findings obtained were different.

According to the findings of the research, between adults with divorced parents and adults with non-divorced parents, there was a significant difference in terms of family support dimension whereas there was no significant difference in terms of anxiety, depression, negative self-perception, somatization, hostility, special person support, friend support and loneliness scores. The result of the correlation analysis supported this finding. There was no significant relationship between the parental marital status and anxiety, depression, negative self, somatization and hostility levels. Also in the hierarchical multiple regression analysis, anxiety, depression, negative self-perception, somatization and hostility variables did not significantly contribute to the positive fatherhood perception. When examined in terms of fatherhood perception, parental marital status reveals out no influence on adults considering the emergence of psychological symptoms such as anxiety, depression, negative self-perception, somatization and hostility.

In the researches of Karakuş (2003) and Büyükşahin (2009), there was no significant relationship between the depression levels of children with divorced parents and non-divorced parents. On the other hand, in another research conducted on adolescents, those with divorced parents had higher levels of depression, suicide attempts and anxiety rates than those with non-divorced parents (Kurt, 2013 p.36). It is seen that there are different findings about the subject in literature. 61% of the participants constituting the sample group of our research were between 1 and 12 years old when their parents got divorced. The participants' ages vary

.from 18 to 40 today. When mentioning about the influence of divorce on the child, researchers say that, the first two years after divorce are influential on the child's life, and that the child begins to give normal reactions 6-12 months after divorce (Öngider, 2013, p. 147). Based on these factors, it is considered that, as it had passed a long time over divorce, the participants recovered from its short-term effects and were experiencing the long-term stable effects instead. Likewise, this is considered to be the reason behind the absence of a significant difference between the adult children with divorced patents and those with non-divorced parents in terms of depression, anxiety, negative self-perception, somatization and hostility levels.

According to the findings of the research, when adults with divorced parents and those with non-divorced parents were studied in terms of the perceived social support, there was a significant difference between the two groups in terms of the level of family support, which is one of the components of the perceived social support. While adults with non-divorced parents had a higher level of family support, there was no significant difference between the scores of two groups in terms of special person support and friends' support. In parallel with this, the correlation analysis also found a significant positive correlation between parental marital status and the level of family support. There was also no relationship in terms of special person support and friends' support. The findings of the research are consistent with literature.

Thoits (1986) defines social support as a helping hand extended to someone in his/her stressful and difficult moments (Akal, 2010, p.25). Based on this definition it is considered that, children who grow up in a sound and unified family environment are able to reach this helping hand whenever they need it. Considering that, a child whose mother and father lives in separate places due to divorce will not be able reach both of them instantly whenever he/she needs them, and thus, adult children with non-divorced parents will have a higher level

of perceived family support. In parallel with this finding, another research which studied the perceived social support in terms of violence and family functions revealed out a significant difference between the group of students with divorced parents and the group of students with non-divorced parents in terms of the perceived family support level and it showed that, students with non-divorced parents had a higher level of perceived family support than those with divorced parents (Akyol, 2013, p.55).

According to the findings of the research, there was no significant difference between the loneliness scores of adults with divorced and non-divorced parents. Correlation analysis also showed no relationship between parental marital status and loneliness. The research findings are consistent with each other. In literature, there are different findings about whether the level of loneliness differs based on the marital status of parents. In a research conducted, it was seen that the loneliness scores of university students whose parents were separated had higher scores of loneliness compared to those whose parents were living together (Kılıç 214 p.54). In a research conducted by Çivitçi (2009) in Denizli, the level of loneliness of the individuals with divorced parents was found higher than those with non-divorced parents. Similarly, in a research conducted in Isparta, the level of loneliness of the individuals with divorced parents was higher than those with non-divorced parents (Akyol. 2013, p. 121). In another study, there was no significant difference in terms of the loneliness levels of university students staying with their parents or in dormitory (Akyol, 2013, p. 107). Looking at the researches stated above, it is seen that, there is a significant difference between adolescents with divorced parents and those with non-divorced parents in terms of loneliness. In parallel with this research, researches conducted on adult children showed no significant difference in terms of the level of loneliness. In literature, there are varieties in the results of researches studying the divorce of parents in terms of loneliness. University students make up the majority of the sample group of the research. In this context, individuals are involved in a

particular social life. Considering that they are experiencing the long-term stable effects of divorce, it is believed that individuals do not feel lonely.

Whereas there was no significant difference between the fatherhood scales total score means of the adults with divorced parents concerning the variables "which parent the child lived with after divorce, re-marriage status of their parents, and the participant's age at the time of divorce", whereas there was a significant difference for adults with divorced parents in terms of the variable "frequency of meeting their parent they live away from". With the further examination conducted through the Tukey multiple comparison test, the difference was found to be arising from the scores, "never" and "once a week". According to this finding, it can be said that, the positive fatherhood perceptions of the adults who once a week meet the parent they live away from are higher than those who never meet. In literature, there are researches on children and adolescents which study those with divorced parents concerning the variables "which parent the child lived with after divorce, re-marriage status of their parents, the participant's age at the time of divorce and the frequency they meet the parent they live away from'.

In a research conducted by Hatun (2012), it was found that, most of the family functions showed differences depending on the parent the child was living together with. When the communication function of the family was studied in terms of the frequency the participant met the parent who lived away, the finding showed similarity with the findings of this research. It was found that, children who never met the parent living away perceived a poorer communication as a family function compared to those who met them at least a few days a week (Hatun, 2012 p.101). In the research conducted by Akdoğan (2012), no significant difference was found in terms of the level of perceived social support concerning the variables "which parent the child lived with after divorce, re-marriage status of their parents, and the child's age at the time of divorce" (Akdoğan, 2012, p. 60). Looking at the

researches conducted it can be concluded that, the details of divorce, such as remarriage of parents, the age of the child at the time of divorce and whom the child lived with made no difference on the child's fatherhood perception. On the other hand, the frequency the child meets the parent living away is observed to be important for the child. This finding suggests that, not the presence of divorce but the post-divorce communication frequency in an influential factor. It is seen here that, when the divorced parents meet and show interest toward the child after divorce, the negative effects of divorce are eliminated. According to research findings, there was also no difference on fatherhood perception concerning the variable "which parent the child lived with after divorce'. In the sample group of the research, those who lived with their fathers after divorce were the minority (according to Table 2 - 18.8%). This makes it difficult to make a general comment on the finding.

Research findings showed that there was a significant negative correlation between gender and somatization and that, women had higher somatization scores than men. This finding is consistent with literature. In a research studying the psychological symptom frequency of students, somatization, anxiety and obsession symptoms were found higher in female students than male students. In a research conducted by Düzgün (1995) on the psychological symptom frequency of the students in terms of the variables of gender, parent attitudes and socioeconomic states, it was observed that somatization differed based on gender, and that, somatization scores were higher in girls (Özkara, p.34). These results support the findings of the research.

There is a significant negative correlation between positive fatherhood perception and negative self-perception. According to this, negative self- perception decreases as the positive fatherhood perception increases. In literature, there is no research which studies the relationship between fatherhood perception and self-perception. In a research which investigated self-perception with respect to married, conflicted, and divorced parents, it was

found that, the self-perceptions of children of conflicted couples were lower than the self-perceptions of children of divorced couples and the self-perceptions of children of married and compatible couples were higher than the children of divorced couples (YIlmaz, 2001, p. 17). In a research conducted, it was found that, children who received close affection from their fathers were more independent, had more internal control, and had more positive parental perceptions (Şahin, 2012, p.21). Taking this finding into consideration, although it is not certain whether positive fatherhood perception is leading to positive self-perception or whether positive self-perception is leading to positive fatherhood perception, it is certain that, living together and communicating with parents plays an important role in personality development. In this context, it is thought that, positive fatherhood perception of the individuals helps them feel better and have a more positive self-perception.

In this research, significant positive correlations were found between positive fatherhood perception and family, friends' and special person support levels. According to the finding, family, friends' and special person support levels among the perceived social support components increase in parallel with positive fatherhood perception. Hierarchical regression analysis also supports this finding. Interpretation of positive fatherhood perception showed that, family support and special person support significantly contributed to this perception. This finding suggests that higher levels of family support and special support also contribute to positive fatherhood perception. In parallel with this finding, the research conducted by Amato (1987) showed that, children with divorced parents felt less intimate to their father and thus, their perceived paternal support was lower, they had more quarrels with their siblings and their belief in family integrity was lower, as well (Vural, p. 44). According to this it can be said that, when the intimacy with father is low, family support is low, as well. The relationship between fatherhood perception and perceived social support explains the relationship between fatherhood perception and loneliness. When the influence of father on

the socialization of the child is considered, it can be said that, the more positive the father is perceived, the higher the perceived support.

There is a significant negative correlation between total scores of fatherhood scale and loneliness levels. According to the finding, the higher the positive perception of fatherhood is, the lower the level of loneliness of adults. In parallel with this finding, hierarchical regression analysis also showed that low levels of loneliness contributed to higher level of positive fatherhood perception. There are no researches in literature that study fatherhood perception in terms of the loneliness variable. According to the findings of our research, whereas there was no difference between individuals with divorced parents and individuals with non-divorced parents in terms of the levels of loneliness, the positive fatherhood perception differed in terms of the loneliness variable. From these findings it can be concluded that, the father in the family actually represents socialization. It is mentioned in literature that, mothers are mostly responsible for the care of the child, while fathers are play role in the socialization of the child (Telli, 2014, p. 10) Pleck (1987, 1990) describe the father as the person who earn the living in a family (Poyraz, 2007, p. 4). With respect to this, due to the good provider role of the father (Dick, 2005), the father is actually the family's door extending outside. It is the person who is in contact with the outside world that contributes to the socialization of the child. This finding of our research supports this idea. Individuals attribute their loneliness to their bonds with their fathers.

According to the findings of the research, there were significant negative correlations between depression, somatization, negative self-perception and hostility levels and the levels of family, friends' and special person support which are components of perceived social support. The higher the levels of anxiety, depression, somatization, negative self-perception and hostility levels in adults, the lower the level of perceived family, special person and friends' support. Several researches in literature on the perceived social support are also

consistent with the finding of our research. In a research conducted, it was seen that, as the level of family and friends' support decreased, the anxiety of the individual increased (Haskan, 2009, p.49). On the other hand, many researches showed that, there was a significant negative correlation between the levels of depression and social support. According to this, depression increases as perceived social support decreases (İnan, 2012, p.16). In this context, the correlation between mental health and perceived social support components can be explained with individuals' isolating themselves from the society, which is a common factor included in all of these variables. When we consider the concept of mental health, Gisburg (1955) mentions about three parts of our life (Öztuna, 2011, p.33). Business associations, that is, the area where the individual receives friends' support, relationships with the spouse, the support received from the family or special person and finally, the lifestyle the individuals enjoy. When individuals have problems in their mental health, there appear disorders in these areas, as Gisburg says, and individuals tend to isolate themselves from the outside world, and as they isolate, their level of perceived social support get decreased, as well. This idea supports the finding of this research.

According to the findings of the research, there is a significant negative correlation between the level of loneliness and the levels of family, friends' and special person support among components of perceived social support. According to the finding, it can be concluded that, the level of loneliness in adults increases when the levels of perceived family, friends' and special person support decrease. Perlman and Peplau (1984) discussed about the interacting components of loneliness. These are, unable to become a member of a group, negative cognitive experience, feeling that you are not loved by others and having weak relationships in the social environment (Akyol, 2013, p.21). According to this, it can be concluded that, having weak relationships in the social environment, which is one of the components of loneliness, leads to lower level of perceived social support. A number of

studies are available in literature on the correlation between loneliness and perceived social support (Pancar, p. 19, 2009). The research results support the findings of our research. In a research conducted on high school students, students with high level of loneliness were found to have low level of perceived social support (Haskan, p.50). Likewise, when we look at some of the results of the extensive research on loneliness conducted by Demir, we see that that, university students not receiving necessary social support had higher loneliness scores than those who received necessary support, the ones who had fewer close friends had higher loneliness scores than those who had more close friends, and the ones who were not satisfied with their parents' relationship had higher loneliness scores than those who were satisfied (Buluş, 1997, p. 84). These researches also support the finding that there is a negative correlation between the level of loneliness of individuals and the level of their perceived social support.

According to the findings of the study, when the dual correlations between the positive fatherhood perception and predictor variables in hierarchical multiple regression analysis, it was found, fatherhood perception was positively correlated with parental marital status, family support, special person support, friends' support and negatively correlated with loneliness, negative self-perception and hostility.

When the findings obtained within the scope of this research were fully evaluated, a significant difference was found between the fatherhood perceptions of adults with divorced parents and those with non-divorced parents. Adults with divorced parents were found to have lower levels of positive fatherhood perception compared to the other group. There was a significant difference between the two groups in terms of the level of family support, which is among the perceived social support components. There was no significant difference between the groups in terms of the levels of anxiety, depression, negative self-perception, somatization, hostility and loneliness. When we evaluated the parental marital status variable,

we found, there was a significant positive correlation between the total scores of fatherhood perception and the level of perceived family support. No significant correlations were found between parental marital status and anxiety, depression, negative self-perception, somatization, hostility, friends' and special person support and loneliness. Considering the fatherhood perception, we found a significant negative correlation between the levels of negative self-perception and loneliness and a significant positive correlation between the levels of family, friends' and special person support Parental marital status variable was found to be positively contributing to positive fatherhood perception. This finding suggests that, those with non-divorced parents have a higher level of positive fatherhood perception.

5. Conclusion

Evaluation of the results of the first research hypothesis concerning whether the levels of fatherhood perception, social support, loneliness and mental health of the individuals differed depending on the parental marital status showed that, there were differences between the individuals with divorced parents and those with non-divorced parents in terms of the scores of positive engagement, positive emotions responsiveness, gender father role, moral father role, good provider role, paternal accessibility, androgynous role and responsible paternal engagement, which are the subscales of the fatherhood scale. When we evaluated the subscale score means of negative engagement, we saw that, there was no difference between the negative engagement scores of adults with divorced parents and those with non-divorced parents. Whereas the divorce of parents presented a significant difference in terms of positive engagement of the adult child, it presented no significant difference in terms of the negative engagement. According to the findings of the research, there was no significant difference between the adults with divorced parents and those with non-divorced parents in terms of the levels of anxiety, depression, negative self-perception, somatization, hostility and loneliness. When we evaluated the adults with divorced parents and those with non-divorced parents in terms of the level of family support which is among the social support components, we saw that, there was a difference between the two groups. While there was a difference between the adults with non-divorced parents in terms of family support scores, there was no difference in terms of the special person support and friends' support.

Evaluation of the results of the second research hypothesis concerning whether the fatherhood perceptions of adults with divorced parents differed depending on the remarriage, the age of the participant at the time of divorce, the frequency they meet the parent living away and whom they stayed with after divorce showed that, positive fatherhood perception of the adult changed only in terms of the variable "whom they stayed with after divorce', and

that, the difference was found to be arising from the scores "never" and "once a week". As a result, positive fatherhood perception of the adult children was found to be higher when they met the parent living away once a week than those who never met. It was found that, positive fatherhood perception did not differ in terms of the variable "remarriage of parents after divorce, the age of the participant at the time of divorce and whom they stayed with after divorce'.

Evaluation of the results of the third research hypothesis concerning the correlations between gender, parental marital status, fatherhood perception, social support, loneliness and mental showed that, parental marital status had no significant correlation with the levels of anxiety, depression, negative self-perception, somatization, hostility and loneliness. A significant positive correlation was found between parental marital status and family support level. A significant negative correlation was found between gender and somatization. Somatization scores of women were found to be higher than men. Fatherhood perception was found to have a significant positive correlation with parental marital status. Fatherhood perception was found to have a significant negative correlation with negative self-perception. According to this, as positive fatherhood perception increased, negative self-perception decreased. Fatherhood perception was found to have a significant positive correlation with the levels of family, friends' and special person support. According to this, as positive fatherhood perception increased, family, friends' and special person support among the social support components increased, as well. Fatherhood perception was found to have a significant negative correlation with the level of loneliness. According to this, as positive fatherhood perception increased, the level of loneliness in adults decreased. The research findings showed that, there were significant negative correlations between the levels of anxiety, depression, somatization, negative self-perception and hostility and the levels of family, friends' and special person support among the components of perceived social support. The

research findings showed that, there were significant negative correlations between the level of loneliness and the levels of family, friends' and special person support among the components of perceived social support. It was found that, the levels of perceived family, friends' and special person support decreased as the level loneliness in adults increased.

Evaluation of the results of the fourth and final research hypothesis concerning the effects of age, gender, parental marital status, social support, loneliness and mental health on fatherhood showed that, parental marital status variable positively contributed to positive fatherhood perception. This finding suggests that, those with non- divorced parents have a higher level of positive fatherhood perception. According to other findings, family and special person support and loneliness contribute to positive fatherhood perception. On the other hand, anxiety, depression, negative self-perception, somatization, and hostility variables did not contribute significantly to positive fatherhood perception.

6. Limitations of the Research

• The sample group of the research consisted of participants living in the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. Therefore, the results of the research cannot be generalized to every society.

• The difficulty of accessing to the sample groups of adults with divorced parents and the unwillingness of the participants led to the inability to reach the planned number of samples.

• Self-reported scales were used in this research. Fatherhood perceptions, social support, loneliness and mental health data of the participants are limited to results measures through the scales.

• In the research, there was no limitation on the year of divorce of parents. There is no evaluation of concerning the differences in fatherhood perception in terms of the time that passed after divorce.

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APANDICES

APENDIX 1. INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Elinizde bulunan bu anket formu Yakındoğu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Uygulamalı (Klinik) Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans programı tarafından yürüttürülmekte olup, KKTC'de yaşayan ebeveyninde boşanma öyküsü olan yetişkinler üzerine yapılan, bilimsel bir çalışmanın parçasıdır.

Araştırmaya katılım tamamen **gönüllülük esasına** dayanmaktadır. Kişiler çalışmaya katılmama veya çalışmanın herhangi bir evresinde geri çekilme hakkına sahiptir. Çalışmanın amacına ulaşabilmesi için katılımcılardan beklenen **tüm soruların** eksiksiz bir şekilde cevaplanmasıdır. Doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur, dolayısıyla kişilere en uygun gelen şıkkın işaretlenmesi beklenmektedir. Elde edilecek tüm bilgiler araştırma amaçlı kullanılacak olup kişisel bilgiler **gizli tutulacaktır.** Bu araştırma tamamen bilimsel amaçlarla yapılmaktadır. Bu araştırmanın uygulama sırasında veya sonrasında herhangi bir problemle karşılaşırsanız lütfen uygulamacıya bildiriniz.

Lütfen bütün soruları dikkatlice okuyup cevaplandırınız. Lütfen hiçbir maddeyi boş bırakmayınız.

Katılımınız için teşekkür ederim.

<div align="right">

Psk. Sacide Şahin

Email: sacidesahin@gmail.com

</div>

Bu formu okuyup onaylamanız araştırmaya katılmayı gönüllü olarak kabul ettiğiniz anlamına gelmektedir.

Yukarıda yer alan ve araştırmadan önce katılımcılara verilmesi gereken bilgileri okudum ve çalışmanın amacını anladım. Çalışma hakkında gerekli sözlü ve yazılı açıklamalara sahibim. Kişisel bilgilerimin korunacağına ve gizli tutulacağına dair yeterli güven verildi. Çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

İmza:

APENDİX 2

KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU

1) Cinsiyetiniz

( ) Kız

( ) Erkek

2) Uyruğunuz ....

3) Yaşınız ....

4) Medeni Durumunuz ....

5) Annenizin Mesleği ....

6) Babanızın Mesleği ....

7) Anneniz ve babanız boşandığında kaç yaşındaydınız? ....

8) Ebeveynleriniz boşandıktan sonra kiminle birlikte kaldınız? ....

9) Evden ayrılan annenizi ya da babanızı ne kadar sıklıkla görüyorsunuz?

( ) Her gün görüyorum

( ) Haftada bir kez görüyorum

( ) İki haftada bir görüyorum

( ) Ayda bir görüyorum

( ) Yılda bir kaç kez görüyorum

( ) Hiç Görmüyorum

( ) Diğer (..)

10) Boşanmadan sonra anneniz ya da babanız yeniden evlendi mi?

( ) Babam yeniden evlendi

( ) Annem yeniden evlendi

( ) İkisi de yeniden evlendi

( ) İkisi de evlenmedi

APENDİX 3

BABALIK ÖLÇEĞİ

Yönerge: Çocukluk ve ergenlik döneminde babanızla ilişkiniz hakkında düşününüz. Onun hakkında düşünerek, her sorunun önündeki çizgiye 1 ve 5 arasında bir sayı vererek her soruyu cevaplayınız. Babanız veya büyürken babanız olarak nitelendirdiğiniz kişiyle ilişkinize ait algılarınızı en iyi yansıtan sayıyı seçenekler arasından seçiniz.

	Hiçbirzaman (1)	Nadiren (2)	Bazen (3)	Sıksık (4)	Daima (5)
1-Babam ödevlerime yardım ederdi.					
2-Babam benimle kişisel problemlerim hakkında konuşurdu.					
3- Babam beni etkinliklere götürürdü.					
4- Babam beni sevdiğini söylerdi.					
5-Babam bana iyi bir kız/oğlan olduğumu söylerdi.					
6-Babam değer veren bir insandı.					
7-Babam okul konferanslarına katılırdı.					
8-Çocukluğumda babama kendimi yakın hissederdim.					
9-Ergenlik dönemimde babam ve ben birlikte bir şeyler yapardık.					
10-Babam benimle vakit geçirmekten hoşlanırdı.					
11-Babam popoma vururdu.					
12-Ergenlik dönemimde babama yakın hissederdim.					
13-Babam anneme vurdu.					
14-Babamın beni önemsediğini biliyorum					
15-Babam çocukken benden utanırdı.					
16- Babam birisi bana sataştığında kavga etmeyi öğretti					
17-Babam giysi ve oyuncak gibi ihtiyacım olan şeyleri sağlardı.					
18-Babam çocukken bana kitap okurdu.					
19-Babam maddi olarak bize iyi imkan sağlardı.					
20-Babam duygularımı inciten şeyler söylerdi					
21-Babam hissettiğimi söylemem için beni cesaretlendirirdi.					
22-Babam okulda yaptıklarımla ilgilenirdi.					
23-Babam bana sarılırdı.					
24-Babam iyi bir adamdı.					

25-Başım derde girdiğinde, babam beni fiziksel olarak cezalandırırdı.					
26-Babam bana doğruyu yanlıştan ayırmayı öğretti.					
27-Babamın annemi dövdüğünü gördüm.					
28-Babamı ağlarken gördüm.					
29-Babam ailenin ekmeğini kazanan kişiydi.					
30-Babam problemlerimi çözmemde bana yardım etti.					
31-Babamla her şey hakkında konuşabilirdim.					
32-Babam benimle camiye(kiliseye) gitti.					
33-Babamla spor yaptığımızı hatırlarım.					
34-Babam anneme evi temizlemesinde yardım ederdi.					
35-Babam Kendimi Kötü hissettiğim zaman beni rahatlattı.					
36-Ben büyürken babamın daima bir işi vardı.					
37-Babam bana kendimi özel hissettirdi.					
38-Sinirlendiğim zaman babamla olanlar hakkında konuşurdum.					
39-Babam ve ben birlikte iyi zaman geçirirdik.					
40- Babam bana karşı sevgi doluydu.					
41-Babam tarafından istismara uğradım.					
42-Babam benimle cinsellik hakkında konuştu.					
43-Babam yemekte şükrederdi.					
44-Çocukken eğer bir şeyi yanlış yaparsam babam bana bağırırdı.					
45-Babama karşı sıcak duygularım vardır.					
46-Babam dünyada olan bitenle ilgili benimle konuşurdu.					
47-Babam bana adam olmanın nasıl bir şey olduğunu öğretti.					
48-Babam benim oynadığım spor faaliyetlerine gelirdi.					
49-Babam ve ben birlikte iyi zaman geçirirdik.					
50-Babam bana önemli değerler aşıladı.					
51-Babam beni doktora götürdü.					
52-Babam kibar bir adamdır.					
53-Babam beni anlardı.					
54-Babama onu sevdiğimi söyledim.					
55-İhtiyacım olduğu zaman babam etrafımdaydı.					
56-Babam beni döverdi.					
57-Babam kaba bir adamdır.					
58-Babam öfkelenir ve benden hoşlanmadığını söylerdi.					
59-Babam katıldığım okul etkinliklerine gelirdi.					
60-Babam benimle Allah hakkında konuşurdu.					
61-Babam-incindiğim zaman bana ilgi gösterirdi.					
62-Babamın kardeşlerimden birine vurduğunu gördüm.					
63-Babam yemek yapardı.					

APENDIX 4

KISA SEMPTOM ENVANTERİ

Aşağıda, zaman zaman herkeste olabilecek yakınmaların ve sorunların listesi verilmiştir. Lütfen her bir durumu dikkatle okuyunuz. Sonra bu durumun bugünde dahil olmak üzere son bir ay içerisinde sizi ne ölçüde huzursuz ve tedirgin ettiğini uygun seçeneğin altına çarpı işareti koyarak (X) işaretleyin.

		Hiç yok	Çok az var	Orta derece de var	Epeyce fazla var	Çok fazla var
1	İçinizdeki sinirlilik ve titreme hali	0	1	2	3	4
2	Baygınlık, baş dönmesi	0	1	2	3	4
3	Bir başka kişinin sizin düşüncelerinizi kontrol edeceği fikri	0	1	2	3	4
4	Başınıza gelen sıkıntılardan dolayı başkalarının suçlu olduğu duygusu	0	1	2	3	4
5	Olayları hatırlamada güçlük	0	1	2	3	4
6	Çok kolayca kızıp öfkelenme	0	1	2	3	4
7	Göğüs (kalp) bölgesinde ağrılar	0	1	2	3	4
8	Meydanlık (açık) yerlerden korkma duygusu.	0	1	2	3	4
9	Yaşamınıza son verme düşüncesi.	0	1	2	3	4
10	İnsanların çoğuna güvenilemeyeceği hissi.	0	1	2	3	4
11	İştahta bozukluklar.	0	1	2	3	4
12	Hiçbir nedeni olmayan ani korkular.	0	1	2	3	4
13	Kontrol edemediğiniz duygu patlamaları.	0	1	2	3	4
14	Başka insanlarla beraberken bile yalnızlık hissetme.	0	1	2	3	4
15	İşleri bitirme konusunda kendini engellenmiş hissetme.	0	1	2	3	4
16	Yalnızlık hissetme.	0	1	2	3	4
17	Hüzünlü, kederli hissetme.	0	1	2	3	4
18	Hiçbir şeye ilgi duymamak.	0	1	2	3	4
19	Kendini ağlamaklı hissetme.	0	1	2	3	4
20	Kolayca incinebilme, kırılma.	0	1	2	3	4
21	İnsanların sizi sevmediğine, size kötü davrandığına inanma.	0	1	2	3	4
22	Kendini diğer insanlardan daha aşağı görmek.	0	1	2	3	4
23	Mide bozukluğu,bulantı.	0	1	2	3	4
24	Diğer insanların sizi gözlediği ya da hakkınızda konuştuğu duygusu.	0	1	2	3	4
25	Uykuya dalmada güçlük.	0	1	2	3	4
26	Yaptığınız şeyleri tekrar tekrar doğru mu diye kontrol etmek.	0	1	2	3	4
27	Karar vermede güçlükler.	0	1	2	3	4
28	Otobüs, tren, metro gibi umumi vasıtalarla seyahatlerden korkma.	0	1	2	3	4
29	Nefes darlığı, nefessiz kalma.	0	1	2	3	4
30	Sıcak, soğuk basmaları.	0	1	2	3	4

31	Sizi korkuttuğu için bazı eşya yer ya da etkinliklerden uzak kalmaya çalışmak.	0	1	2	3	4
32	Kafanızın/zihninizin bomboş kalması.	0	1	2	3	4
33	Bedeninizin bazı bölgelerinde uyuşmalar, karıncalanmalar.	0	1	2	3	4
34	Hatalarınız için cezalandırılmanız gerektiği düşüncesi.	0	1	2	3	4
35	Gelecekle ilgili umutsuzluk duyguları.	0	1	2	3	4
36	Dikkati bir şey üzerine toplamada güçlük.	0	1	2	3	4
37	Bedenin bazı bölgelerinde zayıflık, güçsüzlük hissi.	0	1	2	3	4
38	Kendini gergin ve tedirgin hissetme.	0	1	2	3	4
39	Ölme ve ölüm üzerine düşünceler.	0	1	2	3	4
40	Birini dövme, ona zarar verme yaralama isteği.	0	1	2	3	4
41	Bir şeyleri kırma, dökme isteği.	0	1	2	3	4
42	Diğer insanların yanında iken yanlış bir şey yapmamaya çalışmak.	0	1	2	3	4
43	Kalabalıklardan rahatsızlık duymak.	0	1	2	3	4
44	Başka insanlara hiç yakınlık duymamak.	0	1	2	3	4
45	Dehşet ve panik nöbetleri.	0	1	2	3	4
46	Sık sık tartışmaya girmek.	0	1	2	3	4
47	Yalnız kalındığında sinirlilik hissetme.	0	1	2	3	4
48	Başarılarınıza rağmen diğer insanlardan yeterince takdir görmemek.	0	1	2	3	4
49	Kendini yerinde duramayacak kadar tedirginlik hissetmek.	0	1	2	3	4
50	Kendini değersiz görme duygusu.	0	1	2	3	4
51	Eğer izin verirseniz insanların sizi sömüreceği duygusu.	0	1	2	3	4
52	Suçluluk duyguları.	0	1	2	3	4
53	Aklınızda bir bozukluk olduğu fikri.	0	1	2	3	4

APENDIX 5

ÇOK BOYUTLU ALGILANILAN SOSYAL DESTEK ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda 12 cümle ve her bir cümle altında da cevaplarınızı işaretlemeniz için 1'den 7'ye kadar rakamlar verilmiştir. Her cümlede söylenenin sizin için ne kadar çok doğru olduğunu veya olmadığını belirtmek için o cümle altındaki rakamlardan yalnız bir tanesini daire içine alarak işaretleyiniz. Bu şekilde 12 cümlenin her birine bir işaret koyarak cevaplarınızı veriniz. Lütfen hiçbir cümleyi cevapsız bırakmayınız. Sizce doğruya en yakın olan rakamı işaretleyiniz.

	Kesinlikle hayır						Kesinlikle evet
1. Ailem ve arkadaşlarım dışında olan ve ihtiyacım olduğunda yanımda olan bir insan var (örneğin, flört, nişanlı, sözlü, akraba, komşu, doktor).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Ailem ve arkadaşlarım dışında olan ve sevinç ve kederlerimi paylaşabileceğim bir insan var (örneğin, flört, nişanlı, sözlü, akraba, komşu, doktor).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Ailem (örneğin, annem, babam, eşim, çocuklarım, kardeşlerim) bana gerçekten yardımcı olmaya çalışır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. İhtiyacım olan duygusal yardımı ve desteği ailemden alırım (örneğin, annemden, babamdan, eşimden, çocuklarımdan, kardeşlerimden).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Ailem ve arkadaşlarım dışında olan ve beni gerçekten rahatlatan bir insan (örneğin, flört, nişanlı, sözlü, akraba, komşu, doktor) var.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Arkadaşlarım bana gerçekten yardımcı olmaya çalışırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. İşler kötü gittiğinde arkadaşlarıma güvenebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Sorunlarımı ailemle konuşabilirim (örneğin, annemle, babamla, eşimle, çocuklarımla, kardeşlerimle).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Sevinç ve kederlerimi paylaşabileceğim arkadaşlarım var.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Ailem ve arkadaşlarım dışında olan ve duygularıma önem veren bir insan var (örneğin, flört, nişanlı, sözlü, akraba, komşu, doktor).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Kararlarımı vermede ailem (örneğin, annem, babam, eşim, çocuklarım, kardeşlerim) bana yardımcı olmaya isteklidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Sorunlarım› arkadaşlarımla konuşabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APENDİX 6

UCLA YALNIZLIK ÖLÇEĞİ

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

	Ben bu durumu HİÇ Yaşamadım	Ben bu durumu NADİREN Yaşarım	Ben bu durumu BAZAN Yaşarım	Ben bu durumu SIK SIK Yaşarım
1. Kendimi çevremdeki insanlarla uyum içinde hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4
2. Arkadaşım yok.	1	2	3	4
3. Başvurabileceğim hiç kimse yok.	1	2	3	4
4. Kendimi tek başınaymışım gibi hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4
5. Kendimi bir arkadaş grubunun bir parçası olarak hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4
6. Çevremdeki insanlarla bir ortak yönüm var.	1	2	3	4
7. Artık hiç kimseyle samimi değilim.	1	2	3	4
8. İlgilerim ve fikirlerim çevremdekilerce paylaşılmıyor.	1	2	3	4
9. Dışa dönük bir insanım.	1	2	3	4
10. Kendime yakın hissettiğim insanlar var.	1	2	3	4
11. Kendimi grubun dışına itilmiş hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4
12. Sosyal ilişkilerim yüzeyseldir.	1	2	3	4
13. Hiç kimse beni gerçekten iyi tanımıyor.	1	2	3	4
14. Kendimi diğer insanlardan soyutlanmış hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4
15. İstediğim zaman arkadaş bulabilirim.	1	2	3	4
16. Beni gerçekten anlayan insanlar var.	1	2	3	4
17. Bu derece içime kapanmış olmaktan dolayı mutsuzum.	1	2	3	4
18. Çevremde insanlar var ama benimle değiller.	1	2	3	4
19. Konuşabileceğim insanlar var.	1	2	3	4
20. Derdimi anlatabileceğim insanlar var.	1	2	3	4

Sacide Şahin

DAİMİ ADRES

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KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

DoğumTarihi : 25 Ağustos 1985

DoğumYeri   : Malatya

EĞİTİM

2014 – 2017 **Yakın Doğu Üniversitesi, KKTC**

Klinik (Uygulamalı)Psikoloji Master Programı

2005- 2010 **Yakın Doğu Üniversitesi, KKTC**

Psikoloji Bölümü

(Genel Ortalama: 3.15)

Favori Dersler

- Gelişim Psikolojisi

- Sosyal Psikoloji

- Klinik Psikolojisi

Projeler

- Bankacıların tükenmişlik düzeyleri araştırması

- Çok yönlü ilişkilerde kıskançlık ölçeği araştırması

2002-2003 **Kaynarca İmam HatipLisesi**

(Genel Ortalama:4.96 Okul Birincisi)

1999-2002 **Bursa İmam HatipLisesi**

İşTecrübesi

Mart-Mayıs/2016   Yakın Doğu Üniversite Hastanesi

- Klinik Stajı (90 gün)

Mayıs 2012-Temmuz 2014   İstanbul Büyükşehir Belediyesi Engelliler Müdürlüğü

- Psikolog-Birim Müdürü

Eylul 2010 –Aralık 2011   AybebeGündüzBakımeviveÇocukKulubü

- Sorumlu Psikolog Müdür

Temmuz-Ağustos/2009   NP İstanbul Hastanesi (15 Gün)

Temmuz-Ağustos/2009   Bakırköy Ruh ve Sinir Hastalıkları Hastanesi (15 Gün

- Klinik Stajı

Temmuz-Ağustos/2008   Pendik Belediye Kreşi (30 Gün)

- Gelişim Stajı

Yetenekler
Dil

- Orta seviye ingilizce

DiğerBilgiler
Sertifikalar

- WISC-R (Weshler Çocuklar için Zeka Ölçeği) (Türk Psikologlar Derneği'nden 54 Saatlik 28 Mart – 07 Nisan)

- Rorschach Butunleyici Sistem Test Egitimi (30 saatlik) (12 Ocak - 16 Mart 2011) (Türk Psikologlar Dernegi'nden)

- Çocuk Değerlendirme Testleri(AGTE, DENVER ll , BENDER GESTALT, BENTON, FROSTİG, GESSEL, GOODENOUGH, PORTEUS VE CATTEL 2A , PEABODY KELİME TARAMA, METROPOLİTAN OKUL OLGUNLUĞU TESTLERİ)

- 13. UlusalPsikolojiÖğrenciKongresi (Hacettepe Ü./Ankara) katılımcı sertifikası

- 11. UlusalPsikoloji Öğrenci Kongresi (Yakın Doğu Ü./ Lefkoşa) katılımcı sertifikası

- Madde Bağımlılığı Danışmanlık Sertifikası Eğitimi 1. Kur sertifikası

Kişisel Beceriler

- Sorumlu
- Gayretli
- Liderlik
- Güçlü iletişim

Sosyal Aktiviteler

- Yemek yapmak
- Müzik dinlemek, Kitap okumak
- Eğitim Programları
- Sivil toplum derneği yönetim kurulu üyeliği (faalolarak 5 yıl)
- Sivil toplum derneği başkanlığı (1 yıl)