

YAŞAR UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
PSYCHOLOGY PROGRAMME

MASTER THESIS

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN UNIVERSITY
ADJUSTMENT, ATTACHMENT STYLE,
PERSONALITY, AND PERCEIVED STRESS**

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2017,İZMİR.

MASTER THESIS JURY APPROVAL FORM

I certify that I have read this thesis and that in my opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the Master degree.

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ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my supervisor Assist. Prof. Dr. Berrin Özyurt for her guidance, patience and motivational help during this study. She was more than a supervisor for me at all points of this thesis.

I also want to thank Burcu TÜĞEN, the Prep Class Coordinator of Foreign Language School and all the supervisors working at School of Foreign Languages, for their genuine help during freshmen participant finding and application of the instruments. In addition, of course, all of the freshmen participants for their support and time although they had to struggle with many things during their first year in Yaşar University.

What is more, I appreciate Ilgın BAŞARAN, Trevor John HOPE, Evrim IŞIK and other academicians whose names I could not remember right now, for their support during my study.

My beloved over 10-year friends; Semih and Çağla. I know, I whined about this study many times, but hey, it is finally over! You are a kind of family for me guys, I enjoyed all the times spent together and I will enjoy it for sure. Maybe our children will be good friends too, ha. Having children? Haha, just kidding.

Moreover, my precious family... I am grateful to my mother because of being that much a strong and independent woman. She was always there for me, and this study is a result of her hard work. I know, she will support all further studies of mine and patiently deal with all emotional breakdowns throughout these studies.

May the force be with you Mom!

Ayşe Iraz KURAL

İzmir, 2017

TEXT OF OATH

I declare and honestly confirm that my study, titled “THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN UNIVERSITY ADJUSTMENT, PERSONALITY, ATTACHMENT AND PERCEIVED STRESS” and presented as a Master’s Thesis, had been written without applying to any assistance inconsistent with scientific ethics and traditions. I declare, to the best of my knowledge and belief, that all content and ideas drawn directly or indirectly from external sources are indicated in the text and listed in the list of references.

Ayşe Iraz KURAL

.....

July 4, 2017



ABSTRACT

The Relationship between, University Adjustment, Attachment Style, Personality and
Perceived Stress

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2017

Attachment styles are considered moderately stable over the lifetime. Significant life events like developmental transitions or traumatic event might result in different levels of perceived stress, which in turn might affect the stability of attachment. Beginning to college, in other terms being a college freshman is one of these transitions, and it causes significant stress for each student. However, reaction to this kind of stressors changes according to individual variables like perceived stress, personality and attachment styles. Also, the link between perceived stress and personality types is well known. Some students, with a significant type of adult attachment style and a personality trait, might experience more changes within their perceived stress levels and adjust better/worse to university than others during the first year of the college. Whether the levels of change patterns of perceived stress among university freshmen are associated with their attachment styles and their personalities and whether these relationships are more significant for some of them have been examined in this study. What is more, the possibility of a relationship between changes in perceived stress and University adjustment was searched. For this purpose, a longitudinal study with two application points (October in Fall semester, April in Spring semester) was run, and a sample of 277 freshmen, which decreased to 147 by the end of spring term applications, whose ages ranging from 18 to 25 have participated in the study. All 147 participants have completed the set of scales that includes; Experience in Close Relationships Inventory

perceived stress Inventory, Adaptation to University Life Inventory, Relationship Questionnaire and Basic Personality Traits Inventory, both in fall and spring semester. Means of each semester showed that students' perceived stress levels and anxiety levels increased from fall to spring, whereas their avoidance levels and adjustment levels decreased. Multiple Regression Analyses have shown that changes in adjustment scores are predicted by perceived stress changes and changes in attachment dimensions, while only extraversion and openness to experience were the significant predictors regarding personality traits. Students' attachment styles were found to show moderate stability, where nearly half of them changed from fall to spring, and these changes were predicted by changes in perceived stress levels, where an increase in perceived stress caused a secure to insecure change pattern whereas decrease in perceived stress resulted in an insecure to secure change pattern. Also, decreasing perceived stress or anxiety and avoidance levels predicted an improved adjustment to university.

Key Words: Adult attachment, Perceived Stress, Personality, University Adaptation

ÖZ

Üniversiteye Uyum, Kişilik, Bağlanma Stilleri ve Algılanan Stres Arasındaki

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Bağlanma stillerinin yaşam boyunca orta derecede dengeli olduğu kabul edilir. Gelişimsel geçişler veya travmatik deneyimler gibi önemli yaşam olayları, farklı düzeylerde stress algısına neden olabilir ve bu da bağlanma'nın istikrarını etkileyebilir. Üniversiteye başlamak, diğer bir deyişle üniversite öğrencisi olmak, söz konusu gelişimsel geçişlerden biridir ve her öğrencide önemli derecede strese neden olur. Bununla birlikte, bu tür stres faktörlerine verilen tepkiler algılanan stres, kişilik ve bağlanma stilleri gibi bireysel değişkenlere göre değişiklik gösterir. Ayrıca algılanan stres ve kişilik türleri arasındaki bağlantı iyi bilinmektedir. Belli bir yetişkin bağlanma stiline ve kişilik özelliğine sahip bazı öğrenciler, algılanan stres düzeyleri açısından daha fazla değişiklik yaşayabilirler ve bu durum üniversitenin ilk yılında üniversiteye uyum düzeylerini daha iyileştirebilir/ kötüleştirir. Bu çalışmada, üniversite öğrencileri arasında algılanan stres değişim kalıplarının bağlanma stilleri ve kişilik özellikleri ile ilişkili olup olmadığı ve bu ilişkilerin bazıları için daha belirgin olup olmadığı incelenmiştir. Dahası, algılanan stres ve üniversiteye uyum seviyelerindeki değişiklikler arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığı araştırılmıştır. Bu amaçla, iki uygulama noktası ile (güz dönemi ekim ayı, bahar dönemi nisan ayı olmak üzere) uzunlamasına bir çalışma yürütülmüştür ve yaşları 18-25 arasında değişen, bahar dönemi uygulaması sonucunda sayıları 147'ye düşen 277 üniversiteye yeni başlamış öğrenci çalışmaya katılmıştır. 147 katılımcının tamamı hem sonbahar hem de bahar döneminde şu ölçek setlerini tamamlamıştır; Yakın İlişkilerde Deneyim Envanter, Algılanan Stres Envanteri, Üniversite Yaşam Envanterine Uyum, İlişki Anketi ve Temel Kişilik Özellikleri Envanteri. Her iki dönemde de uygulanan testler, öğrencilerin algılanan stress düzeyleri ve anksiyete düzeylerinin düşmeden ilkbahara doğru arttığını, bununla birlikte kaçınma

düzeyleri ve endişe düzeylerinin azaldığını göstermiştir. Çoklu Regresyon Analizi sonuçları, üniversiteye uyum puanlarında gözlemlenen değişikliklerin, algılanan stres seviyelerindeki değişimler ve bağlanma stillerinde gözlemlenen değişimler ile kişilik özellikleri açısından sadece dışa dönüklük ve deneyime açıklık tarafından yordandığını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Öğrencilerin bağlanma stillerinin orta dereceli bir istikrar gösterdiği, katılımcıların neredeyse yarısının bağlanma stillerinin sonbahar döneminden bahar dönemine değiştiği ve söz konusu değişikliklerin algılanan stres düzeylerindeki değişimler ile yordandığı bulunmuştur. Algılanan stres düzeylerindeki artışın güvenli bağlanma stilinden güvensiz bağlanma stillerinden birine gerçekleşen değişimi açıkladığı bulunurken, azalmanın ise güvensiz bağlanma stillerinden güvenli bağlanma stiline doğru gerçekleşen değişimi açıkladığı ortaya çıkarılmıştır. Ayrıca, algılanan stres düzeylerindeki düşüş ile kaçınma ve kaygı bağlanma boyutlarındaki azalmanın üniversiteye daha iyi bir uyum örgüsünü yordadığı gözlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Yetişkin Bağlanma Stilleri, Algılanan Stres, Kişilik, Üniversiteye Uyum

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

According to Evolutionary Perspective, attachment system promotes survival, such as every infant has an attachment behavior set to elicit care from the caregiver because it cannot live by itself. Danger, illnesses, fear, poverty, etc. foster attachment system and make human beings to attach (Bowlby, 1982). Attachment styles are the working models, and they form adult attachment styles, which even make us predict how an individual would handle with stressful situations by simply reading his / her attachment type related behavior patterns. Scharfe and Bartholomew (1994) suggested that the mechanisms of attachment would be best examined in a sample group who are living in a high-risk environment or facing a common stressful life event. Differences in adult attachment styles are pronounced mostly under stressful conditions (Feeney & Noller, 1996). Each milestone in a life span is assumed to have stress triggering structure. These milestones generally relate to developmental stages like transition periods from childhood to adolescence, adolescence to early adulthood, and early adulthood to late adulthood. All these age-related developmental milestones have their significant events. Beginning to the university is one of the important events of the transition period from adolescence to early adulthood. This significant event has many stressful compounds; leaving one's own hometown/separation, living on one's own, controlling the budget, taking all relevant decisions, taking more responsibility, trying to adapt new environment while trying to master classes. While stress associated with adjustment, Attachment styles and personality are other factors that affect this process. These factors found to be related to each other.

Generally college life is associated with the process of 'strange situation' which is used to assess attachment behaviors in infancy as separation from caregivers in a novel environment, dealing with novel physical and social environments without older attachment figures while maintaining new social and romantic attachments

(Kenny, 1987, 1990; Lapsey, Varshney, & Aalsma, 2000; Rice, FitzGerald, Whaley, & Gibbs, 1995). Coping ability with normative stressors like 'leaving home' or 'adaptation to college' is affected by adult attachment security (Mayseless, Danieli, & Sharabany, 1996). Beginning to university is one of the most stressful life events because of going to young adulthood, changing in family relations and perceived support from them, adapting to an entirely new environment. Learning how to be an independent adult, standing on their own feet, managing finances, and taking care of a variety of basic needs that parents used to are some developmental tasks of young adolescents (Baker, McNeil, & Siryk, 1985; Fassig, 2003). Transition to college might challenge emotional adjustment and social competence abilities even just because of the stress factors. Attachment styles have a significant effect on these two factors. The ability to adjust, blend in well, positively correlates with the attachment security (Mattanah, Hancock, & Brand, 2004). Wintre & Yaffe (2000) indicated that students demonstrating low levels of fear of individuation or insecure attachment are less likely to demonstrate negative emotions, which could lead to better physical and psychological adjustment to college life. Insecurely attached individuals with higher levels of agreeableness are more ready to engage in social interactions and experience trust, and sensitivity, despite their insecurity and higher adjustment levels. Because of a combination of self-regulation and persistence in conscientiousness (Bieling, Israeli, & Antony, 2004; Crawford, Shaver, & Goldsmith, 2007; Hill, McIntire, & Bachrach, 1997) insecurely attached individuals buffers and diminishes adjustment related anxiety.

Although every student assumed to experience some stress during this transaction period, perceived level of stress shows differences from individual to individual. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1987), personal appraisals of an event and types of resources for coping this event produces stress. At this point, personality takes the role and shapes perceptions and coping behaviors. While an ordinary/daily stressor might be perceived as a significant threat by Neurotics, transition-related high levels stressors might be viewed as small threats by Extroverts, differences in these appraisals lead to different coping strategies; emotional or rational. Higher levels of Neuroticism and lower levels of Agreeableness and Conscientiousness related with the high levels of escape-avoidance coping style and low levels of planned problem solving or positive reappraisal, which leads to worsening adjustment process (Quirk & McCormick, 1998). The increase in conscientiousness

is associated with the use of active, problem-focused coping, goal focusing and positive appraisals (Watson & Hubbard, 1996), which leads to better academic adjustment. Developing an insecure attachment style, including avoidant and anxious ones shows a positive correlation with distress (Buelow, McClain, & McIntosh, 1996). Bakker, Van Oudenhoven & Van Der Zee (2004), stated that attachment anxiety was found moderately to strongly related to neuroticism. On the other hand, attachment avoidance was negatively related to extraversion. Adults with a predominantly anxious attachment style experience more personal stress than adults with an essentially secure attachment style (Mauder, Lancee, Nolan, Hunter, & Tannenbaum, 2006).

1.2. Significance of the Study

The results of the present study are expected to enlighten the relations between the adult attachment styles, personality traits, perceived stress and University adjustment levels of freshmen. Changes in perceived stress levels through the first year of the college will be clarified and their associations with personality types, attachment styles will be explained. The contribution of these factors to adaptation will also be discussed, and as a result, personal reasons for insufficient adjustment can be concluded. As it is known that appraisals lead to coping behaviors when faced with a stressor, in this study, significant perception patterns will be found, and they will be tried to associate with university adjustment. These before mentioned patterns and associations are important because while many of the adjustment studies were studied through coping strategies; in the present study, the leading factor behind these coping strategies, perceptions, will be assessed. Moreover, perceived stress will be explored through the natural flow of life, not when faced with a psychopathological problem or not by inducing an external stressor.

Personality inventory will be the one, which was developed within Turkish culture, this might help to make comparisons with the findings in other cultures, and with the literature, (whether it shows the same pattern when associated with attachment styles or not, etc.). Attachment styles will be assessed within two assessment points (fall and spring semesters), and stability/change patterns will be tried to be associated with different adaptation and perceived stress levels. Since there are findings that adult attachment style differences might explain substantial

variation in the adjustment process, there is not any study on whether stability or change in adult attachment styles corresponds to the evolution of adjustment processes within Turkey. Thus, a closer examination of change patterns across the adjustment indicators might show how instability in students' adult attachment styles affects the pattern of this transition. Also, whether patterns of stability and change in the adult attachment styles during the university transition significantly relates to corresponding changes in students' perceived stress levels or not, which might be in fact the reason for these attachment style changes, has not been studied in a Turkish sample. The present study will allow a cultural comparison with the similar studies on this issue, too.



CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Attachment

“From the cradle to the grave ”

John Bowlby

Human infants are born in the premature and underdeveloped state when compared to the other species (Kaplan, Lancaster, & Hurtado, 2000). They need more time to be self-sufficient in order to master the behaviors that are necessary to survive. Because of this reason, infants of the human race are assumed to born ‘ready’ to provide bonds with significant other, who is called the ‘caregiver’ (Simpson, 1999). That is to say, belonging or attaching to another one is a basic motivation for Sapiens (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). Infants within all human cultures and some primate species are observed to show a specific set of reactions when they are separated with their caregiver. The first stage is the ‘protest,’ during which they cry, scream or throw temper tantrums in order to make the caregiver come back. These behaviors are in fact strong and adaptive evolutionary reactions in order to promote survival. If this response is not enough for bringing back the caregiver, second stage ‘despair’ occurs. As excessive movement and sound might result in injury or might draw predators attention, in this stage movement starts to decrease, and silence starts to increase. Also, by this strategy, excessive energy loss is prevented. If the caregiver still is not present, then infants enter into the third stage, which is called ‘detachment.’ The infant begins learning to be self-sufficient and to behave independently. Detachment, on the other hand, make infant find/ search for new potential caregivers who will provide necessary resources for survival (Bowlby, 1982). Caregivers, on the other hand, regarding infants’ abilities and limitations,

behave collaterally to enable infant-caregiver bond (Simpson & Belsky, 2008), which results in developed visual and auditory capacity for infants to strengthen their adaptation to the environment. Here, we can talk about an important dot; interactions with everyone within any environment cannot be classified under attachment process unless they are done with the same person frequently and inertly. Although Charles Darwin (1871), who assumed to be the first one that give foundation to attachment theory by focusing on ‘society’ and how close bonds foster chance of survival within a closed group; which can be summarized with this sentence of his: “...for with those animals which were benefited by living in close association, the individuals which took the greatest pleasure in society would best escape various dangers; whilst those that cared least for their comrades and lived solitary would perish in greater numbers” (Darwin, 1871, p.102), the attachment theory was first drawn by Bowlby, who was one of Darwin’s biographers, and defined as “ the deep emotional tie that one individual forms with another” (Bowlby, 1973). Yuval Noah Harari (2016) wrote that; before Harlow’s and Bowlby’s studies, till the 1960s, the relationship between parents and children depends on and survives through material gains of the children, like food, shelter, and health according to dominant behaviorist schools. Children who want to be kissed hugged and loved were labeled as being ‘spoiled’ and foreseen to develop egoistic, paranoid and dependent personalities when they become adults (Halley, 2007). What is more, John Watson, one of the significant researchers on childcare issue, had suggested parents not to kiss or hug their children (Birnbaum, 1955). At the same time parents were offered to develop a disciplined and rigid daily plan for the children’s needs with the statement ‘ do not hug or feed your baby if it cries before the meal time. A little bit crying does not even hurt a baby’ by an article published (in Infant Care Magazine, 1929).Bowlby, after his studies on the children who lost their parents and/ or found guilty, he prepared a memorandum for World Health Organization in 1951, on the mental health of the children who witnessed war. This memorandum resulted in a book named Maternal Care and Mental Health, in which the ‘attachment theory’ started to be shaped (Holmes, 1993). The primary aim of this theory was to find out why infants bond with their caregivers and why they are emotionally stressed when separated (Collins & Feeney, 2000). The basic premise of Bowlby’s attachment theory is that human beings have a natural behavioral system, which enables them to maintain proximity with the caregiver to obtain their naive and weak existence,

gained through evolutionary and natural selection processes. Human infants use signal behaviors, those have operational importance, like crying or smiling when they cannot approach the caregiver. These behaviors make caregiver to reach the infant when in need. According to Bowlby, these signal behaviors are innate. A study showed that even blind and deaf children show these signal behaviors (Miller, 2002).

Besides Bowlby's etiological theory for attachment process, Shaffer (2005) stated three more model on attachment: psychoanalytical, learning, and cognitive-behavioral. According to Freud, because mothers feed their babies, they are the source of security and care. However, Erikson took a step further and stated that general reaction of the mothers for needs of their babies is more important than being present only. On the other hand, according to learning theorists, reinforcement is the core dynamic for attachment. Because a 'happy' infant would display positive behaviors, mothers' affection and attentiveness will increase. As a result infant's needs met and this will increase the gratification for mother's care so that the mother will be a major figure. Cognitive-Behavioral Theory suggests that an infant needs to have the skill for attachment. This skill acquired when the infant's cognitive development is enough for recognizing and distinguishing its mother. However, with his theory, Bowlby added concepts to psychoanalytic approach from evolutionary theory, etiology and cognitive psychology (Tüzün & Sayar, 2006) and took developmental psychologists attention to etiology (Miller, 2002).

Attachment as a 'term' symbolizes positive emotional and supportive relationship established between the infants and primary caregiver (generally mothers) (Tüzün & Sayar, 2006). While caregivers; who are the 'attachment figures', the objects of the attachment; assumed to exist for providing support and care when faced with the distressful situations (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005), Pehlivan Türk (2004), stated that Attachment is an emotional bond characterized by behaviors like searching for the attachment figure or intimacy by the children, especially during the stressful situations. Behaviors related to attachment are generally triggered following a separation with the attachment figure and disappeared after a visual, auditory or sensual proximity is maintained with the attachment figure (Holmes, 1993). According to Bowlby (1988), while humankind has an irresistible exploration urge, a perfect attachment figure serves as the 'secure

base' in order to let infants explore their environment. He emphasized the importance of attachment figures' manner during these explorations, as these will define not only the quality of future relationships of the infant but also his /her feelings of security within the world. In simpler terms, the quality of relationship bond with the primary caregiver is expected to have long-lasting effects because of shaping perception of the self and others/world, and perception of what can be done or expected during stressful situations. He called these perceptions 'internal working models' and these internal working models found to affect later relationships (Collins & Read, 1990; Rholes & Simpson, 2004). Bretherton (1992), stated that if attachment figures respond fast and carefully enough to the needs and let the child explore his/her environment independently while being always there. The most possible outcome is an internal working model in which the child defines him/herself valuable. On the other hand, if needs are not responded fast enough, and the child is not allowed exploring individually, he/she probably define him/herself inadequate and worthless. On this topic, Sümer and Güngör (1999) define two terms, model of self, and model of others. Self-model is mostly related to the attachment anxiety within close relationships, and consists of the child's unconscious schemas about how much she/he is loved or valued, as a result; sensitive, supportive and punctual positive care is related with a high self-confidence, positive self-model. Respectively, others model is defined as the distance and avoidance within close relationships and results in perceiving others as either reliable or unreliable, depending on relationship quality with the caregiver. Alantar and Maner (2008) stated that early experiences shape children's interpersonal relations and mental health (vulnerability), and predict self-confidence and self-satisfaction. Also, early emotional bonds found to be essential for the emotional and intellectual development of the children (Shaffer, 2005).

In short, while infants and children's early experiences with the primary caregiver work for increasing their chance of survival, these experiences make them adopt believes/models about the world, self, and others; and these models, which are effective throughout lifespan, determine later relationships, such as romantic ones, coping strategies, perception of self and others, expectations, by becoming internalized working models.

2.1.1. Attachment Styles

Bowlby, first, tried to explain attachment behaviors regarding attachment and detachment dimensions. However, after the studies with infants and observing they display more effort related to caregivers. Ainsworth (1969) proposed to use 'secure and insecure' terms for defining attachment behaviors rather than attachment-detachment because 'detachment' might be misunderstood as not being in need of a caregiver or not being attached at all. Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, and Wall (1978) made main statements of the attachment theory measurable and classifiable in their study named 'Strange Situations.' This experiment, in which 12-18 month infants observed for short periods after separated from their mothers, enable observation, recognition, and categorization for attachment styles within the experimentally controlled environment for the first time. Within this strange situations model, there were eight steps. First, mother and infant guided into a strange playroom and the infant's behaviors for exploring this new room during its mothers' presence observed. This entry was important to find out how much the infant trusts its caregiver as a 'secure base.' Later, the mother left the infant with the researcher (stranger) for 5 minutes and then mother turned back. Then, mother and the stranger left the room, so the infant left alone in this new strange room, after a while, the researcher and mother turn back to the room. At this point, infant's reactions to separation and reunion were observed, and six behavioral factors occurred; they were proximity, searching for a relationship, maintenance of the relationship, resistance, avoiding, searching and interaction distance. Findings showed that infants universally attached to their caregivers but in different ways and these before-mentioned behavioral factors resulted in three attachment styles; secure, insecure ambivalent and insecure avoidant (Caprara & Cervone, 2000). Results of this strange situation model were as follows;

- Securely attached infants did not show stress upon separation with their mothers, welcomed their mothers actively when they turned back, reached and showed interest to mothers for a while then continued exploration. They did not show protesting or avoiding reactions and continued to explore the new room/stranger and their play. They were friendly to the stranger (researcher), no sign of stranger anxiety; however, interactions with their mothers seemed more important for them.

- Insecure-ambivalently attached infants showed intense distress when their mother left. High levels of stranger anxiety, avoiding stranger and showing fear for the stranger was observed. Upon reunion with the mother, they first approached to her however resisted contact, even pushed her away. When compared with the other two type, these infants cried more and explored less.
- Insecure-avoidant types showed no sign of distress when their mothers left. Did not show any interest for the stranger, continued to play or exploration. They showed very little interest when their mothers were back, but interactions with the mother did not seem more important for them, as they could be comforted by the mother or the stranger equally. This whole pattern means that they refused to be intimate with the caregiver at any time, even when faced with separation.

2.1.2. Adulthood Attachment Styles

Attachment behaviors are not only related with the infancy or childhood, in fact, they are also as nearly important as the basic needs throughout the lifespan. Individuals are afraid of dark, dangerous and unidentified/ unknown things, so they need proximity and support from others to handle with these according to Bowlby (1973), and at this point, attachment is an emotional bond, which symbolizes safety and peace. Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) stated that importance and endurance of the attachment relationships through life actually are the basic point of the attachment theory. Relationships with the caregivers result in stable views of self and others, named as internal working models. So that, relationship quality during childhood has an important role for predicting the adult attachment styles, which are generally play leading role in romantic relationships too. Like Bowlby, Ainsworth (1978) also thought that attachment style type shaped by infant's relationship with the parents, generally recreated within the relationships during adulthood. That is to say, behaviors and choices in future social interactions affected by internal working model related assumptions (Shi, 2003).

Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991), stated that the attachment styles are identified by the view of self and view of others model. A positive view of others model refers positive expectations and beliefs for significant other by assuming they are all reliable and accessible, whereas a negative view of others model refers

believing all significant others are unreliable. This kind of preoccupation results in proximity avoidance. On the other hand, positive self-view refers high self-confidence and feelings of likeability without needing others' approval; whereas negative self-view means low self-confidence and excessive need for acceptance by others (Sümer & Güngör, 1999). While the view of self-characterized mainly by dependence, view of others is signified by avoidance. Based on these two parameters four attachment styles, proposed by them. These are respectively; secure, preoccupied, dismissive and fearful (See Figure 1). Three of them, except secure one, considered as insecure attachment styles conceptualized with different views for providing and forming close relationships

		Model of Self (Dependence)		
		Positive (High)	Negative (Low)	
Model of Other (Avoidance)	Positive	Secure Comfortable with intimacy and autonomy	Preoccupied Preoccupied with relationships	(High)
	Negative	Dismissing Dismissing of intimacy, counter-dependent	Fearful Fearful of intimacy, socially avoidant	(Low)

Figure 2.1. Model of adult attachment, Bartholomew & Horowitz (1992).

Securely attached individuals, who are low on dependence and avoidance, sustain the positive view of self and others (Pielage, Luteijn, & Arrindell, 2005). Individuals with this attachment style accept others, respond sensitively and consider themselves as likable and worthy. They assume others are reliable, supportive and accessible when needed and associate these positive expectations with their feelings of self-worth, lovability, and positive self-views. It is easy for them to get close to others and they value intimate relationships. Because of this trait, they can easily relate to others without losing their independence. They are generally stable and hold control within their relationships. When faced with stressors, they can ask for help

easily and search for constructive solutions. What is more, they are not uncomfortable with being intimate and/ or rejected and are not afraid of being alone. Act securely and freely within their relationships (Sümer & Güngör, 1999). Also, securely attached individuals are found to be more successful and socially self-confident (Cann, Norman, Welbourne & Calhoun, 2008).

Preoccupied individuals, who are low in avoidance, high in dependence view the self negatively, whereas viewing others positively because of inconsistent caregivers who respond and show love only when they 'want' or 'manage' (Main & Solomon, 1986; Cassidy, 2001). These individuals, generally, found to stay as near as the attachment figure to access quickly in case of emergency and need when they were infants. Therefore, they idealize others while underrating themselves. They are unlovable and unworthy and blame themselves when rejected. These individuals have higher fears of abandonment and their wish to provide closeness continuously make them develop utopist expectations from their relationships, or simply obsessions (Sümer & Güngör, 1999). They tend to involve in romantic relationships more than others while showing excessive emotionality and distress during any discussion; they cry more. They are unstable not only within their romantic relations but also within their friendships. Although they seem to value others' acceptance and thoughts, in fact, they are the dominant side within any kind of relationship. They trust significant others more than themselves while over-idealizing others for self-validation and self-acceptance. When they faced with a problem, they despair and feel helplessness.

Individuals with dismissive attachment style generally hold a negative view of others and positive view of self because of the unresponsive caregivers. These individuals learned not to lean on others during their childhood by not receiving help when they were in need from their attachment figures. They do not need others and refuse to maintain close relationships (Sümer & Güngör, 1999) because independence means everything for them and they simply do not want to experience another disappointment upon depending others again. This can be said a 'protection' technique they develop because of learning not to depend on others when in need, they try to run away from the source of threat when faced with stress rather than searching and asking for help (Mikulincer, Florian, & Weller, 1993) and get angry easily during stressful periods (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Being more individual, independent means less disappointment for them, so they hide emotions

in order to provide less warmth and be less 'fragile.' Because of being by themselves since early years, they have higher self-confidence rates and describe themselves 'perfect' in many situations (Cassidy, 1988). They can only trust themselves and do not feel any need to form relationships.

Fearfully attached individuals perceive both themselves and others negatively. According to them, while others are unreliable and rejecting, they are unworthy and unlikeable. They want to feel close to others, however, they avoid maintaining close relationships in order to protect themselves from any kind of rejection. This contradiction makes them want closeness and maintaining distance at the same time. These individuals do not trust others and afraid of forming bonds. On the other hand, when they face a stressful situation, they generally avoid and reject (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

It was found that rather than grouping attachment style within one secure and three insecure categories, while it is hard to find significant differences between these insecure types, it is more useful to divide attachment as secure and insecure (Kidd & Sheffield, 2005). For this issue, using anxiety and avoidance dimensions was thought to be helpful and Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998) suggested the most current way for the conceptualization of adult attachment style with their dimensional model, which has two components based simply on avoidance and anxiety (see Figure 2). They studied on Bartholomew and Horowitz's four attachment styles model and defined them on two orthogonal dimensions. This is a continuous model where individuals can be low to high on anxiety or avoidance continuum.

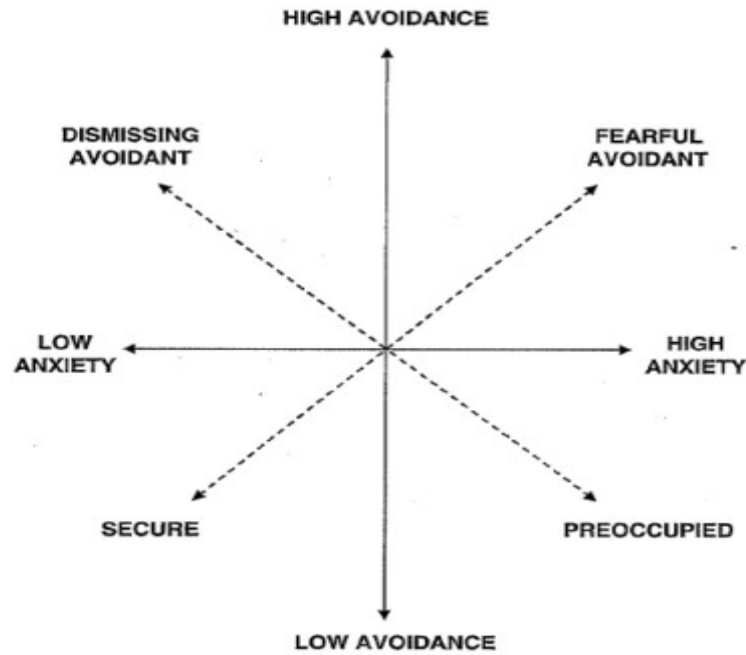


Figure 2.2. Brennan, Clark and Shaver's (1998) Dimensional Model of Adult Attachment.

2.1.3. Stability and Change

One of the strongest assumptions within the attachment theory is that early attachment styles affect functioning throughout life by simply leading the way one perceives, thinks, internalizes, values. While some researchers suggest that change is a basic characteristic for attachment styles (Lewis, Feiring, and Rosenthal, 2000; Weinfeld, Sroufe and Egeland, 2000), some of them stated that any kind of change occurs only after significant events, like main life transitions, traumatic events (Hamilton, 2000; Waters, Merrick, Treboux, Crowell & Albersheim, 2000). Many studies proved attachment as a stable concept. Scharfe and Barthmelow (1994) studied with a sample of young adults by using self-report interviews, peer report ratings with 8 months intervals. They found nearly 60% of these individuals reported the same attachment characteristics. They conclude as attachment moderately stable. The rationale behind the stability of attachment styles is that attachment representations lead individuals' attention to consistent information from the environment, influence their interpretations/perceptions and as a result make them have significant expectations and behave in a way that elicits responses from others consistent with their expectations (Pietromonaco & Feldman Barrett, 2000).

Kirkpatrick and Hazan (1994) carried out one of the longest studies. Their study continued for four years, and they stated that 30% of their sample showed changes within their attachment style, which means majority's attachment style remained the same, stable across time. Baldwin and Fehr (1995) did a comprehensive review of the studies that handled stability. In simple terms, they found that in fact there is a moderate change within the attachment styles through different periods, approximately 70 % of the whole sample within these studies, reported same attachment styles on the first and second measurement times. They speculated what if this 30% part that experienced differences in their attachment styles simply resulted in the measurement errors. These authors upon their detailed analyses concluded that these changes were especially showed high test-retest correlations and psychologically reliable variations, that is, as they worked with the internal working models, one cannot say that, individuals who state different attachment styles just reflect their momentary thoughts, perceptions or emotions. What is more, within this review they found nearly same percentage results on attachment stability for different testing periods

On the other hand, other longitudinal studies on attachment stability showed inconsistent findings (Bohlin, Hagekull & Rydell, 2000; Hamilton, 2000; Lewis, 1997; Waters, Weinfield, & Hamilton, 2000). As attachment styles consist of internal working models, Lewis (1997) speculated that working models are not considered as stable by arguing on theoretical grounds. While working models questioned, whether they change during specific life events or not, Hamilton (2000) stated that these patterns are likely to change most when faced with negative life events. Working models characterized as 'fluid structures,' so they are assumed to be highly sensitive to any kind of change in interpersonal relations and social environments (Kagan, 1996; Lewis, 1997). While some researchers concluded working models showed moderate to high stability rates over time (Waters, Merrick, Treboux, Crowell, & Albersheim, 2000), others opposed this idea and found little to no stability (Lewis, Feiring, & Rosenthal, 2000).

Life-stress model, like Bowlby's, states that dramatically lifestyle changes might affect attachment style strategies of individuals, on the other hand, personal differences model states some personality traits might have commonalities with personality pathologies, and as a result they do not have stable views about self or

others, so their attachment behaviors changes accordingly (Davila and Cobb, 2004). The main idea is that both life transitions and more stable personality characteristics, stable individual characteristics might be the reason. While important life transactions affect the environment, routines and interpersonal relationships, they also make the individual characteristics more significant. Interpersonal experiences, which deviate from individuals' early attachment pattern, result in revisions of working models for self and others (Crowell & Treboux, 1995). Recently, research has begun to support the idea that attachment in fact influenced by life events (Davila and Sargent, 2003 and Feeney and Noller, 1992) and contextual factors (Baldwin and Fehr, 1995 and Gillath and Shaver, 2007). For example, changes from insecure attachment types to secure can occur in response to positive experiences, such as supportive friendships/romantic partners. Feeney and Noller (1992) found that participants who formed a steady relationship over the course of 10 weeks were more likely to report increases in attachment security and decreases in attachment insecurity. As another example, Kirkpatrick and Hazan (1994) showed that avoidant individuals were less likely to remain avoidant during 4 years after they formed a new relationship. The highest rate of instability is among people who classify themselves as anxious-ambivalent (Baldwin & Fehr, 1995).

Davila, Burge, and Hammen (1997), studied on one of the major transition points in life, the post highschool period. They measured attachment style, personality functioning and chronic stress within the 6-month interval and 2 years intervals. At 6 months period stability was 72% of the sample whereas stability results decrease to 66% at 2 years. There were changes either toward or away from security. They concluded that stable factors, like personality disturbance, more related to the change rather than life event changes. Lopez and Michigan (2002) carried out a similar kind of study and worked with the freshmen, who assessed at two points, at the beginning of the semester and at the end of the semester. According to their results, self-confidence and problem coping styles, which classified as stable individual characteristics, found to be affected by changes in attachment styles. Distress found related significantly with the time (the duration between first and second assessment date) and change group (whose attachment style changed secure/insecure to insecure/ secure). It can be said that positive or negative changes in distress levels, result in secure to insecure or insecure to secure changes in attachment styles

2.2. Personality

According to Burger (2006), stable/consistent behavior patterns of individual and inner states of the individual defined as personality. Stable behavior patterns mean the same way of reacting or acting when faced with different situations at any time. Differentiating features of personality handled as dimensions of individual differences. These dimensions defined as variations in thought, emotion and behavior patterns (Ayers, Baum, Mcmanus and Newman, 2007). Larsen and Buss (2005) defined personality as several psychological features and mechanisms that based on the harmony and interaction between an individual's intrapsychic, physical and social environment. The question is simply that, 'how does an individual define as who she/he is?'. Traits, types of personality make more accurate definitions/assumptions for others/oneself, more predictable. Personality traits started to use more common in order to explain individuals' behaviors, attitudes, and aims (Llewellyn & Wilson, 2003).

Lexical Hypothesis, which states that most important personality characteristics encoded into language, as a single word and they become a part of the daily language, is mainly the basis for the most accepted Personality Theories today. In 1936, Allport and Odbert examined the most comprehensive English language dictionaries and extracted 18,000 personality-describing adjectives. In 1967, Norman developed another classification. He proposed seven content categories; stable, biophysical traits, temporary states, activities, social roles, social effects, evaluative terms and anatomical and physical terms (John & Srivastava, 1999). According to this hypothesis, every culture has its descriptive adjectives in order to state individual differences. Cattell (1964), Allport and Eysenck (1991), referred personality as a characteristic varies from individual to individual. In other terms, personality traits help to explain why individuals show different reactions to exactly the same situations. There are many definitions for personality, comes from a Latin word 'persona.' Plays in Ancient Rome Theatres, actors used masks, which were appropriate for their characters in play, and these masks called as a persona. As all characters included different features, Groesbeck (1985) stated that persona refers differences among individuals.

There are many theories on personality that rely on different schools within psychology. All schools have different definitions for this term. In the most simple

manner, biological approaches state that behavioral differences are resulted from heritable features and physiological/hormonal reasons, whereas according to psychoanalytical approach these differences caused by unconscious processes like id, ego, and superego. Cognitive psychologists believe information-processing differences are the main reason on the other hand behaviorists state various conditionings and expectations cause various behavioral patterns. According to Burger (2006), the approach that is commonly used in order to test individual differences and personality is Distinctive Features Approach in which differences between individuals are explained by personality traits. This approach classifies individuals in terms of degrees they show on a specific trait, like shyness, aggressiveness, reliability, etc. There are two main assumptions within this approach; these traits are stable/ do not change within time, and they are steady across any type of situation. Although many people can show each of these traits in various situations, it is the frequencies/ degree they show these behaviors makes them 'labeled' with one dominant trait. These dominant trait forces people to have a tendency for acting in definite ways across their lives. Pervin and John, (1997) said as others cannot observe inner thoughts, cognitions, or motivations, their definite way of behaving means they hold 'that' personality trait, which dominantly affects behaviors. Allport, Cattell, and Eysenck are the main psychologists who supported this approach.

What Allport said on personality is that, traits are the structures that allow an individual to react environmental stimuli within same/ consistent manners. According to him, personality traits are special to individuals and cannot be generalized to others. However, he accepted dynamism of these traits and stated they are resulted from psychophysical systems and form individual behavior, thought and emotion patterns (Yanbasti, 1990). According to him, children realize that their bodies and behaviors are different from others as they grow old therefore their personality changes in time from the point identity started to be established. Behaviors within childhood and adulthood might be similar but their motivations changes

Cattell (1964) stated that the term 'personality' allows for predictions of how an individual will act when faced with specific situations. This term symbolizes, cognitive and behavioral prototypes, which were proved consistent across time and different situations. In order to make personality theories sufficient, both nature and

nurture variables must be measured and how their interrelations structures personality must be studied (Carver & Scheir, 1998). According to an individual mostly shaped by genetic factors, therefore, it can be said that many individual features, especially intelligence, is defined by biological reasons. His first aim was to find the number of basic personality traits. He grouped related concepts, and after doing studies based on factor analysis, he found 16 main personality traits, which will lead to 16-factor personality inventory later.

Eysenck (1985) classified personality in three main factors; neuroticism, extraversion, and psychoticism. According to him, these traits are genetically disposed, however, the relation between social factors and biological ones, genetics, shapes behaviors related to these traits. He, like Cattell, supported to use factorial analysis in order to group personality traits. His three factors are two tailed. For neuroticism, being neurotic is on one end whereas being emotionally stable is on the other end, whereas extraversion scale consists of extraversion- introversion ends. Biological factor shapes the personality assumption of his can be best understood within extraversion scale. Extraverts' stable arousal levels are lower than normal levels, so they need to socialize in order to increase their stimulants and arousal levels, on the contrary, introverts have higher arousal levels even they are not socializing, so they prefer quiet places or being on their own. Another example is Neurotics because their sensitivity levels are higher and thresholds are lower for negative situations when compared to other personality types; they are more prone to experience depression than other personality types.

Although Eysenck's three personality traits were used widely, Costa and McCrea, while studying with factor analysis too, found five main personality factors. In fact, they supported three-factor model and focused on extraversion and neuroticism scales until they realized a new factor, which they named 'openness to experience' between years 1983-85. Unlike Cattell, they believed that individual differences could be coded in each different language around the world as words, so by focusing on these words a worldwide classification for personality can, in fact, be done. (Yıldırım, 2003) According to them, all languages have words for defining the exact same type of human qualifications. That is, there are different words in each language, which describe the same factor, and one factor can be defined with many synonymous words. In order to specify five main factors, relations between these synonyms words had to be studied.

While building their five-factor model, McCrea and Costa (1996) said there are both direct (central) and indirect components within the personality. In order to study personality, these components have to differentiate (see Figure 3). Central components are basic tendencies, characteristic adaptations, and self-concept. Basic tendencies are the capacities and predispositions that are not observed directly. These tendencies direct individual's potential and choices. According to İnanç and Yerlikaya (2009), besides five-factor traits, these include general and special abilities, sexual orientation and psychological process lies under language learning. So, it is seen that they are based on biological roots, and they are expected to be dynamic, consistent. They are not shaped by the family environment or parental behaviors.

The main difference between basic tendencies and characteristic adaptations is the latter one and affected by environmental factors, so they can vary from culture to culture. Most basic tendencies have effects on characteristic adaptations. Playing a musical instrument is a characteristic adaptation whereas learning speed (talent) is the basic tendency. In simpler terms, characteristic adaptations gained personality structures, which develop after individuals adapt their environments (İnanç & Yerlikaya, 2009). Self-concept is, in fact, a characteristic adaptation too. It includes all thoughts, perceptions, assessments about oneself that provide purpose and harmony for that individual. Self-concept consists of knowledge, views, and evaluations of the self, ranging from miscellaneous facts of personal history to the identity that gives a sense of purpose and coherence to life (McCrea & Costa, 1996).

While central components are universal and stable (Engler, 2009), small variations were found when language studies were done across cultures. On the other hand, while basic tendencies are hereditary, characteristic adaptations also shaped by the environmental factors. Here we can conclude that both environmental factors and biological ones affect personality (McCrea & Costa, 1987).

First indirect component of personality, as mostly mentioned above paragraph, is the biological base. Genes, hormones and brain structure are the examples of biological mechanisms that affect basic tendencies. An individual faces with lots of situations and does many things throughout his life, these all called experiences. All experiences counted as objective biography, the second indirect

component; they are simply the experiences not the perceptions of the experiences (İnanç ve Yerlikaya, 2009).

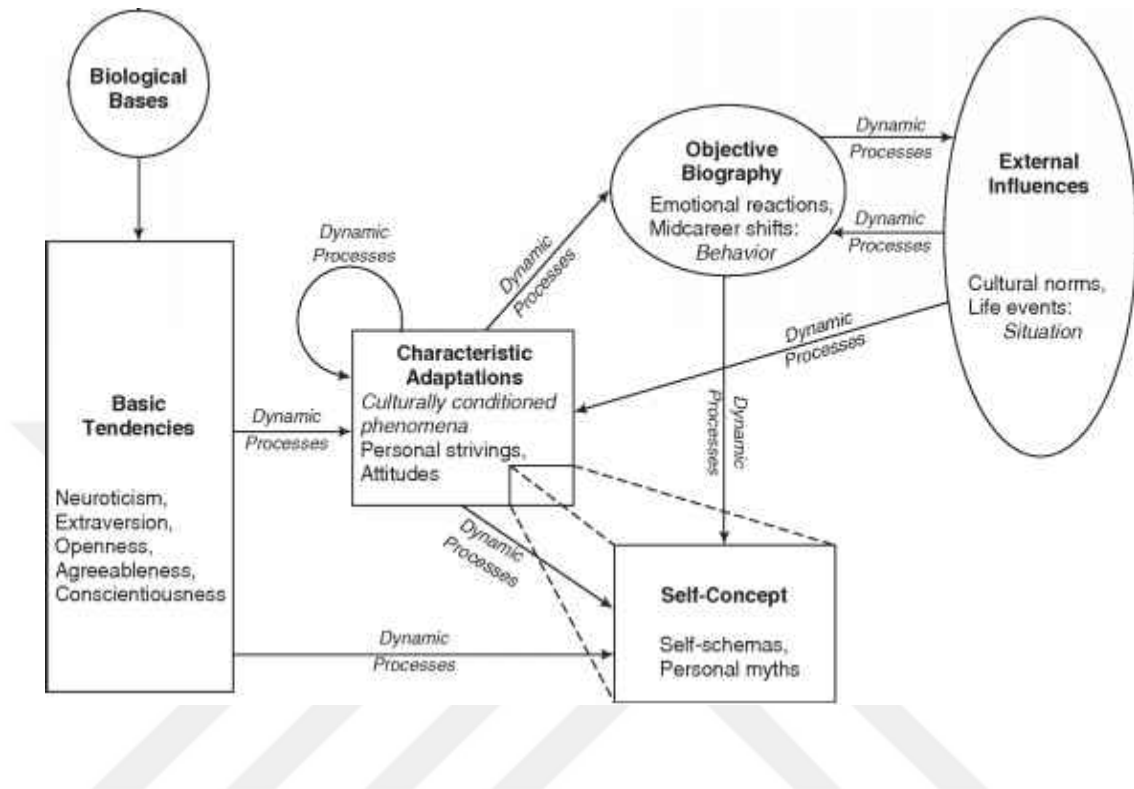


Figure 2.3. The operation of the personality system (McCrea & Costa, 1996).

2.2.1 Five Factor Model

Most trait researchers who tried to classify individual differences found that one or more traits grouped under more than one main factor. There were/are many suggestions on numbers and names for the main factors. However many studies showed that there are five factors under which different traits belong. That is instead of naming all different defining words or adjectives; they classified under basic factors, which observed universally, in terms of their relatedness. Being friendly and talkative are both related to a higher factor, extraversion, they were grouped under this factor. Recently Five-factor model is accepted as the most extensive and well-established model for structuring personality (Digman, 1990; John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008; McCrae & Costa, 2008). In contrast to psychological theories that dominantly deal with the internal dynamics of personality, this model deals with the observable, interpersonal components of the personality, like behavior patterns (Costa & McCrea, 2011). It assumes that similar behavioral patterns coded into any

language. All languages have terms for defining similar types of qualifications. That is, although the words are different for a similar behavior pattern, we can say this pattern can be seen in any culture, so is universal (Somer, Korkmaz and Tatar, 2002). Although all factors found in many cultures, a number of factors and meanings of them can be different (McCrae & Costa, 1997a; McCrae et al., 2005). There are many debates on this issue, whether these factors are sufficient or not in order to define individuals from different cultures? Are they really reflect the same pattern across cultures, or are the numbers of factors are enough or not?

What are these factors? Why this model is the most accepted one? Five dimensions of this model are listed as; extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience (John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008). They are all two-tailed dimensions and rather than assessing if one of them exists in a person or not, individuals rated on each dimension in order to find which one they belong to. These two opposite tails for each dimension are inventive/curious vs. consistent/cautious for openness to experience; efficient/organized vs. easy-going/careless for conscientiousness; outgoing/ energetic vs. solitary/reserved for extraversion; friendly/compassionate vs. analytical/detached for agreeableness and sensitive/ nervous vs. secure/ confident for neuroticism.

Why this model accepted universally and counted as the most reliable one? This model based on biological factors, which have the same effects on behaviors across cultures. Show consistency with the definitions of traits in natural languages. Also, longitudinal studies and interobserver studies showed the definition power of these factors.

Each personality dimensions have six facets

2.2.1.1. Extraversion

This dimension has similarities with the Eysenck's Extraversion trait. These individuals look for social interactions in order to balance their arousal levels. Extravert individuals defined as being full of life, joyful, talkative, social, excited and easygoing. They tend to have positive emotions across situations. They find it easy to form new relationships and generally comfortable with belonging big groups. As they have high self-confidence levels, they do not feel anxious while dealing with

new groups, environment or life transactions. Being better and craving for rewards are their basic motivation (Barrick, Stewars, and Piotrowski, 2002). They can easily part in simultaneous activities and generally prefer to be leaders. Meeting with many people in the same day or finishing many tasks is not a problem for them. McCrea and Costa (1985) represented this dimension with warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, activity, sensation seeking and positive emotionality subfactors in their personality inventory.

Cloninger (2000) in his study found that extrovert individuals stated more sense of intimacy and control on their daily lives, and their friends, social environment perceived them more friendly, emotionally and talkative when compared to other dimensions. On the other hand, Introverts are described as being quieter, shy, withdrawn and crave for being on their own (McCrae and John, 1992). This also has lots to do with the arousal levels; they are assumed to have higher arousal levels even they do nothing during the day. As socialization brings many new stimuli, they feel so tired even after meeting with one person or doing a few tasks. So, as extroverts have higher energy levels, they create more and feel less tired in a day. While loading more to reach arousal levels, they feel less stressed because of being optimistic (Wayne, 2003).

2.2.1.2. Agreeableness

This dimension represented with six facets: trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance, modesty, and tender-mindedness. Social adaptability and likability terms sometimes used in terms of agreeableness; these individuals are generally found friendly, compliant, helpful, forgiving and loving. They generally avoid having conflicts and try to be sympathetic. They do not try to dominance or lead any relationship they had, generally be the one who tries to solve problems without arguing. They generally stated as the supportive individuals within their social environments (Solmuş, 2004). This dimension assumed to develop during socialization and learning process rather than related solely to internal dynamics and biological reasons. Agreeableness is important in order to continue harmonious social relations/ life because positive and long-term relations generally based on being adaptive (Jensen Campbel & Crazino, 2001). People with high agreeableness score especially try to be more patient and more respectful to other whether they

know or do not know. These individuals prefer to work for charities or any campaigns related to any kind of help. While extraversion mostly related to the social stimulus, agreeableness mostly related to the relationship quality. This personality factor also affects self- perception, and results in more altruistic behaviors.

People lows in Agreeableness are generally aggressive, uncooperative, suspicious and ruthless. They have inflated self-perceptions and do not try to solve problems without conflict. Hostility is one of the basic motivations of these people, and they generally try to assert power in any situation (Costa, 1991). However, being really high on this dimension does not good either, this simply means being so dependent, self- destructive, working only for others, doing what others want all the time (McCrea & Costa, 1987). What is more, if self-monitoring is high in this factor, then having high self-monitoring skills might result in a very strict lifestyle, which is highly sensitive to rules and regulations.

2.2.1.3. Conscientiousness

While extraversion mostly related with social stimulus and agreeableness mostly related to the relationship quality, this dimension of personality reflects discipline and impulse control levels of an individual. They are well organized, punctual and ambitious, so their GPA levels and income levels expected to be high because of experiencing high stress when doing not complete given tasks on time. This dimension's facets are; competence, order, dutifulness, achievement striving, self-discipline, and deliberation. Individuals who are high on this dimension, regulate their behaviors and make plans in order to reach their goals (Szalma & Taylor, 2011), their motivation for achievement is high. On the other hand, people low on this dimension is unreliable, do not care for achievement and continuously change their aims. They cannot work on anything if it is not stimulating or their attention is distracted, because of low self-discipline levels. Ferguson (2000) found that conscientious individuals perform better at university, especially in medical school. Their job satisfaction levels are higher, on the other hand, their evaluations done by bosses are better (Barrick & Mount, 1996). This dimension does not directly relate to relationships, organization/ being organized and aim-focused is the main theme here. As their motivation is achievement and they organize for their goals, they are known

as successful in their social environment, this, in turn, makes them have higher self-esteem levels (Costa, 1991).

2.2.1.4. Neuroticism

Neuroticism characterized by a stable tendency towards depression, anxiety, tension, hostility, self-pity, impulsivity, and low self-esteem (Penley & Tomaka, 2002). They are more prone to develop maladaptive behaviors and social relationships, because of continuously experiencing distress. Their perceptions distorted, especially they are harsh on their selves, and this makes them have unrealistic thinking patterns. They have ineffective coping strategies even though they are always in stress. This makes them more prone to health problems when faced with problems they try to use emotional coping strategies and do not call for help, which in turn increases the levels of stress (Solmuş, 2004). Feeling of incapability increases after each before mentioned unsuccessful coping trial. People who score low on this dimension can cope with stress easily with a tendency to be calm, self-satisfied and self-confident because they are less sensitive to negative stimuli.

The term “neuroticism” used interchangeably with the term “negative affectivity” (McCrae, 1990; Ormel & Wohlfarth, 1991; Schwebel & Suls, 1999). Things perceived as less stressful can be stressful according to these individuals. Even a small detail can make them anxious. Anxiety, hostility, depression, self-consciousness, impulsiveness, and vulnerability are the facets of this dimension. Emotionally stable individual low on neuroticism are less vulnerable to stress and have effective coping skills. What is more, they are more satisfied with their lives and happier (Costa, 1991).

2.2.1.5. Openness to Experience

Openness to experience consists of fantasy, aesthetics, feelings, actions, ideas and values facets. McCrae and Costa (1985), in their personality factor studies, stated that Eysenck’s three-factor model is not capable enough to explain these kinds of individuals. According to McCrae (1990), this is the dimension with the most

difficult description. However, intellectual interests and craving for aesthetics, searching for new things are the leading motivations for Openness to Experience. Costa and McCrea (1992) found that, liberal people, people who are more open to minorities generally classified high on this dimension. They refuse traditional gender-related roles and flexible across rules. Being independent is very important for them, and they love variability so they can focus on / learn many things, which are curious about. On the other hand, low scores on Openness to Experience shows high obedience, simple living style. These individuals are more traditional and conservative; they adopt rigid working conditions and rules. Rather than the adjectives intelligent or rational; intellectual, open minded and explorer was found to be more related to this dimension (Girgin, 2007). As they have high levels of imagination and creativeness, many real artists might have high scores on Openness to Experience.

Number of dimensions have always been questioned, whether they are capable enough or not? Many studies conducted in different cultures, such as Dutch (Fruyt, Mervielde, Hoekstra, & Rolland, 2000; Hendriks, Hofstee, & De Raad, 1999), German, Estonian and Finnish (Pulver, Allik, Pulkkinen, & Hamalainen, 1995), Flemish, Italian (cited in Pulver et al., 1995), Czech (Hrebickova, 1995 cited in John & Srivastava, 1999), Norwegian, Hebrew (Almagor, Tellegen, & Waller, 1995), Chinese (Yang & Bond, 1990), Japanese (cited in Pulver et al., 1995), Russian (Shmelyov & Pokhilko, 1993 cited in John & Srivastava, 1999) and Turkish (Somer & Goldberg, 1999). They all supported the validity of the big five dimensions. Research in other languages and cultures can determine the existence of universal aspects in addition to culturally specific dimensions of personality traits. All these dimensions are enough to define all individual differences within all cultures. According to Pauonen, Sampo and Jackson (2000) there are many facets that ca not be classified under these five dimensions, and these can even lead to a 'sixth' dimension. The main thing here is that even though gathering all factors under five dimensions makes us get more stable data across the world, the adjectives that form facets or the facets themselves might have specific features. Studies on these facets might give us a more extensive understanding of personality traits. Culture accepted as one of the most important determinants these debates since studies on personality mostly done with the samples from Western cultures, five-factor model criticized for having a Western point of view. (Katigbak, Church &

Akamine, 1996). Noguchi, Gohm, Dalsky & Sakamoto (2007), stated that self-enhancement strategies that settled during child rearing process lead focusing on positive or negative characteristics. Western cultures talk more about positive characteristics where an Eastern culture teaches to make harsh self-criticisms. As a result 'negative valence' can be the sixth dimension, while individuals in Western countries focus on their positive traits, in Eastern countries focus on their negative traits (Fiske, Kitayama, Markus, & Nisbett, 1998). McCrea and Costa (1996) said that negative valence could be classified under five dimensions; where positive valence would be related with low agreeableness and negative valence would be related to depression and satisfaction (neuroticism).

On these cultural discussions, a study was done in Turkey in order to find whether basic personality traits are found in the local language and whether they load within this big five dimensions or not by Gençöz and Öncül (2012). Results of the study showed that there is, in fact, the sixth dimension for Turkish culture, under which many defining terms load. The name of this dimension is "negative valence." It is mostly connected with depression, anxiety and self-esteem issues similar to neuroticism. However, the main point is that, although individuals have self-positivity bias, which leads them to judge themselves more positively when compared to others, these individuals with high negative valence scores are making negative attributions to themselves when asked to describe themselves. The factor analysis and reliability studies showed that presence of the sixth factor in Turkish sample is significant.

2.3. Stress and Perceived Stress

We all hear the term 'stress' at least once a day as its occurrence in our daily lives increases day by day. According to APA (2008), nearly one-third of Americans experience high-stress levels. McCrae (1990) said 'stress is a burden placed on individuals by external conditions that overwhelm their psychological capacities to adapt.' For Derogatis and Coons, (1993) stress is a byproduct of adaptation during the transition periods that requires. Selye (1976) stated it as a subjective feeling. This feeling generally occurs when individual's behavior, physical status or cognitions are forced to change by an event/ situation. That is, if adaptation to an

environment requires feelings of pressure, then stress is observed (Seyle, 1993). His work on stress leads to future research in which damaging effects of stress were found on immunity and cell integrity. Many of the chronic illnesses and death rates were also examined, and it is concluded that subjective stress level perceptions are associated with death. It is a predictor of increased risk for early mortality (Keller, Litzelman, Wisk, Maddox, Cheng, Creswell, & Witt, 2012). While fighting with any illness, many studies (Engel, 1954; Solomon, Amkraut, & Kasper, 1974; Udelman, 1982) found that stressful life events' numbers and scope affect results. What is more Umberson & Montez (2010) observed that stress is related to social relationship quality, which links with mortality? Stress causes an increase in both psychological and physical health problems (Braveman, Egerter, & Mockenhaupt, 2011; Lantz, House, Mero, & Williams, 2005; McEwen, 1998; McEwen & Seeman, 1999; Miller, Cohen, & Ritchey, 2002).

2.3.1. Stress Models

There are essentially three theoretical perspectives on the mechanisms of stress: (1) stimulus- oriented theory, (2) response-oriented theory and (3) transactional theory.

2.3.1.1. Stimulus Oriented Theory

According to this model, stress generally defines events like natural disasters or illnesses that in turn result in response by an organism (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). An actual event (external), not individual interpretations or perception of this event, is the stress reason for the first theory (Bee & Bjorklund, 2004). Any aspect in the environment that increases demands upon the individual also imposes stress upon that individual (Derogatis & Coon, 1993). As a result, researchers generally focus on stressful life events called as stressors. This model assumes that some specific events perceived as stressful by all individuals and there is not any individual difference (Schwarzer & Schulz, 2003).

2.3.1.2. Response Oriented Theory

On the other hand response-oriented stress theory focuses on how the person responds to the environment, and subjective responses to the environment require change. Coping and adaptation are the focus this theory. Katkin, Dermit, and Wine (1993) speculated that an event is not solely stressful responses elicited by this event are the stress and responses to environmental forces. Negative states of an organism that are aroused by stress like distress, restlessness, insomnia, and tachycardia are studied. Selye (1976), who first supported stimulus-oriented model, then stated stress is, in fact, the response given by the organism upon pressure. According to Selye continuous feelings of helplessness results in physiological problems which then cause illnesses (Erkan, 2005).

This model does not contain emotions or cognitive functions while describing stress (Schwarzer & Schulz, 2003), recent studies showed that perceptions and appraisals have an important role in determining stress (Erkan, 2005).

2.3.1.3. Transactional Theory

Transactional stress theory consists of both stimulus-oriented theory and response theory. In interactionist stress theory, stress is the result of an interaction between an individual and event. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1987), personal appraisals of an event and types of resources to cope this event result in stress. In the transactional framework, when an individual interacts with the environment when individuals start to evaluate requirements that are demanded by their environments and do not feel powerful enough, they start to perceive their resources to cope the demands of the environment as insufficient, this interaction between individual and environments might result in stress.

According to Lazarus (1993), cognitive appraisals work within perceived stress. Cognitive appraisals make us evaluate the importance of what is happening for our well-being. He shortly defined appraisal as a cognitive mediator for stress reactions; an individual evaluates the situation whether he/ she has anything in danger when faced with the stress. He can do anything to overcome the harm from the stressful situation (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel, Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen,

1986, Lazarus, 1993). Factors that affect appraisals includes individual factors such as general belief systems, values, and purpose; and situational factors such as familiarity level, uncertainty amount, and presence of social support (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Appraisals are important because coping strategies mainly depends on them. If a situation is evaluated as changeable, the individual relies on problem-focused coping strategies. However, if the situation is evaluated as unchangeable the individual mostly relies on emotion-focused coping strategies (Lazarus, 1993). The impact of the stressful event is based on one's own perception of how stressful is the event (Cohen, Kamarck & Mermelstein, 1983).

Spielberger (2005), based on Lazarus' Theory, defined stress as the anxiety, which experienced when faced with dangerous stimulus and emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and physical changes which experienced as a response to this stimulus. Events that cause anxiety identified as 'stress and threat.' At this point, whether an individual show response to stress or not, depends on perceiving the stimulus as a threat or not. Variety in attribution to the same stimulus as threatening or not is caused by individual differences in perception, characteristic features of the situation, past similar experiences, and triggered emotions and memories. If individuals perceive the threatening situation as non-manageable, which is 'stress response,' the level of anxiety increases (Spielberger, 2005).

2.4. Interactions between Attachment, Personality, Perceived Stress and University Adjustment

Shaver and Brennan (1992) are one of the first researchers studied on personality and attachment styles. They found that participants with secure attachment scored higher on extroversion on NEO-PI scales than anxious-ambivalent ones. Collins and Read's (1990) study also found that higher level of self-esteem is a significant indicator of extraversion, which strongly related with secure attachment. Bakker, Van Oudenhoven & Van Der Zee, (2004) stated that attachment anxiety found moderately to strongly relate to neuroticism, whereas attachment avoidance negatively related to extraversion. Attachment security mainly positively related to extraversion. Avoidance was found to be negatively correlated with the other three domains, extraversion and conscientiousness, and, moderately to openness. The

negative relationship between conscientiousness and attachment showed that individuals who experience more anxiety in their close relationships are less conscientious, organized and deliberate in their daily functioning (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; Nofle & Shaver 2006; Marušić, Kamenov & Jelić, 2006). Bekiroğlu (1996) found that insecurely attached individuals tend to be more depressed and have high anxiety levels than individuals with secure attachment. However, anxious attachment style significantly correlated with all aspects of neuroticism like generalized anxiety, impulsiveness. These findings are generalized as attachment anxiety. It is found to be related to the negative emotion experiencing tendency across a variety of situations and settings which are completely parallel to the conceptualization of attachment anxiety as the negative model of self (Bartholomew, 1990). Less extroverted people are more avoidant in their attachment to romantic partners. Also, avoidant participants found to be less agreeable with less capacity for qualified interpersonal relations (Shaver& Brennan, 1992; Nofle & Shaver, 2006; Marušić, Kamenov & Jelić, 2006).

Early experiences with attachment figures might be seen as a basis for various future abilities, such as social skills, emotion regulation capabilities, and exploratory behaviors (Sroufe, Egeland & Kreutzer, 2005; Weinfield, Sroufe & Egeland, 2008), and these aspects are linked to personality development. Secure attachment style is related to the aspects of sociability like being ready to establish new relationships which are also the core components of extraversion, through its association with a positive view of the self as a worthy and capable agent and of others (Londerville & Main, 1981; Main & Weston, 1981; Schneider, Atkinson, & Tardiff, 2001). Pamir and Arikoğlu (2003) found that secure university students showed low attachment anxiety and avoidance, low distress, high self-restraint, high negative mood regulation. When personality and early attachment styles studied, Conscientiousness was found to be negatively related to unresolved/disorganized attachment (Franssona, Granqvistb, Bohlina and Hagekull, 2013). Attachment research has also found a significant link between attachment styles and stress. Developing an insecure attachment style including avoidant and anxious ones found positive correlations with distress (Buelow, McClain, & McIntosh, 1996). Adults with a predominantly anxious attachment style experience more subjective stress than adults with a predominantly secure attachment style (Mauder, Lancee, Nolan, Hunter, & Tannenbaum, 2006).

Rieke and Conn (1994) reported that the Emotional Stability factor was positively correlated with social, emotional, and occupational adjustment, and it is known that neuroticism is featured with low emotional stability. On the other hand, social support perception is positively related with extraversion in turns provide a better school adaptation, and neuroticism shows a consistent negative relationship with perceived social support (Bolger & Eckenrode, 1991). Individuals with the highest level of Neuroticism and lowest levels of Agreeableness and Conscientiousness showed the highest level of escape-avoidance coping and the lowest level of planned problem solving or positive reappraisal which leads to worsening adjustment process (Quirk, McCormick, 1998). The increase in conscientiousness is associated with the use of active, problem-focused coping, goal focusing, and planning (Watson & Hubbard, 1996), which leads to better academic adjustment. Deniz and Hamarta (2003) investigated the effects of attachment styles on social skills and loneliness levels of university students and found significant effects of all attachment styles.

Certain personality traits are found to be related with certain cognitions. Perceived stress is one of these cognitions, which are affected by personality. Personality moderates stress when processing and evaluating of the stress-provoking situation, coping strategies, and emotional consequences (Vollrath, 2001). Bolger and Zuckerman (1995) stated that personality influences the reactions to stressors by reviewing the coping choices, and their effectiveness. Vollrath (2001) argued that from the beginning of evaluation of the experiences of stress for coping strategies, personality moderates the stress process. He found that everyday situations are read as threatening by highly neurotic individuals. It is stated that neurotic individuals are prone to have negative appraisals of self, others and their experiences (Gunther, Cohen, & Armeli, 1999; Schwebel & Suls, 1999). Penley and Tomaka (2002) studied Big Five personality types on stress and coping processes. Neuroticism was found to be high on perceived stress, and negatively correlated with perceived coping ability whereas; Extraversion was low on perceived stress and positively correlated with perceived coping ability. Individuals high on Neuroticism showed resistance to change their moods and ignored the stimuli in the environment (Abbasi, 2011). In contrast, high conscientiousness, agreeableness and, extroversion are found to be correlated negatively with the assessment of daily hassles (Vollrath, 2001). In Kim, Cho, Kwon, Chang, Ryu, Shin & Kim (2016) study, high perceived stress scores

were found to be related with high neuroticism, low extraversion, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. When university students, freshmen, were studied to find the relationship between personality traits and perceived stress, extraversion was found to be negatively correlated with perceived university stress. They perceived university life less stressful. Contrary to extroverts, neurotics perceived this transition so 'threatening.' Neuroticism positively correlated with perceived stress (Lu, 1994). Neuroticism and the neurotic people's perceived stress found to be stable over time.

Studying attachment style can be a predictor of the type of relationships, social and emotional processing styles that a person will form (Thompson & Raikes, 2003). These styles can influence how one perceives and experiences stress (Collins & Feeney, 2000; Feeney & Collins, 2004). Insecure attachment style found to be associated with relationships that are more negative, seeking, and receiving of less support, with an increase in conflicts (Gallo, Smith, & Ruiz, 2003). Furthermore, stress responses and regulation processes across stress have been associated with adult attachment style (Cassidy, 2000; Dozier, Stovall, & Albus, 1999). Individuals with secure attachment style show a greater resiliency to stress, whereas individuals with insecure attachment style are more vulnerable to stress and are more likely to become dysregulated (Ditzen, Schmidt, Strauss, Nater, Ehlert, & Heinrichs, 2008; Gallo & Matthews, 2006; Hawkins, Howard, & Oyebode, 2007).

It is suggested that young people must have a secure attachment style in order for them to adapt to the transition to college effectively (Blustein, Wallbridge, Friedlander & Palladino, 1991) because the attachment system is assumed to be activated when the person perceives environmental stress (Collins & Feeney, 2004; Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005). On the other hand, adult attachment styles are linked to significant variation in individuals' appraisal strategies in several studies (Fuendeling, 1998). Relations between adult attachment security and college students' distress found to be mediated by low self-esteem, and dysfunctional cognitions (Roberts, Gotlib, & Kassel, 1996), by negative affect and appraisals of coping confidence (Creasey & Hesson-McInnis, 2001), and by maladaptive problem coping styles (Lopez, Mauricio, Gormley, Simko, & Berger, 2001) which are the most visible characteristics of insecure attachment style. Research demonstrated greater resiliency in subjects identified as having a secure attachment style, and

greater vulnerability to stress in subjects displaying an insecure attachment style (Ditzen, 2008; Gallo & Matthews, 2006; Hawkins, Howard, & Oyebode, 2007). Those who show higher levels of secure attachment may gather more support from others by using more problem-focused strategies (Ciechanowski, Sullivan, Jensen, Romano, & Summers, 2003; Hunter & Maunder, 2001; Mikulincer & Florian, 1998). Studies on attachment and perceptions and expectations of stress and social support incorporate a theory-based prediction that insecure people are more likely to appraise others' responsiveness negatively (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2009).

Generally college life is associated with the process of 'strange situation' which is used to assess attachment behaviors in infancy as separation from caregivers in a novel environment, dealing with novel physical and social environments without older attachment figures while maintaining new social and romantic attachments (Kenny, 1990; Lapsey, Varshney, & Aalsma, 2000; Rice, FitzGerald, Whaley, & Gibbs, 1995). Wintre & Yaffe (2000) indicated that students demonstrating low levels of fear of individuation or attachment are less likely to demonstrate negative emotions that could lead to better physical and psychological adjustment to college life. Another study suggests that adolescents who have secure relationships have higher self-esteem and better emotional well-being (Mattanah, Brand, & Hancock, 2004) which can lead to easier and better adjustment process for the first year of college by increasing resilience. It was found that there is a significant relationship between adjustment and peer relationship quality in which great friendship quality associated with a greater self-concept and support-seeking behaviors, which is common between securely attached adults (Demir & Urberg, 2004). However insecurely attached adults cannot show better adjustment by showing higher anxiety and depression-like symptoms (Cooper, Shaver & Collins, 1998). It was stated that pro attachment skills were associated with lower scholastic competence (Fass & Tubman, 2002), result in a decrease for academic achievement. Also, the greater the support received, the better the emotional adjustment is, by showing less anxiety, and better quality of life (Abbey, Abramis, & Caplan, 1985). Securely attached students seek for and experience increased social support during the first two semesters of college, and this increased social support perception predicts improvements in social, emotional and personal adjustment, because increased perceived support results in a positive relation between attachment security and academic, social-emotional/personal adjustment (Friedlander, Reid, Shupak, & Cribbie, 2007). It was

found that intimacy with friends in a new institution like college, negatively correlated with perceived loneliness and again results in better adjustment process (Wisemann, 1997).

Scharfe and Bartholomew (1994) suggested that the mechanisms of attachment would be best examined in a sample group who are living in a high-risk environment or facing a common stressful life event. Differences in adult attachment were found to be most pronounced under stressful conditions (Feeney & Noller, 1996). Beginning to university is one of the most stressful life events because of the transition to young adulthood, change in family relations and perceived support from them, and adaptation to a completely new environment. What is more, it was found that coping ability with normative stressors like those that 'leaving home' or 'adaptation to college' is affected by adult attachment security (Mayselless, Danieli, & Sharabany, 1996). Although starting college life is one of the common stressful milestones, one can easily observe that while some students do not show any distress, some of them cannot adapt their new environment at all. So, why some students show different stress patterns than others? Why some of them adjust college more easily than they adjust others while being exposed to the same stressor? Individual factors; attachment style, personality and cognitive appraisals might be among the reasons for this variation.

This study will be held with university freshmen. Changes in perceived stress across time will be assessed in order to see how adult attachment styles and personality traits related to the transition related indexes like stress and adaptation. The relationship with perceived stress and attachment style is expected to vary across personality traits.

The present study will examine whether perceived stress level changes and university adjustment levels significantly associated with attachment style and specific personality traits or not.

2.5. Aim of the Study

This study examined the longitudinal relations between (a) attachment styles (anxiety and avoidance), (b) personality types (extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience) and (c) perceived stress relevant to university adjustment.

The aim of the present study is to find how individual factors (attachment and personality), perceived stress and University adaptation are associated. Perceived stress rate related to the dimensions of personality traits and attachment styles. Secure attachment style is expected to be negatively correlated with neuroticism, negative valence, and perceived stress whereas positively correlated with extraversion. On the other hand, insecure attachment is expected to be positively correlated with neuroticism, negative valence, and perceived stress whereas negatively correlate with extraversion. A decreasing pattern within securely attached individuals' perceived stress levels and an increased perceived stress pattern; which can be small changes in a negative way or no change at all for insecurely attached individuals, predicted.

Adaptation to university life is expected to correlate with attachment styles, personality traits, and perceived stress. Secure attachment, extraversion, and conscientiousness are predicted to positively correlate with adjustment whereas neuroticism, negative valence, and perceived stress are expected to show a negative correlation with adjustment. Increase / no change within perceived stress are expected to be related to low levels of adaptation. The decrease in perceived stress levels is expected to be related to high levels of adaptation.

Changes in perceived stress levels are expected to be related to changes or stability within attachment styles (secure to insecure, insecure to secure). Furthermore, attachment style changes are predicted to demonstrate an association with University adjustment changes from fall to spring semester.

Hypotheses of the present study might be listed as follows in order to make the aim of the study more clear;

Hypothesis 1: Secure attachment style is expected to be negatively correlated with neuroticism, negative valence, and perceived stress whereas positively correlated with extraversion.

Hypothesis 2: Secure attachment, extraversion, and conscientiousness are predicted to positively correlate with adjustment.

Hypothesis 3: Insecure attachment, Neuroticism, negative valence, and perceived stress are expected to show a negative correlation with adjustment.

Hypothesis 4: Adjustment levels would increase from fall to spring semester whereas perceived stress levels would decrease.

Hypothesis 5: Changes in perceived stress levels are expected to be related to changes or stability within attachment styles (secure to insecure, insecure to secure).

Hypothesis 6 : Attachment style changes are predicted to demonstrate an association with changes in University adjustment levels from fall to spring semester.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1. Participants

Two hundred seventy-seven students from Yaşar University attended to the first part (in Fall Semester, October) of this study. All students were chosen between the ones who started university in 2016-2017 academic year, which are labeled as freshmen. Their phone numbers and/or e-mails were gathered in order to contact again for the second part of this study in March. All students ranged in age from 18 to 24 with a mean of 18.8 ($SD = 1.12$). Of the total sample, 37.9 % were male ($n= 105$) and 62.1 % were female ($n= 172$). Only 4% of the population stated they are working at a job ($n =11$). In terms of accommodation, 31 % of the population stated that are not from İzmir ($n = 86$), but study here; 18.1 % of them live in dormitories ($n= 50$), 3.2% of them live on his own ($n = 9$), 3.6 % of them lives with friends ($n =10$) whereas 4.3 % of them live with their relatives ($n = 12$), 1.8 % chose the other option ($n =5$).

Among 86 students who stated that their hometown is different from İzmir, 86% of them have an acquaintance in İzmir ($n= 74$), on the other hand, 84% of them do not have anyone they are familiar with in İzmir ($n=12$).

Because of the political developments in 2016, Turkish Governments 'state of emergency' decision, several universities closed and students from those universities transferred to other universities. Yaşar University was one of the universities that accepted students. As a result, 6.1% of the students were the ones who came from other universities ($n= 17$).

When relationship status is considered; 26.6 % of the population indicated that they are in a relationship ($n=82$), whereas 70.4% of the population said that they are not in a relationship. Students who are in a relationship were asked about their meeting frequency, and 10.9% stated that they see each other less than average (n

=9), while 51.2 % said they meet more than average ($n=42$), rest are on average ($n=31$, 37.8 %).

Rather than the romantic relationships, participants were asked about their relationships with family and friends ; only 8.0 % of them ($n=22$) stated they get in contact with their families very rarely or rarely, whereas 16.2 % ($n=45$) reported that, their meeting frequency is average, according to 75.8 % they meet often and very often. In terms of friends, students asked if they have enough number of friends or not, 58.5 % of them ($n=162$) were satisfied with the number, whereas 41.5% of them ($n=115$) were not (see Table 3.1).

147 of the 277 students re-attended to the second part of this study (in Spring Semester). The age range was between 18 – 24 years old. Mean was 18.7 ($SD=1.10$). The sample group's 36.1 % are male ($n=53$) and 63.9 % are female ($n=94$). Only 3.4% of the population stated they are working at a job ($n=5$). 29.9 % of the sample group stated that they are not from İzmir ($n=44$) although they have been studied in İzmir. 16.3 % of them live in dormitories ($n=24$), 2.0 % of them live on his own ($n=3$), 4.8 % of them lives with friends ($n=7$) whereas 4.8 % of them live with their relatives ($n=7$), 2.0% chose the other option ($n=3$).

In the second application; among these 44 students who stated that their hometown is different from İzmir, 85.7% of them have an acquaintance in İzmir ($n=36$), on the other hand, 14.3% of them do not have anyone they are familiar with in İzmir ($n=6$).

Because of the political developments in 2016, Turkish Government 'state of emergency' decision, several universities closed and students from those universities transferred to other universities. Yaşar University was one of the universities which accepted students, 5.4% of the students were the ones who came from other universities ($n=8$).

When relationship status is considered; 32.0 % of the population indicated that they were in a relationship ($n=47$), whereas 68.0% of the population said that they were not in a relationship ($n=100$). Students who are in a relationship were asked about their meeting frequency, and 14.9 % stated that they see each other less than average ($n=7$), while 44.7 % said they meet more than average ($n=21$), rest were on average ($n=19$, 40.4%).

Participants were asked about their relationships with family and friends; only 8.2 % of them ($n= 12$) stated they get in contact with their families very rarely or rarely, whereas 17.0 % ($n= 25$) reported that their meeting frequency is average, according to 78.4 % they meet often and very often. In terms of friends, students were asked if they have enough number of friends or not, 66.7 % of them ($n = 98$) were satisfied with the number, whereas 33.3% of them ($n= 49$) were not (see Table 3.1).



Table 3.1. Demographic Information of Participants

		Fall		Spring	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
		Age (Mean =18.8 , SD=1.12)		Age (Mean =18.7 , SD=1.10)	
Gender	Male	105	37.9	53	36.1
	Female	172	62.1	94	63.9
Hometown	From İzmir	191	69.3	105	71.4
	Out of İzmir	86	30.7	42	28.6
University	From another university	17	6.1	8	5.4
	Started this university	260	93.9	139	94.6
Accommodation	With family	191	69.0	103	70.1
	Dormitory	50	18.1	24	16.3
	Alone	9	3.2	3	2.0
	With friends	10	3.6	7	4.8
	With relatives	12	4.3	7	4.8
	Other	5	1.8	3	2.0
Familiarity (with İzmir)	Having an acquaintance	74	86.0	36	85.7
	Not having an acquaintance	12	14.0	6	14.3
Relationship Status	In a relationship	82	26.6	47	32.0
	Not in a relationship	195	70.4	100	68.0
Meeting Frequency (with partner)	Very rarely	2	2.4	1	2.1
	Rarely	7	8.5	6	12.8
	Average	31	37.8	19	40.4
	Often	17	20.7	6	12.8
	Very Often	25	30.5	15	31.9
Meeting Frequency (with family)	Very rarely	6	2.2	2	1.4
	Rarely	16	5.8	10	6.8
	Average	45	16.2	25	17.0
	Often	80	28.9	41	27.9
	Very Often	130	46.9	69	46.9
Friendship Number	Satisfactory	162	58.5	98	66.7
	Not satisfactory	115	41.5	49	33.3
Working (at a job)	Yes	11	4.00	5	3.4
	No	266	96.0	142	96.6

3.2. Instruments

In the present study, five instruments administered to the participants that are Experiences in Close Relationships, Perceived Stress Scale, and Adaptation to College Life Scale, Basic Personality Traits Inventory, Relationships Questionnaire, and Demographic Information Form to obtain demographic information.

3.2.1. Experiences in Close Relationships

Experiences in Close Relationships Scale-II (Fraley, Waller and Brennan, 1998) used to identify attachment style. This scale has two insecure attachment factors; 'anxious attachment' and 'avoidant attachment,' it aims to measure anxiety level within close relationships and avoidance from others. ECRM is a 7-point Likert-type scale (1= totally disagree; 7= totally agree) and a self-reported measurement, has 36 items. Selçuk (2006) made Turkish adaptation of the scale with the translation, retranslation method. Turkish version's reliability scores found as .90 for avoidance, and .86 for anxiety scale. Cronbach alpha ratings are .93 for the Anxiety scale and the .95 for the Avoidance scale. The reverse coded items are 3, 15, 19, 22, 25, 27, 29, 31, 33 and 35. In order to calculate anxiety score odd numbers' mean taken, in order to find avoidance score even numbers' mean is calculated. Lower scores indicate a more secure pattern whereas higher scores indicate avoidant or anxious attachment and insecure attachment. High anxiety levels refer to negative self-image whereas high avoidance levels refer to negative others image (See Appendix A). For the present study, Cronbach alpha for avoidance dimension was .85, and for anxiety, dimension was .92.

3.2.2. Perceived Stress Scale

Cohen Kamarck and Mermelstein (1983) developed perceived Stress Scale (PSS) (See Appendix B). The scale translated into Turkish independently by three psychologists and two psychological counselors who had at least a master's degree and knew both languages well (Örücü ve Demir, 2008). Translation, re-translation method was used for adaptation studies. Items designed to assess how unpredictable, uncontrollable, and overloaded respondents perceive their lives. The scale also

includes a number of direct queries about the current level of experienced stress. The questions in the PSS are about feelings and thoughts during the last month. Participants are asked, ‘‘how often they felt’’ on a 5-point Likert scale (0= never, 5= very often) Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein (1983) reported Cronbach’s α between .84-.86 for the PSS. Test-retest reliability for the PSS was .85 and correlation of the PSS to other measures of similar symptoms ranges between .52-.76. Internal consistency reliability of the Turkish version found as .84. In another study test-retest, reliability found as .88 (Eskin, Harlak, Demirkiran & Dereboy, 2013). For the present study, Cronbach Alfa level found as .85.

3.2.3. Adaptation to College Life Scale

Aladağ, Kağnıcı, Tuna, and Tezer (2003) developed adaptation to college life scale (See Appendix C). This scale was developed to assess adaptation levels of the freshmen, will be used to assess the level of adaptation to the attended university. Adaptation to College life is a 7-point Likert scale (1= Totally Disagree, 7= Totally Agree). It has 48 items. Higher scores show higher adaptation, whereas lower ones mean low adaptation to the college. There are six subscales; emotional adaptation, adaptation to college life, personal adaptation, adaptation to the relationships with opposite gender, academic adaptation, and social adaptation. Subscales’ Cronbach Alpha scores are; .63 for social, .80 for college, .79 for emotional, .76 for personal, .73 relationships with opposite gender, and .70 for academic adaptation. Subscales correlations with total score found to be between .64 and .77. Internal consistency of the measurement found as .91. Within the present study, Cronbach Alpha scores were; .64 for social, .77 for college, .80 for emotional, .77 for personal, .62 relationships with opposite gender, and .77 for academic adaptation.

3.2.4. Basic Personality Traits Inventory (BPTI)

Basic Personality Traits Inventory was developed by Gençöz and Öncül (2012) (see Appendix D). There are 45 adjectives within BPTI. Each adjective was rated on 5 point scale. 1 means ‘‘not suitable at all’’ whereas 5 mean ‘‘fully suitable.’’ It was found that items load on six main traits; openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism and negative valence.

The Cronbach alphas (internal consistencies) were found to be .80, .84, .89, .85, .83, .71 respectively for openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, and negative valence. These dimensions' relation with anxiety and depression were also tested, and they were found to be associated significantly with depression scales; correlation scores between BDI and Extraversion was found $-.30$, Conscientiousness was $-.25$, Agreeableness was $-.26$, Neuroticism was $.41$, Openness to Experience was $-.35$, and Negative Valence was $.27$. (Gençöz and Öncül, 2012). Within the present study the Cronbach alphas were found to be .73 for openness to experience, .80 for conscientiousness, .81 for extraversion, .85 for agreeableness, .77 for neuroticism, and .62 for negative valence.

3.2.5. Relationship Scales Questionnaire (RSQ)

Relationship Scales Questionnaire (RSQ) (See Appendix E), developed by Griffin and Bartholomew (1994) for measuring the adult attachment styles. This questionnaire bases on the Four Category Model of attachment and has 30 items. RSQ assumes that adult attachment styles are in fact the differences between working models of the self and others. This is a 7- point Likert scale and measures Secure, Preoccupied, and Fearful and Dismissive attachment styles. An individual is categorized under one of them according to total scores he/she get from the questionnaire, the category which has the highest score means that individuals have that attachment style.

RSQ adapted to Turkish sample upon a standardized translation re-translation method by Sümer and Güngör (1999). The translated version of RSQ was applied to 92 university students twice and its test, re-test reliability was found to change between .54 and .78. Questionnaire's internal reliability scores changed between .27 and .61. For the present study; Cronbach alfa levels were found as follows; .22 for secure, .44 for preoccupied, .49 for fearful and .53 for dismissive subscales.

3.3. Procedure

Before the distribution of the scales, relevant permissions were taken from the Ethical Committee of Yaşar University for research with student participants from this university. Then a meeting was done with the head of Foreign Languages in order to decide on application time/date because most of the participants were attending to preparatory class. Rest of the participants were from various other faculties. After getting relevant permissions from heads of relevant faculties, only student within their first year of university were asked to attend the study. Demographic information form and all of the scales used in the present study were given to participants at the beginning of their class and taken back at the end of the class. Their phone number and /or e-mail addresses asked in order to reach them for the second round of this study. At the beginning of March, we reached the participants informed about the second part of the study, meeting time/dates were arranged, and scales (other than personality scale) were applied again until the end of March. However, spring part of the study conducted via the internet. Google Forms was used to re-create all the surveys online and send to the e-mails gathered from the participants who attended the first part of the study (at Fall Semester). They were noticed about the second half of this study three times via e-mail and SMS.

3.4. Statistical Analysis

Data were analyzed by using IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 20.0 for Windows. Pearson Correlation Analysis, MANOVA, ANOVA, t-test, Multiple Regression Analyses were done.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1. Descriptive Statistics for the Measures of the Study

Referring to ‘descriptive’; means, standard deviations, variances and minimum/ maximum ranges were calculated for the Experiences in Close Relationships, whose subscales are Anxiety and Avoidances; Basic Personality Traits Questionnaire with the Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness to Experience and Negative Valence subscales; Adaptation to College Life Scale with the subscales, Emotional Adaptation, Adaptation to College Life, Personal Adaptation, Adaptation to the Relationships with Opposite Gender, Academic Adaptation and Social Adaptation; Perceived Stress Scale and Relationship Scales Questionnaire the subscales of which are Secure, Preoccupied, Fearful and Dismissive attachment styles. (See Table 4.1).

Table 4.1. Descriptive Information for Measures

Measures	Fall			Spring		
	Mean	Variance	S.D.	Mean	Variance	S.D.
ECR						
AV	3.07	.89	.94	3.46	1.27	1.12
AN	3.48	1.31	1.14	2.90	.89	.94
BPTI						
O	22.23	16.91	4.11	-	-	-
C	27.31	33.62	5.79	-	-	-
E	29.03	38.45	6.20	-	-	-
A	34.53	18.07	4.25	-	-	-
N	25.68	42.32	6.50	-	-	-
N.V	9.20	8.91	2.98	-	-	-
RSQ						
S	4.05	.83	.91	4.14	.91	.95
F	3.82	1.23	1.01	3.75	1.27	1.12
P	3.81	1.32	1.15	3.81	1.22	1.10
D	4.37	.98	.99	4.62	1.23	1.11
SP	29.48	51.07	7.14	29.39	63.17	7.94
ACL						
EA	42.49	112.41	10.60	41.23	141.59	11.88
AUE	61.42	119.73	10.94	60.41	153.65	12.39
PA	37.87	49.45	7.03	38.18	56.28	7.50
AROG	37.25	44.31	6.65	36.07	59.33	7.70
AA	37.53	56.45	7.51	36.40	63.64	7.97
SA	34.35	31.51	5.61	33.46	38.19	6.18

Note: **ECR** = Experiences in Close Relationships ; AV: Avoidance Dimension; AN: Anxiety Dimension; **BPTI** = Basic Personality Traits Inventory; O: Openness to Experience; C: Conscientiousness; E: Extraversion; A: Agreeableness; N: Neuroticism; NV: Negative Valence; **RSQ** = Relationship Scales Questionnaire; S: Secure; F: Fearful; P:Preoccupied; D: Dismissive; **SP** =Perceived Stress Scale; **AUE** = Adaptation to University Life; EA: Emotional Adaptation; ACL: Adaptation to College Life Scale ; PA : Personal Adaptation; AROG: Adaptation to Relationships with Opposite Gender; AA: Academic Adaptation; SA : Social Adaptation

4.2. Differences of Demographic Variables on the Measures of the Study for Fall Semester

As the present study contains many demographic variables, participants are expected to show differences on the measures of present study according to these demographic variables. In order to examine these differences, t-test analyses, univariate and multivariate analyses were conducted. Participants were categorized into groups according to their answers on these variables, and these groups were used as the independent variables in the analyses.

4.2.1. Demographic Variables on Attachment

Attachment dimensions regarded as Anxiety and Avoidance. All demographic variables tested on these dimensions and demographic variables that revealed a significant difference in terms of attachment were presented below.

4.2.1.1. Gender and Attachment

In order to find out possible differences of Gender on Attachment, a one way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) performed. A preliminary examination based on the 2 (male, female) x 2 (anxious attachment, avoidant attachment) MANOVA results indicated violation of the assumption of equal variances and covariance, (Box's M = 3.56; $F(3, 1879705.179) = 1.18, p = .32$) In order to interpret the results, Wilks' Lambda values used. A significant gender effect was found, Multivariate $F(2, 274) = 3.79, p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .97; \eta^2 = .03$. Univariate analyses with Bonferroni Correction for main effect of Gender revealed a significant effect only on Anxiety dimension of attachment $F(1, 275) = 6.70, p < .05; \eta^2 = .024$.

Table 4.2. Bonferroni results of MANOVA, Gender Differences on Attachment Dimensions

		Mean Differences	<i>P</i>
Anxiety	Male		
	Female	-.36**	.01
Avoidance	Male		
	Female	-.13	.25

** $p < .01$

According to these results; female participants ($M = 3.62$) significantly scored higher than male participants ($M = 3.25$) on Anxiety dimension of attachment (as shown in Table 4.2)

4.2.2. Demographic Variables on University Adjustment

Studies on university adjustment indicate that various psychosocial variables are strongly associated with the adjustment levels of university students, specifically, demographics (Arı, 1989; Ayhan, 2005; Dyson & Renk, 2006; Wintre & Bowers, 2007; Yalın, 2007). As a result, demographic variables that revealed a significant difference in terms of adjustment were presented below.

4.2.2.1. Hometown and University Adjustment

In order to find out possible differences of Hometown (Attending University in the same city or in another city) on University Adjustment, a one-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) performed. Six University Adjustment sub-dimensions (Emotional Adjustment, Personal Adjustment, Academic Adjustment, Social Adjustment, Adjustment to University Environment, and Adjustment to Opposite Gender) used as dependent variables. A preliminary examination based on the 2 (being from İzmir, not being from İzmir) x 6 (Emotional Adjustment, Personal Adjustment, Academic Adjustment, Social Adjustment, Adjustment to University Environment, Adjustment to Opposite Gender) MANOVA results indicated violation of the assumption of equal variances and covariance, (Box's $M = 36.23$; $F(3,107490,21) = 1.68$, $p = .27$)

Results revealed a statistically significant Hometown effect [Multivariate $F(6, 270) = 2.10$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .95$; $\eta^2 = .045$]. That means, university adjustment scores significantly differs according to either being from the same city with a university or not. When univariate analyses for the main effect of Hometown with the application of Bonferroni correction were performed, statistically significant results were found only for one sub-dimension of University Adjustment scale. Adjustment to University Environment was found to show significant difference across Hometown groups [$F(1,275) = 10.27$, $p < .008$; $\eta^2 = .036$].

Table 4.3. Bonferroni results of MANOVA, Hometown Difference on University Adjustment Subscales

			Mean	P
			Differences	
Adjustment to University Environment	İzmir	Out of İzmir	4.47**	.00
Personal Adjustment	İzmir	Out of İzmir	1.95*	.03
Emotional Adjustment	İzmir	Out of İzmir	1.85	.17
Academic Adjustment	İzmir	Out of İzmir	1.48	.13
Social Adjustment	İzmir	Out of İzmir	.72	.32
Adjustment to Opposite Gender	İzmir	Out of İzmir	1.45	.09

*p<.05, **p<.001

When mean scores were considered, participants from same city with the university (M = 62.81) indicated significantly better Adjustment to University Environment than the ones from a different city (M = 58.34) (as seen in Table 4.3) and better personal adjustment (M = 38.48) than the ones that were not from İzmir (M =36.52)

4.2.2.2. Gender and University Adjustment

In order to find possible differences of Gender on University Adjustment, a one-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) performed. Six University Adjustment sub-dimensions (Emotional Adjustment, Personal Adjustment, Academic Adjustment, Social Adjustment, Adjustment to University Environment, and Adjustment to Opposite Gender) used as dependent variables.

A preliminary examination based on the 2 (male, female) x 6 (Emotional Adjustment, Personal Adjustment, Academic Adjustment, Social Adjustment,

Adjustment to University Environment, Adjustment to Opposite Gender) MANOVA results indicated violation of the assumption of equal variances and covariance, (Box's $M = 31.91$; $F(21, 179537.41) = 1.68$, $p = .07$). Results revealed a statistically significant Gender effect [Multivariate $F(6, 270) = 5.05$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .89$; $\eta^2 = .098$]. That means, university adjustment scores significantly differs according to gender. What is more; when univariate analyses for the main effect of Hometown with the application of Bonferroni correction were performed, statistically significant results were found only for one sub-dimension of University Adjustment scale. Emotional Adjustment [$F(1, 275) = 17.76$, $p < .05$; $\eta^2 = .061$] was significantly differed across Gender groups.

Table 4.4 Bonferroni results of MANOVA, Gender Differences in University Adjustment

			Mean Difference	P
Emotional Adjustment	Male	Female	5.37**	.00
Adjustment to Opposite Gender	Male	Female	1.79*	.03
Adjustment to University Environment	Male	Female	.57	.67
Social Adjustment	Male	Female	.412	.55
Academic Adjustment	Male	Female	1.65	.07
Personal Adjustment	Male	Female	1.41	.11

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

When mean scores were considered, female participants ($M = 40.45$) showed lower emotional adjustment than male participants ($M = 45.83$) (as seen in Table 4.4). What is more, male participants indicated a better adjustment to opposite gender ($M = 38.36$) than female participants ($M = 36.57$).

4.2.2.3. Perceived Friendship Number Sufficiency and University Adjustment

In order to find possible differences of Perceived Friendship Number Sufficiency on University Adjustment, a one way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) performed. Six University Adjustment sub dimensions (Emotional Adjustment, Personal Adjustment, Academic Adjustment, Social Adjustment, Adjustment to University Environment, and Adjustment to Opposite Gender) were used as dependent variables. A preliminary examination based on the 2 (Sufficient, not Sufficient) x 6 (Emotional Adjustment, Personal Adjustment, Academic Adjustment, Social Adjustment, Adjustment to University Environment, Adjustment to Opposite Gender) MANOVA results indicated violation of the assumption of equal variances and covariance, (Box's $M = 25.62$; $F(21, 221393.02) = 1.19$, $p = .24$)

Results revealed a statistically significant Friendship Number effect (see Table 4.5) [Multivariate $F(6, 270) = 5.20$, $p < .001$; Wilks' $\lambda = .89$; $\eta^2 = .10$]. That means, university adjustment scores significantly differs according to friendship number. What is more; when univariate analyses for main effect of Friendship Number with the application of Bonferroni correction were performed, statistically significant results were found for five sub dimensions of University Adjustment scale ; Emotional Adjustment [$F(1,275) = 7.57$, $p < .05$; $\eta^2 = .027$] , Personal Adjustment [$F(1,275) = 8.62$, $p < .05$; $\eta^2 = .030$] , Academic Adjustment [$F(1,275) = 7.28$, $p < .05$; $\eta^2 = .026$] , Social Adjustment [$F(1,275) = 11.72$, $p < .05$; $\eta^2 = .041$] , and Adjustment to University Environment [$F(1,275) = 29.85$, $p < .001$; $\eta^2 = .098$].

Table 4.5. Bonferroni results of MANOVA, Perceived Friendship Number Sufficiency on University Adjustment Subscales

			Mean	P
			Differences	
Emotional Adjustment	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	3.52**	.00
Personal Adjustment	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	2.48**	.00
Academic Adjustment	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	2.44**	.00
Social Adjustment	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	2.30**	.00
Adjustment to University Environment	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	6.93**	.00
Adjustment to Opposite Gender	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	1.77*	.02

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

When mean scores were considered, participants who thought they have enough number of friends (M = 43.95) showed higher emotional adjustment than the participants who thought they do not have enough number of friend (M = 40.43). Furthermore, participants who said they have enough number of friends (M = 38.90) showed higher Personal Adjustment to University than the other group. (M = 36.41). Regarding Academic Adjustment, participants who thought their number of friendship is satisfactory (M = 38.54) had higher scores than the other group (M = 36.10). Within the same pattern; participants who said they have enough number of friends showed higher Social Adjustment (M = 35.30) and better Adjustment to University Environment (M = 64.30) than the ones who said they could not achieve enough number of friends yet (M = 33.09; M =57.36) (as seen in Table 4.5)

4.2.2.4. Relationship Status and University Adjustment

To find possible differences of Relationship Status on University Adjustment, a one-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) performed. Six University Adjustment sub-dimensions (Emotional Adjustment, Personal Adjustment, Academic Adjustment, Social Adjustment, Adjustment to University Environment, and Adjustment to Opposite Gender) used as dependent variables. A preliminary examination based on the 2 (In a relationship, not in a relationship) x 6 (Emotional Adjustment, Personal Adjustment, Academic Adjustment, Social Adjustment, Adjustment to University Environment, Adjustment to Opposite Gender) MANOVA results indicated violation of the assumption of equal variances and covariance, (Box's $M = 34.31$; $F(21, 95042.43) = 1.58$, $p = .04$)

Results revealed a statistically significant Relationship Status effect (see Table 4.6) [Multivariate $F(6, 270) = 4.55$, $p < .001$; Wilks' $\lambda = .90$; $\eta^2 = .092$]. That means, university adjustment scores significantly differs according to either having a relationship or not. What is more; when univariate analyses for the main effect of Relationship Status were performed with the application of Bonferroni correction Thus after the Bonferroni correction statistically significant results were found for only one sub-dimension of University Adjustment scale. Adjustment to Opposite Gender was found to show significant difference across Relationship Status [$F(1,275) = 20.55$, $p < .001$; $\eta^2 = .070$].

Table 4.6. Bonferroni results of MANOVA, Relationship Status on University Adjustment Subscales

			Mean Differences	p
Adjustment to Opposite Gender	In a Relationship	Not in a Relationship	3.83**	.00
Adjustment to University Environment	In a Relationship	Not in a Relationship	.26	.85
Personal Adjustment	In a Relationship	Not in a Relationship	.98	.92
Emotional Adjustment	In a Relationship	Not in a Relationship	.65	.64
Social Adjustment	In a Relationship	Not in a Relationship	.93	.21
Academic Adjustment	In a Relationship	Not in a Relationship	38.02	37.33

**p<.01

According to the main scores, participants who are in a relationship ($M = 39.95$) indicated significantly better Adjustment to Opposite Gender than who are not in a relationship ($M = 36.11$).

4.2.2.5. Familial Income and University Adjustment

To find possible differences in Income on University Adjustment, a one-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) performed. Six University Adjustment sub-dimensions (Emotional Adjustment, Personal Adjustment, Academic Adjustment, Social Adjustment, Adjustment to University Environment, and Adjustment to Opposite Gender) used as dependent variables. A preliminary examination based on the 5 (Very low, low, average, high, very high) x 6 (Emotional Adjustment, Personal Adjustment, Academic Adjustment, Social Adjustment, Adjustment to University Environment, Adjustment to Opposite

Gender) MANOVA results indicated violation of the assumption of equal variances and covariance, (Box's $M = 88.84$; $F(63,3212.31) = 1.18$, $p = .16$)

Results showed a statistically significant Income effect [Multivariate $F(6, 270) = 1.65$, $p < .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .86$; $\eta^2 = .036$]. That means, university adjustment scores significantly differs according to monthly Income of the Families. What is more; when univariate analyses for the main effect of Relationship Status were performed with the application of Bonferroni correction. Thus, statistically significant results after Tukey correction were found only for one sub-dimension of University Adjustment Scale, Personal Adjustment [$F(1,275) = 3.96$, $p < .05$; $\eta^2 = .055$] .

Table 4.7. Tukey results of MANOVA, Familial Income Differences on University Adjustment Subscales

		Mean	p
		Difference	
Personal Adjustment	Very High		.
	Low	9.32*	.01
	Average	7.11**	.00
	High	6.41*	.02

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

According to mean scores; participants who stated their familial income is very high ($M = 44.50$) scored significantly higher than three other groups ($M = 38.09$ for the high, $M = 37.39$ for the Average and $M = 35.18$ for the low familial income groups). However, the very low familial income group ($M = 30.50$) did not indicate a statistically significant difference from other familial income groups in Personal Adjustment (as shown in Table 4.7)

4.2.3. Differences of Demographic Variables on Personality

4.2.3.1. Gender and Personality

To find out possible differences of Gender on Personality a one way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) performed. Six Basic Personality Traits (Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness,

Neuroticism and Negative Valence) treated as dependent variables. A preliminary examination based on the 2 (male, female) x 6 (Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism and Negative Valence). MANOVA results did not indicate violation of the assumption of equal variances and covariance, (Box's $M = 55.12$; $F(21, 179537.40) = 2.55$, $p = .00$)

Results indicated a statistically significant Gender effect [Multivariate $F(6,270) = 10.75$, $p < .001$; Wilks' $\lambda = .80$; $\eta^2 = .19$]. Thus, Univariate analyses with Bonferroni Correction for main effect of Gender revealed a significant effect on three personality traits; Agreeableness [$F(1,275) = 9.15$, $p < .008$; $\eta^2 = .032$], Openness to Experience [$F(1,275) = 14.91$, $p < .001$; $\eta^2 = .051$], and Negative Valence [$F(1,275) = 26.21$, $p < .001$; $\eta^2 = .001$].

Table 4.8. Bonferroni results of MANOVA, Gender Differences in Personality Traits

			Mean Difference	P
Agreeableness	Male	Female	-1.57**	.00
Openness to Experience	Male	Female	1.92**	.00
Negative Valence	Male	Female	1.81**	.00
Extraversion	Male	Female	.59	.44
Neuroticism	Male	Female	-1.65	.04
Conscientiousness	Male	Female	-.46	.52

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Female participants ($M = 35.15$) had higher scores on agreeableness subscale than Male participants ($M = 33.55$). Whereas male participants ($M = 23.42$) more open to experience than female ($M = 21.50$) ones. Furthermore, male participants ($M = 10.32$) had higher Negative Valence scores than female participants ($M = 8.51$) (as seen in Table 4.8.)

4.2.3.2. Perceived Friendship Number Sufficiency and Personality

In order to find out possible differences of Perceived Friendship Number Sufficiency on Personality a one-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) performed. Six Basic Personality Traits (Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism and Negative Valence) treated as dependent variables. A preliminary examination based on the 2 (male, female) x 6 (Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism and Negative Valence) was done. MANOVA results did not indicate violation of the assumption of equal variances and covariance, (Box's $M = 31.21$; $F(21, 221393.02) = 1.45, p = .08$)

Results did not reveal a significant Friendship Number effect (as shown in Table 5.3) [Multivariate $F(6,270) = 2.01, p > .05$; Wilks' $\lambda = .95$; $\eta^2 = .04$]. Although Multivariate Analysis did not reveal a significant effect, when Univariate analyses were considered, Extraversion [$F(1,275) = 11.43, p < .005$; $\eta^2 = .005$] was found to yield a significant Perceived Friendship Number Sufficiency difference.

Table 4.9. Bonferroni results of MANOVA, Friendship Number Differences on Personality Traits

			Mean Difference	p
Extraversion	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	2.48**	.00
Neuroticism	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	-.72	.36
Openness to Experience	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	.55	.27
Agreeableness	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	.49	.35
Conscientiousness	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	.81	.26
Negative Valence	Sufficient	Not Sufficient	-.42	.25

** $p < .01$

After performing posthoc comparisons with Bonferroni Correction, participants who thought they have enough number of friends ($M = 30.06$) were

more extrovert than the participants who thought they do not have enough number of friends (M =27.58) (in Table 4.9)

4.2.4. Differences of Demographic Variables on Perceived Stress

4.2.4.1. Gender and Perceived Stress

To find possible differences of Gender on Perceived stress, Independent t-test analysis performed in which Perceived stress treated as dependent variable. Results yielded statistically significant gender differences in perceived Stress $t(275) = -2.89$, $p < .005$]. According to mean scores, female participants (M = 30.47) reported more Perceived stress than male participants (M =27.86).

4.2.4.2. Perceived Friendship Number Sufficiency and Perceived Stress

In order to find out possible differences of Perceived Friendship Number Sufficiency on perceived stress, Independent t-test analysis was performed in which perceived stress was treated as dependent variable. Results yielded statistically significant Perceived Friendship Number Sufficiency differences in perceived stress [$t(275) = -1.21$, $p < .005$]. According to mean scores, participants who thought they do not have enough number of friends (M = 30.96) reported higher perceived stress than participants who thought their number of friends was satisfactory (M =28.43).

4.2.4.3. Attachment and Perceived Stress

In order to examine Attachment Styles differences on perceived stress One Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was done. Results yielded significant difference on Attachment Styles (see Table 4.10).

Table 4.10. Analysis of Variance for Attachment Style

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Attachment	3	1268.32	422.77	8.97*
Error	273	12828.77	46.99	

* $p < .001$

Post hoc comparisons were performed with Bonferroni correction and depending on these comparisons; participants who had secure attachment style ($M = 26.91$) perceived less stress than participants who had preoccupied ($M = 31.81$), fearful ($M = 32.24$) and dismissive ($M = 28.66$) attachment style. (See Figure 4.1)

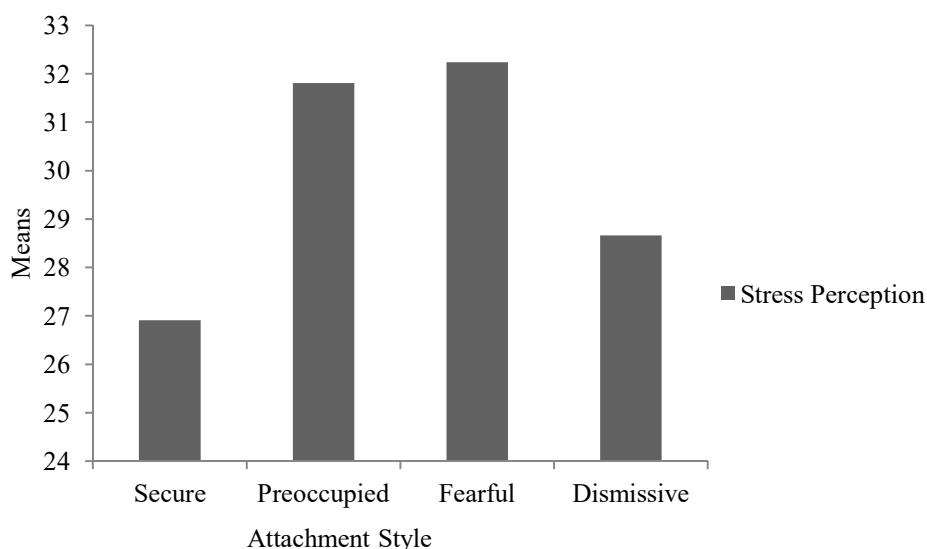


Figure 4.1. Mean Scores of Perceived Stress for Attachment Styles

4.3. Inter-Correlations between Attachment, Basic Personality Traits, University Adjustment and Perceived Stress for Fall Semester

In order to find intercorrelations between all of the variables used in the present study; Pearson-Correlations analysis was done. When personality traits and Anxiety dimension of Attachment were considered; anxiety was negatively correlated with extraversion ($r = -.17, p < .01$), agreeableness ($r = -.15, p < .05$), openness to experience ($r = -.19, p < .01$), whereas positively correlated with neuroticism ($r = .35, p < .01$) and negative valence ($r = .13, p < .05$). The highest correlation seen with Neuroticism that is more neurotic individuals tended to show more anxiety in their relationships. On the other hand, the more anxious individual is the less extraversion, agreeableness, and openness to experience occur. This dimension of attachment was positively correlated with preoccupied attachment style ($r = .58, p < .01$) and fearful attachment style ($r = .19, p < .01$), while negatively

correlated with secure attachment style ($r = -.31, p < .01$). As it is seen, securely attached individuals are less likely to show anxious features in their relationships whereas individuals with preoccupied attachment style tend to show more anxiety. Perceived stress was correlated with anxiety ($r = .48, p < .01$), meaning that the more anxious individuals are in relationships, the more stress they perceive within their lives. Social adjustment ($r = -.40, p < .01$), adjustment to opposite gender ($r = -.35, p < .01$), personal adjustment ($r = -.30, p < .01$), academic adjustment ($r = -.25, p < .01$), emotional adjustment ($r = -.61, p < .01$) and adjustment to university environment ($r = -.25, p < .01$) with anxiety dimension of attachment when University adaptation was considered. Thus, as anxiety levels increase, adaptation scores decrease, meaning that the more anxious an individual is, the less he/she is adapted to university.

Avoidance dimension of attachment is significantly correlated with all personality traits except neuroticism, negative valence, and conscientiousness. There were negative correlations with extraversion ($r = -.38, p < .01$), agreeableness ($r = -.26, p < .01$) and openness to experience ($r = -.33$). This dimension of attachment is correlated with attachment styles except for preoccupied attachment, which is mostly significant with not being separate from others. Significant positive correlations were found for fearful attachment ($r = .33, p < .01$) and dismissive attachment ($r = .2, p < .01$) whereas secure attachment ($r = -.24, p < .01$) was negatively correlated, meaning that individuals who are securely attached are more likely to be less avoidant. Perceived stress is positively correlated ($r = .14, p < .05$) with avoidance, however, the presented weaker relationship is for anxiety dimension. All of the university adjustment scores are negatively correlated with avoidance; social adjustment ($r = -.30, p < .01$), adjustment to opposite gender ($r = -.59, p < .01$), personal adjustment ($r = -.33, p < .01$), academic adjustment ($r = -.21, p < .01$), emotional adjustment ($r = -.20, p < .01$) and adjustment to university environment ($r = -.40, p < .01$). Thus, as avoidance levels increase, adaptation scores decrease. The more avoidant an individual is, the less he/she is adapted to university. The similar pattern was seen with the Perceived stress. Correlation strength of avoidance dimension with the emotional adjustment is weaker when compared to the strength with anxiety dimension. The strongest correlation between university adjustment subscales and avoidance dimension was found for adjustment to opposite gender. So, the more avoidant an individual is, the worse his/her relationships with the opposite gender.

When personality traits were taken into consideration extraversion was correlated with openness to experience ($r = .48, p < .01$), negative valence ($r = -.20, p < .01$), conscientiousness ($r = .15, p < .01$), agreeableness ($r = .13, p < .05$) and neuroticism ($r = -.19, p < .01$). Agreeableness was highly/ negatively correlated with negative valence ($r = -.31, p < .01$) and positively with conscientiousness ($r = .29, p < .01$) whereas did not correlate with neuroticism. On the other hand, negative valence and neuroticism is positively correlated ($r = .26, p < .01$). People with higher levels of neuroticism tend to have higher levels of negative valence, which shaped with negative thoughts about self. Both Openness to experience ($r = -.21, p < .01$) and extraversion ($r = -.21, p < .01$) were negatively correlated with Perceived Stress, while neuroticism was positively correlated ($r = .38, p < .01$), meaning the more an individual is neurotic, the more he / she perceives stress. Considering the University adaptation; social adjustment was positively correlated with extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness (relatively; $r = .39, -.32, -.21, -.16; p < .01$), whereas negatively correlated with neuroticism and negative valence ($r = -.27, -.20; p < .01$). Extraversion ($r = .44, p < .01$), openness to experience ($r = .42, p < .01$) were highly correlated with adjustment to opposite gender. More extravert individuals and individuals who are open to experiences are better in their relationships with opposite gender, whereas neurotic individuals are worse ($r = -.15, p < .01$). In terms of personal adjustment, openness to experience trait showed strongest correlation ($r = .56, p < .01$), whereas neuroticism and negative valence showed negative correlation with this adjustment dimension ($r = -.16, -.13; p < .01$). That is, the higher the neuroticism and negative valence is, the lower the personal adjustment would be. Academic adjustment only correlated with extraversion ($r = .30, p < .01$), openness to experience ($r = .24, p < .01$) and neuroticism ($r = -.21, p < .01$), in the same manner, emotional adjustment was correlated with extraversion ($r = .35, p < .01$), openness to experience ($r = .35, p < .01$) and neuroticism ($r = -.37, p < .01$). For both adjustment dimensions, it is easy to see that as the neuroticism levels increased, it is getting hard to adjust. Finally, all personality traits were found to be correlated with adjustment to university environment dimension.

perceived stress was significantly and negatively correlated with all sub dimensions of university adjustment; social adjustment ($r = -.49, p < .01$), adjustment to opposite gender ($r = -.30, p < .01$), personal adjustment ($r = -.39, p < .01$).

.01), academic adjustment ($r = -.35$, $p < .01$) and adjustment to university environment ($r = -.40$, $p < .01$), thus adjustment to university decreases for an individual if his/her perceived stress is high. However the strongest correlation was seen with emotional adjustment ($r = -.61$, $p < .01$), meaning the higher the stress is perceived; the less emotional adjustment is presented. Perceived stress was correlated with all attachment styles; secure attachment ($r = -.31$), fearful ($r = .29$) and preoccupied ($r = .39$) at $p < .01$ level, except dismissive style. That is, securely attached individuals were tend to show less perceived stress.

University adjustment was correlated with four attachment styles, however social adjustment dimension did not show any correlation with dismissive attachment style, whereas positively correlated with secure attachment ($r = .27$, $p < .01$), with a similar pattern, secure attachment style positively correlated with adjustment to opposite gender ($r = .39$, $p < .01$), personal adjustment ($r = .31$, $p < .01$), academic adjustment ($r = .21$, $p < .01$), emotional adjustment and adjustment to university environment ($r_s = .35$, $.31$; $p < .01$). Other attachment styles were negatively correlated with University adjustment, except that dismissive attachment only show correlation with adjustment to opposite gender and personal adjustment; and fearful attachment did not show any correlation with academic adjustment. (See Table 4.11)

Table 4.11. Pearson Correlations Between All Measures for Fall Semester

	AN	AV	E	A	N	OE	NV	C	SA	FA	PA	DA	PS	SAD	ADOG	PAD	AAD	EAD	ADUE	
AN																				
AV	.08																			
E	-.17**	-.38**																		
A	-.15*	-.26**	.13*																	
N	.35**	.09	.19**	.06																
OE	-.19**	-.33**	.48**	.17**	.02															
NV	.13*	.11	-.20**	-.31**	.26**	.02														
C	-.03	-.02	.15*	.29**	-.10	.18**	-.19**													
SA	-.31**	-.24**	.24**	.02	-.17**	.25**	-.06	-.07												
FA	.19**	.33**	-.23**	-.06	.25**	-.15*	.02	.05	-.41**											
PA	.58**	-.09	-.11	.17**	.22**	-.13*	.08	-.06	-.11	-.05										
DA	-.05	.21**	.02	.01	.20**	.08	.03	-.08	-.15*	.42**	-.32**									
PS	.48**	.14*	-.21**	.06	.38**	-.21**	.07	-.05	-.31**	.21**	.39**	.00								
SAD	-.40**	-.30**	.39**	.21**	-.27**	.32**	-.20**	.16**	.27**	-.22**	-.34**	.02	-.49**							
ADOG	-.35**	-.59**	.44**	.16**	-.15**	.42**	-.07	.09	.39**	-.35**	-.16**	-.15*	-.30**	.54**						
PAD	-.30**	-.33**	.32**	.23**	-.16**	.56**	-.13*	.22**	.31**	-.14*	-.23**	.12*	-.39**	.60**	.51**					
AAD	-.25**	-.21**	.30**	-.03	-.21**	.24**	-.05	.06	.21**	-.09	-.21**	-.01	-.35**	-.37**	.36**	.29**				
EAD	-.61**	-.20**	.35**	-.13*	-.37**	.35**	-.07	.10	.35**	-.29**	-.44**	-.03	-.61**	.54**	.46**	.43**	.45**			
ADUE	-.25**	-.40**	.40**	.22*	-.11	.37**	-.16**	.15*	.31**	-.27**	-.15*	-.04	-.40**	.54**	.47**	.50**	.36**	.44**		

*p< .05 , **p<.01 AN: Anxiety Dimension, AV: Avoidance Dimension, E: Extraversion, A: Agreeableness, N : Neuroticism, OE: Openness to Experience, NV: Negative Valence, C: Conscientiousness, SA : Secure Attachment, FA :Fearful Attachment, PA: Preoccupied Attachment, DA: Dismissive Attachment, PS: Perceived Stress, SAD: Social Adjustment, ADOG: Adjustment to Opposite Gender, PAD: Personal Adjustment, AAD: Academic Adjustment, EAD : Emotional Adjustment, ADUE : Adjustment to University Environment.

4.4. Predictive Relationships between All Measures for Fall Semester

In order to find out predictive relations between personality traits, attachment, perceived stress and University adjustment, and multiple linear regression analysis conducted. Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. What is more, the correlations between the predictor variables (avoidance, anxiety, extraversion, openness to experience, consciousness, perceived stress) included in the study were examined, and all correlations were weak to moderate, ranging between $r = .16, p < .01$ and $r = .35, p < .001$. According to these results, multicollinearity is not a problem (see Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

First total university adjustment scores were entered as the dependent variable, then all the sub-dimensions; personal adjustment, social adjustment, emotional adjustment, adjustment to opposite gender, adjustment to the university environment and academic adjustment were used as dependent variables one by one. Six personality dimension, two attachment dimensions, and total perceived stress scores entered as predictive variables.

Multiple Linear Regression analysis results revealed that perceived stress, personality traits (openness to experience and extraversion) and both attachment dimensions (anxiety-avoidance) were the significant predictors of University Adjustment. In other words, better university adjustment related to low levels of perceived stress, anxiety, avoidance and high levels of openness to experience, extraversion. All predictive variables were found to explain 64% of the total variance in university adjustment scores. Analysis results were given in Table 4.12

Table 4.12. Multiple Regression Analysis of Overall University Adjustment

	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>
Overall University Adjustment	.64			
Perceived Stress		-1.77	.21	-.35**
Openness to Experience		1.78	.38	.20**
Avoidance		-8.58	1.53	-.24**
Anxiety		-7.39	1.31	-.23**
Extraversion		1.04	.25	.18**
Conscientiousness		.40	.23	.08
Agreeableness		.42	.36	.05
Neuroticism		-.08	.24	-.01
Negative Valence		-.14	.50	-.01
Constant		273.01		

*p<.05, **p<.001

4.4.1. Personal Adjustment

Multiple regression analysis results revealed that perceived stress, personality traits (openness to experience, agreeableness) and both attachment dimensions (anxiety-avoidance) were the significant predictors of Personal Adjustment. In other words, a better personal adjustment related with low levels of perceived stress, anxiety, avoidance and high levels of openness to experience, and agreeableness. All predictive variables were found to explain 45% of the total variance in personal adjustment scores. Analysis results were given in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13. Multiple Regression Analysis of Personal Adjustment

	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>
Personal Adjustment	.45			
Perceived Stress		-.22	.05	-.22**
Openness to Experience		.75	.09	.44**
Avoidance		-.90	.38	-.12*
Anxiety		-.66	.35	-.11*
Extraversion		.04	.06	.04
Conscientiousness		.09	.06	.08
Agreeableness		.20	.08	.12*
Neuroticism		-.03	.06	-.03
Negative Valence		-.11	.12	-.05
Constant		26.08		

*p<.05, **p<.001

4.4.2. Academic Adjustment

Multiple regression analysis results revealed that perceived stress and extraversion were the significant predictors of Academic Adjustment. In other words, better academic adjustment related with low levels of perceived stress and high levels of extraversion. All predictive variables were found to explain 20% of the total variance in academic adjustment scores. Analysis results were given in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14. Multiple Regression Analysis of Academic Adjustment

	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>
Academic Adjustment	.20			
Perceived Stress		-.24	.07	-.23*
Openness to Experience		.12	.12	.06
Avoidance		-.75	.50	-.09
Anxiety		-.42	.43	-.06
Extraversion		.21	.08	.17*
Conscientiousness		.03	.07	.02
Agreeableness		.12	.11	.06
Neuroticism		-.06	.07	-.05
Negative Valence		-.04	.15	-.02
Constant		43.94		

*p<.05, **p<.001

4.4.3. Social Adjustment

Multiple regression analysis results revealed that perceived stress, extraversion, agreeableness, anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment were the significant predictors of Social Adjustment. In other words, better social adjustment related with low levels of perceived stress, avoidance, anxiety, and high levels of extraversion and agreeableness. All predictive variables were found to explain 42% of the total variance in social adjustment. Analysis results were given in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15.Multiple Regression Analysis of Social Adjustment

	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>
Social Adjustment	.42			
Perceived Stress		-.26	.04	-.33*
Openness to Experience		.08	.08	.06
Avoidance		-.58	.32	-.09**
Anxiety		-1.01	.28	-.21*
Extraversion		.16	.05	.17*
Conscientiousness		.04	.05	.04
Agreeableness		.24	.07	.18*
Neuroticism		-.02	.05	-.02
Negative Valence		-.07	.10	-.03
Constant		32.61		

*p<.05, **p<.001

4.4.4. Adjustment to Opposite Gender

Multiple regression analysis results revealed that Avoidance, Anxiety extraversion, openness to experience were the significant predictors of Adjustment to Opposite Gender. In other words, better adjustment to opposite gender-related with low levels of anxiety and avoidance, and high levels of extraversion and openness to experience. All predictive variables were found to explain 50% of the total variance in university adjustment scores. Analysis results were given in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16.Multiple Regression Analysis of Adjustment to Opposite Gender

	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>
Adjustment to Opposite Gender	.50			
Perceived Stress		-.06	.05	-.07
Anxiety		-1.42	.30	-.25**
Avoidance		-3.13	.35	-.44**
Extraversion		.17	.05	.16*
Agreeableness		.09	.08	.06
Neuroticism		.01	.05	.01
Openness to Experience		.19	.08	.12*
Negative Valence		.15	.11	-.07
Conscientiousness		.03	.05	-.02
Constant		38.86		

*p<.05, **p<.001

4.4.5. Adjustment to University Environment

Multiple regression analysis results revealed that perceived stress, avoidance, anxiety, openness to experience were the significant predictors of Adjustment to University Environment. Better adjustment to university environment related with low levels of perceived stress anxiety and avoidance, high levels of openness to experience. All predictive variables found to explain 38% of the total variance in adjustment to university environment scores. Analysis results were given in Table 4.17.

Table 4.17. Multiple Regression Analysis of Adjustment to University Environment

	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>
Adjustment to University Environment	.38			
Perceived Stress		-.48	.09	-.32*
Anxiety		-.70	.56	-.07**
Avoidance		-2.54	.64	-.22**
Extraversion		.32	.10	.18
Agreeableness		.31	.15	.12
Neuroticism		.16	.09	.10
Openness to Experience		.26	.15	.09*
Negative Valence		-.21	.20	-.06
Conscientiousness		.10	.09	.05
Constant		55.24		

*p<.05, **p<.001

4.4.6. Emotional Adjustment

Multiple regression analysis results revealed that extraversion, perceived stress, anxiety, agreeableness, openness to experience and neuroticism were the significant predictors of Adjustment to University Environment. Better adjustment to university environment related with low levels of perceived stress, anxiety, neuroticism and agreeableness, high levels of openness to experience and extraversion. All predictive variables were found to explain 57% of the total variance in emotional adjustment scores. Analysis results were given in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18.Multiple Regression Analysis of Emotional Adjustment

	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>
Adjustment to Opposite Gender	.57			
Perceived Stress		-.50	.07	-.34**
Anxiety		-3.16	.44	-.34**
Avoidance		-.66	.51	-.06
Extraversion		.19	.08	.11*
Agreeableness		-.31	.11	-.12*
Neuroticism		-.14	.07	-.09*
Openness to Experience		.37	.12	.14*
Negative Valence		.06	.16	-.01
Conscientiousness		.11	.08	-.061
Constant		67.06		

**p<.001

4.5. Descriptive Statistics and Inter-Correlations for Longitudinal Study (Including Fall and Spring Semesters)

Table 4.27. Below, presents the means and standard deviations for the predictor and adjustment variables by semester. All adjustment variables except Adjustment to University Environment, show a certain decrease between two semesters. As perceived stress levels increased, this pattern with the adjustment is acceptable. On the other hand, avoidance dimension showed a decrease pattern, which might be effective for the increase in attachment to the university environment, but the decline for social adjustment is surprising when decreasing avoidance pattern is considered.

Table 4.19. Means, Standart Deviations, and Correlations for Predictor and Outcome Variables in the Fall and Spring Semesters

Variable	Fall		Spring		Fall and Spring <i>R</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	
<i>Outcome Variables</i>					
Personal Adjustment	38.64	7.09	38.18	7.5	.61**
Social Adjustment	34.52	5.67	33.46	6.1	.59**
Emotional Adjustment	43.22	10.97	41.23	11.88	.60**
Adjustment to University Environment	33.46	6.18	60.41	12.39	.48**
Adjustment to Opposite Gender	37.82	6.24	36.07	7.70	.54**
Academic Adjustment	37.93	7.47	36.40	7.97	.54**
Overall Adjustment	254.54	35.18	245.78	41.46	.62**
<i>Predictor Variables</i>					
Perceived Stress	28.82	7.28	29.39	7.94	.57**
Avoidance	3.00	.94	2.90	.94	.53**
Anxiety	3.43	1.16	3.46	1.12	.59**

** p <.001

In order to make analyses with change scores, difference scores were created for each of the repeatedly assessed predictor and adjustment variables by subtracting spring semester from fall semester (fall - spring), which is symbolized with ‘ Δ ’. Table 4.27. shows the correlations between changes in attachment styles, perceived stress and changes in the six subdimensions of adjustment.

4.5.1. Relations between Perceived Stress Change and Attachment Style Change

A mixed-design ANOVA with time (total perceived stress levels in fall and spring) as a within-subjects factor and attachment change groups (secure to secure, secure to insecure, insecure to insecure, insecure to secure) as the between-subjects factor and perceived stress score as the dependent variable was conducted. Results revealed a main effect of time (Spring – Fall Semester difference) $F(1, 143) = 5.50$, $p = .02$. This was qualified by significant interactions between time and attachment style change groups, $F(3, 143) = 6.18$, $p = .001$. This ‘time’ x ‘attachment change’ group interaction tell us that perceived stress ratings of all attachment change groups significantly differed through fall and spring. Means of attachment change groups for the two assessment point might be seen in *Figure 4.2*. It might be said that changes in perceived stress are related to the changes within attachment groups.

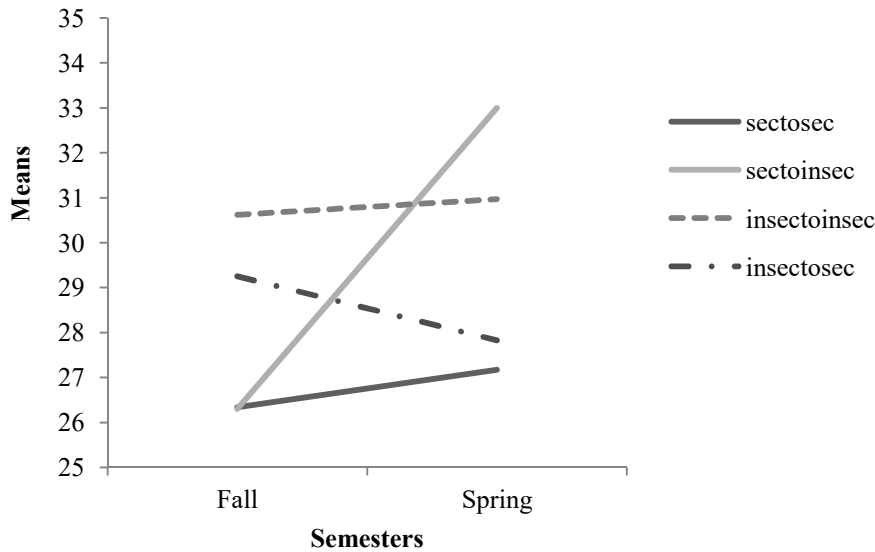


Figure 4.2. Attachment Style change group means on Perceived Stress Scores at Fall and Spring Semesters

Figure 4.2. Presents the plotted interactions of time and change group on each distress measure; these patterns were semi-consistent with the hypothesis, somewhat contrary to expectations participants whose attachment style was secure at two assessment points, reported more perceived stress over time, which was predicted to decrease. On the other hand, perceived stress levels of participants whose attachment styles changed from secure to insecure, insecure to insecure either remained stable or moderately increased whereas a change from insecure to secure indicated decrease within the perceived stress levels, which were as expected. So all ‘attachment change’ groups did not show the similar perceived stress pattern across fall and spring semesters. Only insecure to secure group showed a decrease, whereas all other three groups show an increase, with secure to insecure group having most.

4.5.2. Relations between Attachment Style Change and University Adjustment Change

A mixed-design ANOVA with time (overall university adjustment levels in fall and spring) as a within-subjects factor and attachment change groups (secure to secure, secure to insecure, insecure to insecure, insecure to secure) as the between-subjects factor and overall university adjustment score as the dependent variable, was conducted. Results revealed a main effect of ‘time’ $F(1, 143) = 5.32, p = .02$. This

was qualified by significant interactions between time and attachment style change groups, $F(3, 143) = 5.17, p = .002$. This time x attachment change group interaction tells us that University adjustment levels of all attachment change groups significantly differed through fall and spring. Means of attachment change groups for the two assessment point are given in *Figure 4.3*. It might be said that changes in university adjustment are related to the changes within attachment groups.

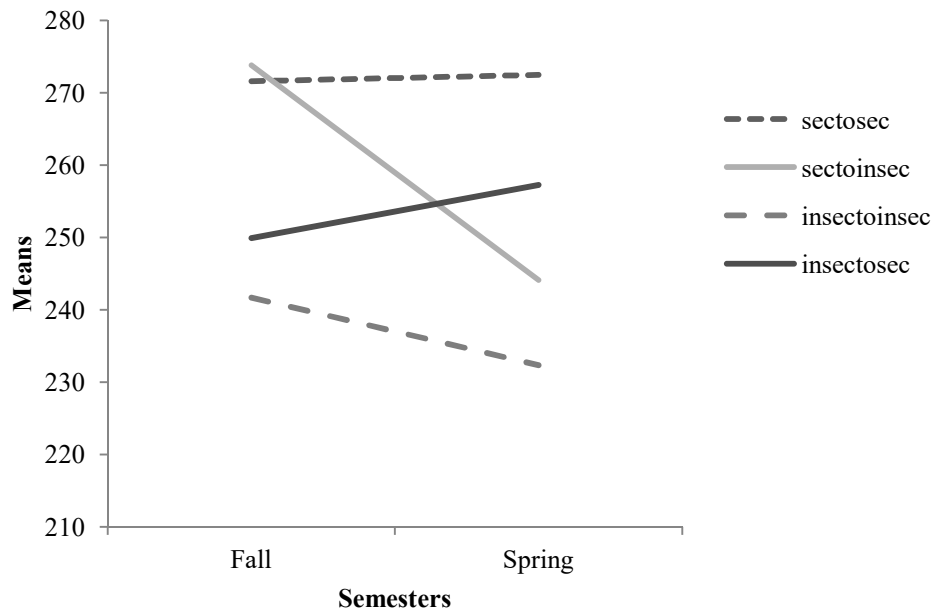


Figure 4.3. Attachment Style change group means on Overall University Adjustment Scores at Fall and Spring Semesters

As seen above, all attachment change groups did not show similar adjustment pattern across fall and spring semesters. While secure to secure and insecure to secure group showed an increase, other groups showed a decrease pattern.

4.5.3 Predictive Relations for Change Scores of Attachment, Perceived Stress, University Adjustment and Personality

In order to fit out predictive relations between personality traits, attachment, perceived stress and University adjustment score change through fall to spring linear multiple regression analyses conducted. Preliminary analyses were done to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. What is more, the correlations between the predictor variables (avoidance, anxiety, extraversion, openness to experience, consciousness, perceived stress) included in

the study were examined, and all correlations were found to be weak to moderate, ranging between $r = .16, p < .01$ and $r = .35, p < .001$. According to the results, multicollinearity was not a problem (see Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Overall university adjustment change scores were entered as the dependent variable first, then all the sub-dimensions; personal adjustment change, social adjustment change, emotional adjustment change, adjustment to opposite gender change, adjustment to university environment change and academic adjustment change were used as dependent variables one by one. Six personality dimensions, two attachment dimensions (change) and total perceived stress score changes entered as predictive variables. Only variables that revealed significant predictive values are given below.

Multiple Regression analyses result showed that perceived stress change, anxiety change, avoidance change regarding personality did significantly predict 35% of the change in overall university adjustment. Regarding the specific regression models predicting changes in adjustment from changes in perceived stress as well as changes in anxiety, avoidance and personality traits, the percentage of variance accounted for ranged from 12% (academic adjustment) to 43% (emotional adjustment; see Table 4.20). Results might be summarized as follows; (a) Impaired overall adjustment was significantly predicted by increased perceived stress ($\beta = -.31, p < .001$), anxiety ($\beta = -.27, p < .05$), and avoidance ($\beta = -.23, p < .05$). (b) Impaired social adjustment was significantly predicted by increased anxiety ($\beta = -.21, p < .05$), and avoidance ($\beta = -.24, p < .05$). (c) Impaired personal adjustment was significantly predicted from decreased openness to experience ($\beta = .24, p < .05$) and extraversion ($\beta = .09, p < .05$) and increased perceived stress ($\beta = -.34, p < .001$). (d) Impairment in emotional adjustment was significantly predicted from increased perceived stress ($\beta = -.27, p < .001$), and anxiety ($\beta = -.45, p < .001$). (e) Impaired academic adjustment was perceived from decreased extraversion ($\beta = .34, p < .001$) and increased perceived stress ($\beta = -.13, p < .001$). (f) Impaired adjustment to opposite gender was predicted by increased perceived stress ($\beta = -.16, p < .05$), anxiety ($\beta = -.21, p < .05$), and avoidance ($\beta = -.40, p < .001$). (g) Increase for adjustment to university environment was predicted from decreased perceived stress ($\beta = -.22, p < .05$), anxiety ($\beta = -.06, p < .05$), and avoidance ($\beta = .24, p < .001$).

Table 4.20. Multiple Regressions for Change Values of Adjustment

Adjustment Variable Predictors	<i>R</i>²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>
ΔOverall Adjustment	.35			
Δ Perceived Stress		-1.56	.40	-.31**
Δ Anxiety		-8.01	2.36	-.27*
Δ Avoidance		-9.13	2.83	-.23*
Openness to Experience		.99	.73	.11
Extraversion		.60	.48	.10
Agreeableness		.90	.64	.11
Neuroticism		.29	.38	.06
Negative Valence		-.11	.90	-.01
Conscientiousness		.35	.44	.06
ΔSocial Adjustment	.18			
Δ Anxiety		-1.00	.43	-.21*
Δ Avoidance		-1.46	.54	-.24*
Δ Perceived Stress		-.09	.07	-.12
Openness to Experience		.12	.13	.09
Extraversion		.08	.09	.09
Agreeableness		.02	.11	.02
Neuroticism		.03	.07	.03
Negative Valence		-.14	.16	-.08
Conscientiousness		.05	.09	.06
ΔPersonal Adjustment	.25			
Δ Perceived Stress		-.33	.08	-.34**
Δ Anxiety		-.64	.49	-.11
Δ Avoidance		-.11	.58	-.02
Openness to Experience		.40	.15	.24*
Extraversion		-.11	.09	.09*
Agreeableness		.04	.13	.02
Neuroticism		.03	.07	-.03
Negative Valence		-.17	.18	.07
Conscientiousness		.11	.09	.10
ΔAdjustment to Opposite Gender	.30			
Δ Perceived Stress		-.17	.08	-.16*
Δ Anxiety		-1.29	.49	-.21*
Δ Avoidance		-3.17	.59	-.40**
Openness to Experience		.14	.15	.08
Extraversion		.08	.09	.07
Agreeableness		.06	.13	.04
Neuroticism		.05	.15	.04
Negative Valence		-.17	.19	-.07
Conscientiousness		.08	.09	.07
ΔAdjustment to University Environment	.18			
Δ Perceived Stress		-.39	.15	-.22*
Δ Avoidance		-3.26	1.09	-.24**
Δ Anxiety		-.69	.91	-.06*
Openness to Experience		.11	.28	.04
Extraversion		.22	.18	.11
Agreeableness		.63	.25	.21

	Neuroticism	.14	.15	.08
	Negative Valence	-.33	.35	-.08
	Conscientiousness	.18	.17	.09
Δ Emotional Adjustment		.43		
	Δ Perceived Stress	-.41	.11	-.27**
	Δ Avoidance	-.04	.80	-.01
	Δ Anxiety	-4.13	.66	-.45**
	Openness to Experience	.28	.21	.11
	Extraversion	.20	.13	.12
	Agreeableness	.22	.17	.08
	Neuroticism	.11	.11	.07
	Negative Valence	.16	.05	.05
	Conscientiousness	-.03	.12	-.02
Δ Academic Adjustment		.06		
	Δ Perceived Stress	-.20	.09	-.18**
	Δ Avoidance	1.08	.73	.12
	Δ Anxiety	.25	.61	.03
	Openness to Experience	.07	.19	.03
	Extraversion	-.11	.12	-.09
	Agreeableness	.04	.17	.02
	Neuroticism	.06	.09	.05
	Negative Valence	-.19	.23	-.07
	Conscientiousness	-.06	.12	-.05

Notes. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .001$; Δ = difference score from fall to spring semester B = unstandardized Beta; SE = standard error ; b = standardized regression coefficient.

4.5.4. Predictive Relationship between Perceived Stress Change and Attachment Security Change

One hypothesis of the present study is that whether changes in perceived stress might relate to changes in attachment styles or not. To test this hypothesis, regression analysis conducted. Results revealed that changes in perceived stress are a statistically significant predictor of changes in attachment styles, explaining 17% of the variance. An increase within attachment style from fall to spring semester might be significantly predicted from an increase in perceived stress ($\beta = .41, p < .001$).

Table 4.21. Multiple Regression Analysis Results for Attachment Change

	<i>R</i> ²	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>β</i>
Attachment Dimensions	.17			
Perceived Stress		.08	.02	.41**
Constant				

*p< .01



CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This study examined interrelations between attachment styles, personality traits, perceived stress and university adjustment. Perceived stress, personality traits, and attachment dimensions were treated as predictive variables, whereas university adjustment and its subdimensions were considered as outcome variables. This thesis started with the introduction section in which information about the study was given. Within the second chapter, previous researches that studied attachment dimensions, personality traits, perceived stress and University adjustment outlined as a basis for the present study. Each variable had its own topic that includes the literature review specific to them. The third chapter included information about the method and sample of this study. Results of the analyses (including used statistical methods) for the first part, a second part and for the relations between them presented within the fourth chapter. So, this chapter will be the one in which discussions on analyses results of the present study will be given in consideration of previous studies. New findings and contributions to previous literature presented and ideas for future studies provided. Limitations of the study and underlined suggestions added.

5.1. General Inferences from Preliminary Analyses

As the present study is longitudinal and has two parts, this part dedicated to the findings of the study's first phase. Perceived Stress Scale, College Adaptation Scale, Basic Personality Traits Inventory, Experiences in Close Relationships Scale. And Relationship Questionnaire used to assess all measures of the study. Results related to the demographic information discussed below.

5.1.1. General Inferences regarding Demographic Variables and Measures of the Study

Within this part, only statistically significant results discussed. For attachment dimensions (anxiety and avoidance), statistically significant difference occurred only between gender groups. Results revealed that females were likely to have higher anxiety levels than males. According to Bartholomew and Horowitz's (1991) study, women showed preoccupied attachment style more while men showed dismissive attachment style more. As preoccupied attachment style characterized by high attachment anxiety, present finding is consistent with this result. On the other hand, avoidance dimension did not differ across gender groups, which is not consistent with the finding that men mostly show dismissive attachment style. This might be a simple reason of cultural diversity. Again, Western culture is used in attachment studies dominantly, and the difference between men and women regarding dismissive attachment might simply be the result of cultural diversity. Women who attended universities are most likely to aim to gain economic independence, which will make them perceive themselves stronger and equal to men. Eagly and Wood (1999) stated that when 'nurturer' role is not women's priority, the discrepancy between male and female psychology on relationships gets smaller. So, women with more modern gender role perceptions might be as dismissive as men regarding attachment. Also, women who attend university might be from families where girls and boys treated equally without focusing on 'gender.' From an evolutionary point, university 'the stressful environment' might cause female students to show more dismissive tendencies. As high-stress environments affect women's mating strategies by just triggering short-term mating tendency (Belsky, 1991) and dismissive attachment is characterized by short-term mating tendencies (Kirkpatrick, 1998), it is not surprising to find similar results for men and women in the present study.

When University adjustment is considered, participants showed differences regarding gender, their hometown relationship status, perceived friendship number sufficiency and familial income level. Six sub-dimensions of the college adaptation scale were used as the independent variables. Only emotional adjustment scale and

adjustment to opposite gender scale differed across gender groups; female students presented lower levels on both of the dimensions than male students did. Transition to university found to be harder for women, emotionally (Fisher & Hood, 1987; Gall, Evans, & Bellerose, 2000). Marmarosh and Markin (2007), within their studies in which they used Adaptation to College Questionnaire, found that academic adjustment did not differ across gender groups, meaning that present study is consistent with the literature.

Participants from İzmir showed a higher level of adjustment to the university environment, which is generally characterized by feeling familiar with the dominant culture/ norms/world view of the university than participants who attended the university from other cities. They also showed higher levels of personal adjustment, which mainly consists of a positive view of self. As students who attend to university from another city spend most of their times to form new social networks while the ones from the same town already have these networks (Paul & Brier, 2001; Hays & Oxley, 1986). Students from İzmir might feel more comfortable with this new university environment and feel less alone because they have their pre-formed social networks in İzmir, the same town with the university. This might simply be the reason why students from İzmir showed higher adaptation levels in the present study, they would not have an urge to form new relations or forming relationships would not be their priority. Furthermore, homesickness is not an issue for them, which would affect the emotional well-being of a student and be the reason why student from other towns showed worse personal adjustment in the present study.

Perceived friendship number sufficiency found related to all subscales of the college adaptation scale. While students rely more heavily on school peers than parents during their first year in University (Tao, Dong, Pratt, Hunsberger, & Pancer, 2000) and when students have good support networks, they show better adjustment (Hays & Oxley, 1986). Present findings that include students who thought they had enough number of friends were stated higher academic, personal, emotional, social adjustment levels and better adjustment to the university environment and opposite gender scores. These results are consistent with the previous studies as good support networks foster adjustment. On the other hand, participants who have a romantic relationship during the study had shown better adjustment to opposite gender than participants had. Being in a relationship might make them learn opposite gender's

behavior patterns and be familiar with opposite gender. On the contrary, only personal adjustment differed across familial income groups, high-income levels associated with high adaptation levels. Economic stress might affect well-being of a student and might result in worse personal adaptation.

When personality is taken into consideration, males and females show differences in all personality traits except extraversion and conscientiousness. Females showed higher levels of agreeableness whereas males showed higher levels of openness to experience, negative valence, and neuroticism. These findings were partly similar to the results of a study done by Burton, Hafetz, & Henninger, (2007), through which women presented higher neuroticism and agreeableness, as well as higher extraversion than men were. In the present study, most of the male participants were the ones who left their hometown for University, this might be the reason for higher neuroticism levels, what is more, female participants were likely to perceive their friendship number as sufficient which might lower their neuroticism levels and negative valence levels. Furthermore, having enough number of friends would result in higher social support perception, which in turn provides higher well-being, self-esteem, and emotional stability. Negative valence is known as negative thoughts/ perceptions about self and emotional instability, so, females showing less negative valence might be acceptable here.

Regarding perceived friendship number sufficiency participants did only differed across extraversion, students who thought they have enough number of friends were more extrovert than their counterparts. Extrovert individuals are more talkative, less shy, and more spontaneous when they meet with strangers (Paulhus & Trapnell, 1998). They do not seek for deep dyadic relationships, being spontaneous might make them form more relationships and have more satisfaction from these relationships. Having higher activity levels and high threshold for socialization this personality trait contains basic motivation to obtain rewards through social situations. Furthermore, extrovert individuals are more likely to experience positive affect in social situations (Denissen & Penke, 2008; Elphick, Halverson, & Marszal-Wisniewska, 1998; Fleeson, Malanos, & Achille, 2002;). Rewarding effect of the social interactions might be the motivation for extroverts to form various new relationships. Again, individuals with high extraversion rates tend to select friends more, possibly because of increased positive affect in new social situations. On the

other hand higher Extraversion is associated with more peer acceptance (Scholte, Van Aken, & Van Lieshout, 1997), which might increase the number of friends and the level satisfaction from these friendships for extroverts.

Perceived Stress differed across gender groups, perceived friendship number sufficiency, and attachment groups. Female students, students who thought they do not have enough number of friends and students with insecure attachment styles (preoccupied, fearful and dismissive) presented higher levels of perceived stress than their counterparts did. Matud (2004) found that females had higher levels of daily and chronic stress although they experience fewer life events when compared to males within last two years. Perceiving friendship number as sufficient or not plays an important role for perceived stress. Students might experience the transition to university either as very stressful or very easy regarding their personal resources, which include a number of social relations/ friends and closely relate with perceived social support (McDougall & Hymel, 1998). As a result, perceived friendship sufficiency affect perceived social support, which associates with perceived stress significantly. Therefore, the less the support is, the more the perceived stress would be. On the other hand, perceived support depends on the perception of being loved and valued by others. During stressful times, their support is reliable (Collins & Feeney, 2004). Relying on others' support and feeling comfortable with asking help is a significant characteristic of securely attached individuals and reduces the effects of stress. On the contrary, insecurely attached individuals show exact opposite of these behaviors; this would make them have higher stress levels.

5.1.2. General Inferences from Correlations

This part will be an overview of the correlation analyses done for the first part of this study. When attachment took into consideration, openness to experience and extraversion were higher for the secure group and neuroticism was greater for the insecure groups. Anxiety and Avoidance dimensions of the attachment were found positively correlated with negative valence and neuroticism, whereas they all negatively correlated with the remaining personality traits. Extraversion and Openness to experience showed highest rates. Securely attached individuals are more willing to explore their environment and find themselves in new situations (Cassidy

& Berlin, 1994), they were accepted to be more extrovert and open to experience at the beginning of the present study. Regarding insecure attachment styles, preoccupied individuals had higher scores for agreeableness and negative valence. For individuals with preoccupied attachment style being approved by others is the most important thing (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), and negative self-view is an obvious characteristic of this attachment style (Cassidy, 2001). As agreeableness is crucial for fitting in a group, and negative view of self is a common point with negative valence, obtained results from the present study are in fact the expected findings when before mentioned features of preoccupied attachment style is considered. Fearful individuals had the highest neuroticism scores. Neurotic individuals tend to have more negative affectivity which makes them have negative views for their environment and as fearful attachment style is characterized by having a negative view of others, less social relationships and support, this finding is acceptable. In general, the view of self and others might be the basis for positive and high correlations between anxiety/ avoidance and neuroticism/negative valence. Furthermore, these findings are consistent with previous studies, which reveal the associations between insecure attachment styles, engaging in negative relationships, conflicts, and finding less support when needed (Gallo, Smith, & Ruiz, 2003). On the other hand, securely attached individuals indicated higher adjustment to university levels than insecurely attached ones. Being freshmen, in fact, might be handled as a strange situation experience; securely attached individuals show excitement and exploration behaviors rather than anxious and avoidant behaviors during their first year of university. It is also known that their self-evaluations are positive and they have high self-esteem, which is a key factor for personal and social adjustment within university environment. Furthermore, low interaction anxiety may have implications on social relations that the individual might have greater competence in peer relationships as well. Low interaction anxiety might also indicate that students with secure attachment experienced 'leaving hometown' process more easily when leaving home to go to college (Mattanah et al., 2004). These might be the reason why securely attached individuals show better adjustment process. On the other hand, insecurely attached individuals perceive either themselves or others negatively. They have more negative perception of the university environment and less desire for developing new social bonds because of their insecurity. Anxiety led to fears of rejection, social skills deficits, and isolation (Wei, 2005) and these might result in

worse adjustment process of the insecurely attached individuals within the present study.

Regarding perceived stress, anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment showed negative correlations with this variable. While the levels of secure attachment increased, perceived stress levels indicated a decrease pattern. In contrast, adults who reported high levels of perceived stress also reported elevated levels of anxiety or avoidance. These findings are consistent with previous research which found that securely attached individuals demonstrate more efficient participation in social structures when they are in need of help and have a tendency to use problem-focused strategies when they faced with stressful events, (Ciechanowski, Sullivan, Jensen, Romano, & Summers, 2003; Hunter & Maunder, 2001; Mikulincer & Florian, 1998). Studies found that insecurely attached individuals are at higher risk for stress vulnerability when compared with the securely attached individuals who generally have greater resiliency. (Gallo & Matthews, 2006; Hawkins, Howard, & Oyeboode, 2007). Participants with higher levels of neuroticism showed the greater levels of perceived stress. According to the studies done by Schneider (2004), Grant & Fox (2006), Lau (2003), Matud (2004); neurotic individuals have high tendency to perceive most of the environmental stimulus as threatening and when faced with stressors they perceive even the daily situations as stressful compared to other personality traits. These might be an explanation why neuroticism has the highest correlation with the perceived stress in the present research because beginning to university is not a daily situation and these individuals tend to perceive any problem as threatening, even the small and daily ones. As expected, all university adjustment subscales negatively correlated with perceived stress, but emotional adjustment subscale showed highest correlation rate.

Neuroticism correlated negatively with University adjustment whereas extraversion and openness to experience showed higher positive correlations with it. Negative valence showed higher negative and significant correlation for personal adjustment, which characterized by positive personal evaluations of oneself especially when faced with new environments. Negative valence related with negative self-evaluations and low self-esteem, which are the exact opposites of personal adjustment features. So, finding a negative relationship between these two variables (negative valence and personal adjustment) are in accordance with the

expectations, students who have less self-esteem and negative self-view might find it hard to adjust personally within this new environment and their perceptions of incapability would increase resulting in less favorable opinions about self. Furthermore, better social skills and higher motivation for challenging situations, also positive evaluations of self-capability and self are the main features of extraversion and openness to experience. These mentioned features of the two personality traits would protect students from all stressful demands of university life (like homesickness, presentations, exams, mastering a new language, forming new relationships etc.) by making these demands perceived as not being that stressful and new sources for activities as these personality traits' threshold for stimulations is higher than rest of the four personality traits (Eysenck, 1991).

5.1.3. General Inferences from Regression Analyses

After evaluating the differences regarding demographic information and correlations, the predictive relationships between attachment, personality, perceived stress and University adjustment assessed. Perceived Stress levels significantly predicted total University adjustment, openness to experience, extraversion, avoidant and anxious attachment styles. All predictive variables explained 64% of the variance for Overall University Adjustment. Since life transitions generally triggered stress, beginning to university is expected to be predicted mostly by the perceived stress Freshmen face with many new issues, like change in sleeping habits; vacations/breaks; change in eating habits; increased workload, new responsibilities, the workload required in college, competition among students, difficulty of the curriculum, homesickness, financial management, performance anxiety being approved, new social environment (Schneider, 2002; Saracoglu, Minden, & Wilchesky, 1989; Abouserie, 1994; Johnson, Batia, & Hauan, 2008). Freshmen also need to succeed many of these issues during an inadequate period of time. Extraversion by consisting of positive affect, assertiveness, and gregariousness might be useful for forming new friendships and passing peer acceptance challenges easily (Anderson, John, Keltner, & Kring, 2001; Holahan, Valentiner, & Moos, 1994). These features might foster adjustment in all ways (academic, personal, emotional etc.) because of providing more social support to the individual. Furthermore,

openness to experience causes thinking flexibility and high motivation/interest for new ideas, individuals, places, thoughts that might make adaptation to life transitions easier. Conscientiousness causes self-discipline and better personal organization which might be important for academic adjustment and achievement. Both anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment predicted adjustment too, with avoidance showing more predictive variance than anxiety. Since avoidant individuals characterized by avoiding disappointment and they have a tendency to withdraw easily (Shi, 2003), creating new social bonds might take longer which might affect the adaptation period too. Tao and colleagues (2000) showed that perceived social support was related to academic, personal-emotional, and social adjustment during the 3rd and 15th weeks of the first semester which would be the reason why anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment predict worse adjustment levels, as they characterized by either being too close or away from others. Also, freshmen's adjustment was negatively predicted (Chroniak, 1998; Endler & Parker, 1990; Heiman, 2004; Tuna, 2003) by avoidance coping strategies (Lazarus, 1993; Roth & Cohen, 1986) which had the same pattern with the present findings.

Since university adjustment is multifaceted, all of the subscales (personal adjustment, social adjustment, and adjustment to opposite gender, adjustment to the university environment, academic adjustment and emotional adjustment) entered into separate regression analyses too. To begin with, personal adjustment, all predictive variables explained 45% of the variance. Only openness to experience, agreeableness, perceived stress, anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment were the significant predictors. In the present study, students with high openness to experience levels showed better personal adjustment as openness has the concept of a tendency to be intellectually and socially curious to new ideas, values, people, and environment. These individuals generally have high confidence rates and positive self-evaluations (Costa & McCrae, 1992), which make them, fit better into a new social groups and positive self-evaluations with high self-esteem rates are the general features of personal adjustment. So, predictive value of Openness to Experience for Personal Adjustment was one of the findings that is expected in the present study. Furthermore, low anxiety and avoidance (attachment) levels predicted better personal adjustment among students in the current study. As mentioned before, Personal adjustment targets to rate self-confidence, self-approval, and self-esteem and these features mostly relates with the working models of self and others which are highly

negative when anxiety or avoidance levels of attachment increases and which are mainly triggered when faced with new situations or stressful events. While attending to university is both new and a stressful event for freshmen, these triggered features of attachment would be the reason why high secure attachment predicts high personal adjustment. On the other hand, Locus of control and high self-esteem has significant importance for university adjustment, and they are main features of securely attached individuals (Bettencourt, Charlton, Eubanks, & Kernahan, 1999; Njus & Brockway, 1999; Sun-Selişik, 2009). These would help more securely attached students to cope with university process which means significant challenges and stress for freshmen to meet the personal demands of the new academic and social environment (Berzonsky & Kuk, 2000; Chickering & Reisser, 1993; D'Augelli & Jay, 1991; Dyson & Renk, 2006; Lau, 2003; Tuna, 2003) better in the present study. So, it is not surprising to find that low anxiety, avoidance, perceived stress and high openness to experience predict better personal adjustment.

Baker and Siryk (1984) explained academic adjustment, as "*attitudes towards academic goals and the academic work they are required to do; how well they are applying themselves to their academic work; the effectiveness or sufficiency of their academic efforts; and the acceptability to them of their academic environment and what facets it is offering them*" (p. 181). Academic adjustment indicates students' coping and achievement with the academic expectations of university and this subdimension of university adjustment was significantly predicted only by conscientiousness and perceived stress. All predictive variables explained 20% of the variance for academic adjustment. Previous research revealed that conscientiousness is the strongest predictor of academic adjustment Poropat (2009), which is in accordance with the present study's findings. Students with high conscientiousness levels would have more academic motivations as conscientiousness is characterized by being task oriented (Eysneck, 1991). What is more, this personality trait causes more responsibility feelings when compared to other personality traits, which would help students to be more insistent on their academic duties and study hard. On the other hand, increases in stress among freshmen predicted worse academic adjustment in the present study, which is in the same direction with the studies found that stress interferes with academic achievement by lowering academic self-confidence, decreasing students' willingness to show academic effort and even causing dropouts (Wintre and Yaffe, 2000).

Regarding social adjustment, all predictive variables explained 42% of the variance. Perceived stress, avoidance and anxiety dimensions of attachment were the significant predictors. Social adjustment basically includes relationships with friends, participation in social activities, and free time management, dealing with a new social environment effectively by establishing positive and accepting friendships and being involved in social activities on campus (Baker & Siryk, 1986). Low-stress perception predicted higher social adjustment for students in current study. The reason for that is because developing new friendships, forming pleasing interpersonal relationships on campus, and socially integrating into university life play a significant role in successful adjustment to university by decreasing negative expectations about university (Astin, 1993; Baker & Siryk, 1984; Bonhert, Aikins, & Eddin, 2007; Dextras, 1993; Freeman, Anderman, & Jensen, 2007; Karahan, Sardoğan, Ozkamalı, & Dicle, 2005; Langston & Cantor, 1989; Lorang, Terenzini, & Pascarella, 1981; Wise & King, 2008). On the other hand, students with low avoidance and anxiety levels of attachment, who are securely attached, showed better social adjustment. This would be because of maintaining a stable view of self and others across different situations as more securely attached individuals tend to have high levels of self-esteem that is the positive or negative attitudes toward oneself (Rosenberg, 1965) and elevated levels of personal worthiness (Coopersmith, 1967). Also, high self-esteem related to greater social adjustment in a number of studies (Geist & Borecki, 1982; Rice, 1999). Furthermore, low anxiety levels predicting high social adjustment scores among current study's participants was expected. Similar to securely attached children exploring environment (Cassidy & Berlin, 1994) and seeking care (Cassidy, 2001), secure students would seek out care and advance their capacities to form intimate relationships while being totally confident with themselves, unlike their avoidant and anxious counterparts. Since avoidance dimension of attachment is characterized by avoiding to form relationships with newly met individuals because of being distracted with negative working models of others. It's not surprising to find low elusion, anticipating high social adjustment rates in the current study. Students with low elusion would have positive impressions of others and be motivated to form relationships with them.

Adjustment to opposite sex defined by safe and comfortable relationships with each gender and ability, motivation to form worthy romantic relationships were significantly predicted by avoidance and anxiety dimension of attachment, openness

to experience and extraversion. All predictive variables clarified 50% of the variance. Low avoidance levels mean being more willing to form relationships and perceiving others more reliable while having more positive view of self, participants with low elusion would try to learn about others while maintaining high self-esteem. Low Anxiety levels predicted better adjustment pattern since it means having low dependence on others and having a stable view of self. Individuals who show high dependence in their relationships might fear others and even might make others stay away from these people. This is, in fact, the paradox of being highly anxious; not wanted by others while craving to form relationships with them. So, not being perceived as so 'needy' and 'dependent' would be the reason why less anxious individuals have better adjustment process. When character traits are the concern, only extraversion and openness to experience indicated significant predictive power. Beyond all of the before-mentioned features of these traits, in the current study, relationship satisfaction might be the reason why these individuals show better adjustment. Because some of the previous studies have found that extroversion is a strong predictor of relationship satisfaction (Malouff 2010; White, 2004) Extroversion and Openness associated with greater satisfaction in relationships (Shiota & Levenson, 2007).

Adjustment to the university environment, which might be regarded as the institutional adjustment, is affected by institutional identity and sense of belongingness to the department and the university. Freshmen's commitment to a particular university is the most important factor for adjustment (Baker and Siryk, 1984). Perceived stress, anxiety and avoidance dimension of attachment and openness to experience were the significant predictors. All predictive variables explained 38% of the variance for Adjustment to University Environment. Openness to experience and low perceived stress levels, anxiety and avoidance associated with better adjustment to university's rules, culture, way of teaching, etc.. Students with an avoidant attachment style would have the tendency to 'flight' when faced with a stressor about the university and might even drop-out as avoidance coping strategies that predicted the adjustment of first-year college students negatively (Chroniak, 1998; Endler & Parker, 1990; Heiman, 2004; Tuna, 2003). High openness to experience is the trait with high positive attitude towards interrelations in any situation. This trait also provides great motivation to face with challenging circumstances, like forming new social relationships. These features of openness to

experience might provide individuals with greater satisfaction with their social relationships and might help them fit in an unfamiliar environment easily. This might be the reason why students with high levels of openness to experience, feel belonged to the university and their new social environment in the current study. Moreover, motivation brought satisfaction and enjoyment towards college life (Baker, 2004; Shankland, Genolini, Franc, Guel, & Ionescu, 2010). That would be the reason why freshmen with higher motivation lower their dropout possibility rate and show more commitment to their university within the current study. On the other hand, this character trait helps students find social support easily when needed. This availability would make them feel more familiar with their university environment. Halamandaris and Power's (1999) study showed high satisfaction with the social and academic components of university life which was predicted by perceived social support is likely to be greater for the character traits listed above.

Emotional adjustment significantly predicted by perceived stress, extraversion, openness to experience, neuroticism, agreeableness, avoidance and anxiety dimensions of attachment. All predictive variables explained 57% of the variance. Since emotional adjustment includes well-being of the students and stress affects physical and psychological health negatively, it is not surprising to find low perceived stress levels predicting better emotional adjustment in this current study. Extraversion, Agreeableness, Openness to Experience and Neuroticism were predictive character traits of emotional adjustment. High extraversion, openness to experience, low agreeableness and neuroticism were related to better adjustment. Low levels of interpersonal problems, a predictive feature of students with high extroversion and openness to experience, resulted in higher emotional adjustment (Zuckerman, 1998). On the contrary, high neuroticism levels might lead to distortions in perception of social cues. This might cause high levels of interpersonal problems. In the current study; the reason why highly neurotic students showed worse emotional adjustment. In the same manner, high neuroticism found as a significant causal factor in less satisfaction of life and as the leading factor for worse outcomes during critical life transitions (McCrae & Costa, 1996), did also reveal a similar pattern with previous studies in the current study. So, the finding that high neuroticism is related with worse adjustment is completely in accordance with the earlier studies. Surprisingly, agreeableness, a character trait characterized by providing harmony within relationships, showed a negative correlation with

emotional adjustment. Additionally, consistent with the findings, extraversion, and openness (to experience) have a positive tendency and high motivation to deal with stressful life events while being in need of large numbers of relationships, revealed a positive correlation with emotional adjustment. The reason why agreeableness showed such an interesting association might be because of trying to fit in too much without giving attention to personal needs as this has been found to help students get along and avoid conflicts with roommates and classmates (Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, & Hair, 1996). Of course, peer relations and belonging to a group are the most important challenges for freshmen. However, discontent for personal needs, focusing only on others' desires and pretending to be someone else, might be the reason why individuals with high agreeableness displayed low emotional adjustment.

5.2. General Inferences for Longitudinal Study (Fall and Spring Semesters)

As expected, adult attachment styles were moderately stable through fall to spring semester transition; indeed, these recognized altered patterns are in accordance with those reported by other investigators (Baldwin & Fehr, 1995; Davila, Burge and Hammen, 1997; Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1994). Participants in the present study were divided into four change groups, according to their attachment style and change patterns before examining the independent and interactive contributions of change groups on the two sets of repeated measures (perceived stress and adjustment). Four attachment change groups (secure to secure, secure to insecure, insecure to secure, insecure to insecure) significantly varied across changes in perceived stress scores. Furthermore, finding the predictive values of changes in perceived stress on changes in attachment; changes in attachment dimensions (anxiety and avoidance, as they are extended attachment variables) were calculated. perceived stress change explained 20 % of the variance in attachment style change. These results were consistent with the previous studies as Davila, Burge, and Hammen (1997) who found that attachment style stabilities ranged from 72% to 50 % for a six-month period. The reason why students showed attachment style changes from Fall semester to Spring semester would be a result of their cognitive appraisals in the current study as Davila et al. (1997) found that attachment style changes (either toward or away from security) and generally functioned as an

individual difference variable associated with stable vulnerability factors such as personality, susceptibility to change and perceived stress.

A decreasing pattern for university adjustment (except adaptation to university environment dimension) was observed from fall to spring semester, unlike the expectations at the beginning of the study. However, the finding that adjustment declined from Fall to Spring semester is, in fact, consistent with the literature (Tao, Dong, Pratt, Hunsberger, Pancer, 2000; Gall et al., 2000). Statistics show that up to 30% of first year students do not advance from first to second year (Wintre et al. 2006) and students who plan to drop out at the end of the first academic year because of their poor adjustment process would be the reason why students scored more poorly through fall to spring semester, rather than better, in the current study. On the other hand, an increasing pattern for perceived stress was also observed from fall to spring in the current study and this might be the strongest reason for the impairments in overall adjustment for our sample. In fact, negative correlations between perceived stress and adjustment was hypothesized at the beginning of the study, so this hypothesis might be argued on to get partial support at the end of the current study (because of the dimensions of adjustment that showed an increase pattern between two study points). Additionally, many studies (Tinto, 1993, 1996; Martin Jr., Swartz, & Madson, 1999; Ackermann & Morrow, 2007-2008) indicated that there is a large number of students who cannot fulfill their obligations and complete their studies within the first year of university. This might rationalize these contrary findings of the current study and is consistent with the idea of the 'freshman myth' (proposed by Stern in 1966). According to this myth, students hold an overly positive idea of what university will be like, and an inflated idea of what their capabilities are for the university demands. When they face the reality, and they are unable to do as well as they imagined they would do, adjustment declines (Baker et al., 1985). When applied to present sample, it might be argued that students would have already seen what the university life will be like by the middle of the first semester, and felt dissatisfied with the gap between how they initially thought they would do, and how they are actually doing over the course of the year (Baker et al. 1985). On the other hand, declines in adjustment in the present sample might simply be the result of the fact that spring measurement coincided with a harder time in the academic year. This brings the thought that two semesters might not be very similar regarding their demands. Spring semester included final exams for passing the class. This might

simply explain the increase in perceived stress and decrease in adjustment within the present sample. Furthermore, the workload may be very different between first and second semesters, which then affects the stress level of the students and might explain the reason why perceived stress levels increased within the present sample.

When the dramatic change in academic demands is considered, impairment within academic adjustment might be meaningful, as all these requirements are different from the previous education levels. Furthermore, Yaşar University offers an education in English, so mastery of this language is another academic must, to be successful and sufficient. Particularly, students have to deal with learning a new language if they want to master their field of interest. Not being able to understand the dynamics of this foreign language might decrease the motivation for studying. Even though students go through and understand the process of preparatory school, which is an expected pattern concerning adaptation, they might perceive academic demands as the strongest stressor. This, in turn, might lead to a decrease for academic adjustment. To begin studying in their departments, students need to pass this preparatory class in Yaşar University. This is another reason why academic demands would be perceived as stressors in the present study. Moreover, greater perceived stress for academic demands would cause the decrease pattern in academic adjustment for the present sample as Gloria and Kurpius (2001) found that higher stress scores were associated with dropping out or academic failures. Dropping out or low academic success is the exact opposites of academic adjustment. Beyond all of these, students who are incapable of understanding English as well as their peers might experience a decrease within their self-esteem, which then again results in showing less effort to their studies with less motivation to focus on the incompetence of themselves. Regarding the attachment style change groups, secure to secure change group and insecure to secure change group showed an increased overall adjustment pattern whereas secure to insecure and insecure to insecure attachment groups showed a decreased overall adjustment pattern. These results support the hypothesis that adjusting ability highly depends on an individual's autonomy and level of security (Mattanah, Hancock, & Brand, 2004).

As the strongest correlation for perceived stress change was with the emotional adjustment in the present study, the decrease within this adjustment dimension was not surprising too. While emotional adjustment is related to perceived

self, self-esteem and emotional stability, increased perceived stress levels might cause a decrease within self-esteem, as the student feel less capable over demands of the university; students might hardly provide emotional stability because of feeling incapable, which would explain the decrease in emotional adjustment for the present sample. On the other hand, nearly half of the participants left their hometowns for studying at Yaşar University, which would cause extra emotional demands like homesickness, feelings of loneliness or maybe a cultural discrepancy. Having a positive sense of self might prevent students from developing generalized negative cognitive styles that associate with decreased emotional adjustment and self-satisfaction.

5.2.1. Regression

Using a longitudinal design, the joint effects of anxiety, avoidance, and perceived stress, explained about a quarter to just over half of the variance for adjustment measures in the present study. Previous studies had indicated that adult attachment styles are only moderately stable, and observed changes in attachment styles might reflect psychologically significant variability (Baldwin & Fehr, 1995; Davila et al., 1997). Separate regression analysis for each sub-dimension of adjustment supported this view. While university adjustment scale had various sub-dimensions, a simple pattern of relations between predictor variables and outcome variables did not emerge. Rather, contributions of attachment dimension, perceived stress and personality were complex and depended on the adjustment index that is being examined. In general, higher levels of anxiety, avoidance or perceived stress were related to worse adjustment process in the present sample. Students who experienced increases in their stress levels over the 20-week period showed impairments in personal, emotional, academic, social, overall adjustment and adjustment to opposite gender in the present study. Since first year of the university makes students experience the highest levels of stress by demanding academic, personal, emotional and social challenges in this new environment, present sample's pattern is expected. While students adapt their environment, their stress levels are supposed to decrease over time, resulting in notable improvements across the different adjustment indices. However, within the present study, results showed the

exact opposite pattern: perceived stress levels of the students increased whereas adjustment levels decreased. Changes in overall university adjustment were significantly predicted by changes in perceived stress, anxiety, avoidance and by openness to experience. All predictors explained 35% of the total variance for change in overall university adjustment. For the present study, perceived stress scores showed an increase from fall to spring semester, while overall university adjustment decreased. Again, all new challenging demands were the Stressors that would affect adjustment process negatively in the present sample. A similar pattern is seen for changes in anxiety and avoidance dimensions of attachment: as they increased, adjustment levels decreased. It is known that freshmen's adjustment was negatively predicted (Chroniak, 1998; Endler & Parker, 1990; Heiman, 2004; Tuna, 2003) by avoidance coping strategies (Lazarus, 1993; Roth & Cohen, 1986), so while avoidance patterns increased within the present sample, it is acceptable to have impairments in overall adjustment.

Regarding changes in social adjustment, the changes in avoidance and anxiety were the significant predictors, and all predictive variables explained 18 % of the total variance. Developing new friendships, forming pleasing interpersonal relationships on campus, and socially integrating into university life play a significant role in successful adjustment to university (Astin, 1993; Baker & Siryk, 1984; Bonhert, Aikins, & Edidin, 2007; Dextras, 1993; Freeman, Anderman, & Jensen, 2007; Karahan, Sardoğan, Ozkamalı, & Dicle, 2005; Langston & Cantor, 1989; Lorang, Terenzini, & Pascarella, 1981; Wise & King, 2008). Similar to secure children exploring environment (Cassidy & Berlin, 1994) and seeking care (Cassidy, 2001), secure adults seek care and foster their capacities to form intimate relationships while being totally confident with themselves. These features are the exact opposites of avoidance dimension. While not being able to seek care efficiently and having negative others perception, making friends, discovering the university environment or forming intimate relationships would be hard for avoidant students in the present study. These features make social adjustment more difficult. While one study of social support found that freshmen relied more heavily on school peers than parents over time (Tao et al., 2000), it is acceptable for anxious or avoidant students, who are not able to form healthy relations, to experience less social adjustment during their first year in Yaşar University. As secure attachment provides greater competence in peer relationships (Engels et al., 2001) and more positive adjustment

to the separation from pre-formed friendships, family, and significant others when leaving home to go to university, the negative pattern between attachment dimensions (anxiety and avoidance) and social adjustment would occur among present sample. What is more, in a study, students with high anxiety and avoidance levels were randomly assigned to a social support intervention group to increase their social support networks, and in the end, they appeared to adjust better than students who did not receive the intervention. Social support networks would have an extreme importance for social adjustment of the present sample since becoming integrated into the social life of the university: forming an efficient support network and managing to be socially free are the essential elements of social adjustment (Hays & Oxley, 1986). On the other hand, an increase in avoidance levels might lower the chance to get these pre-mentioned essential elements of social adjustment. What is more, the perception of inadequate social support that would occur in high anxiety or avoidance levels of attachment is one of the important factors for attrition. Moreover, this is the exact opposite of social adjustment (Mallinckrodt, 1988). Having inadequate social support would be the reason for decrease in social adjustment from Fall to Spring Semester. Because of the necessity of belonging to a peer group and being able to get support, like most of the securely attached students, do for better social adjustment, increases while feelings of homesickness and loneliness are the most commonly reported crisis among freshmen (Rich & Scovel, 1987).

Changes in perceived stress, avoidance and anxiety dimensions of attachment significantly predicted changes in adjustment to opposite gender. All predictive variables explained 30% of the variance; this is, in fact, a low to moderate prediction rate. Decreased anxiety, avoidance, and perceived stress patterns result in an increased adjustment to opposite gender pattern in the present study. Low avoidance levels mean being more willing to form relationships and perceiving others more reliable while having a more positive view of self. This kind of working model would affect the motivation for forming new relationships in the present sample. Anxiety dimension of attachment was the second predictor, and again, it is not surprising to find low anxiety levels to predict better adjustment as it means low dependence on others while having a stable view of self. Students who have a secure attachment style or increase in secure attachment levels over the first year of college would have high self-esteem rates. High self-esteem levels might make them have better relationships with the opposite gender, as they are more confident in their

abilities to attract opposite than their peers whose attachment styles show increase in avoidance or anxiety levels (Lopez, Gormly, 2002). This might affect the way they feel when they are around of opposite gender. On the other hand, it is surprising not to find any predictive value for any of the personality traits, while good interpersonal relationships shape extraversion and openness to experience, and these traits tend to show a positive correlation with secure attachment.

Changes in perceived stress, avoidance and anxiety dimensions of attachment significantly predicted changes in adjustment to university environment. All predictive variables explained 18% of the variance within the Adjustment to University Environment change. When results of the present study are considered, this sub-dimension of adjustment was the only dimension that showed an increasing pattern. Low perceived stress, avoidance and anxiety levels relate with better adjustment to university's rules, culture, way of teaching, etc.. Students with avoidant attachment style would not even try to fit in their new environment as they have tendency to 'flight' when faced with a stressor. Any kind avoidance coping strategies would make students lose their motivation to adapt with their new environment, as these strategies predicted the adjustment of first-year university students negatively (Chroniak, 1998; Endler& Parker, 1990; Heiman, 2004; Tuna, 2003). Freshmen with higher motivation to learn their environment would decrease their possibility to drop out and increase adaptation levels to University because motivation brings satisfaction and enjoyment toward college life (Baker, 2004; Shankland, Genolini, Franc, Guel, & Ionescu, 2010). Students with high anxiety and avoidance levels in the present sample would not have enough motivation; they also would show less commitment to the University environment. That is a major factor for adjustment to an institution. In the present study, students would show worse adjustment to university environment patterns because of having less commitment to the university. Because commitment was found to be a major factor for, completing a college degree without giving up and getting an academic degree is one of the significant features of adjustment to university environment (Baker & Siryk, 1984). While commitment means higher persistence rates for adaptation, stress has been identified as a factor negatively affecting persistence among college freshmen (Perrine, 1999; RiCharde, 1998). Therefore, it is acceptable to find decreased perceived stress levels predicting increased adjustment rates within the present study

Changes in emotional adjustment that targets to measure emotional states of the students across daily situations, was significantly predicted by changes in perceived stress and anxiety dimension of attachment. All predictive variables explained 43% of the variance. So, changes within perceived stress and anxiety levels predicted nearly half of the variance for changes in emotional adjustment. Again, since emotional adjustment includes well-being of students, it is not surprising to find decreasing perceived stress levels predicting better emotional adjustment patterns as stress appraisals are the dominant factors that affect an individual's emotional stability (Lazarus, 1993). Lower anxiety levels characterize secure Attachment and showing less stress upon separation from existing friendships, family, and significant others when leaving home to attend university (Mattanah et al., 2004). Since nearly half of the students that attend present study left their hometown and experienced a 'separation', the ones with low secure attachment scores would show a decreasing emotional adjustment pattern, as these were the strongest stressors that affect students' well-being. So, it is not surprising to find decreasing anxiety levels predicting an increase in emotional adjustment. Other features of securely attached individuals include talking about emotions openly and realizing the emotional states. Students who ignore their feelings or try to escape their feelings like feeling loneliness, being upset or missing home might decrease their chance to emotional adjustment within the present study, as in Kerr, Johnson, Gans and Krumrine's (2004). Kerr, Johnson, Gans and Krumrine's (2004) indicated that; students who are not willing to discuss or focus on their emotions regarding the transition to university, experienced poorer university adjustment. What is more, ignoring or trying to suppress all stress related emotional states might cause depressive-like symptoms because of using defense mechanisms much and might result in decreasing emotional adjustment pattern in the present sample. Rottenberg, Gross, and Gotlib (2003) stated that the constricted range of emotional reactions to stressful situations is associated with impaired psychological functioning, including depression and anxiety related symptoms. Also, Tao et al. (2000) found that students, whose depression-like features and anxiety levels increased over time, did show significantly worse adjustment over the first semester of university. Inability to regulate and show emotions effectively is associated with socioemotional difficulties, including impaired family and peer relations (Adrian et al., 2009; Eisenberg et al., 2001; Sheffield Morris, Silk, Steinberg, Myers, & Robinson, 2007; Silk, Steinberg,

& Sheffield Morris, 2003). Impaired family and peer relations might provide less social support when a student is in need. This may result in emotional distress and decrease in emotional adjustment. Furthermore, while all students have to deal with daily hassles, perceiving and reporting daily hassles more often have been found positively related to anxiety, psychological symptoms, and negative well-being among university students (Kohn, Lafreniere, & Gurevich, 1990; 1991) as well as they negatively relate to university adjustment (Kohn & Veres, 2001). On the other hand, transition to university years are the ones during which students generally question their relationships, self-worth, and goals (Chickering, 1969). This questioning phase might turn out as a personal crisis for the students who are more vulnerable, for instance, the ones who are more prone to stress or have insecure attachment styles. For the students, emotional adjustment might be manifested as psychological distress, anxiety, low self-esteem or even depression. These are the main factors that predispose less well-being and emotional stability (Pappas & Loring, 1985).

When changes in personal adjustment are considered, changes in perceived stress and openness to experience and extraversion regarding personality traits were the significant predictors. All predictive variables explained 25% of the total variance. Openness has the concept of tendency to be intellectually and socially curious to new ideas, values, and environment. Since personal adjustment targets to rate self-confidence, self-approval, and self-esteem across various situations and places, high openness to experience rates predicting better personal adjustment patterns. This is an expected result within the present study as individuals with high openness to experience generally have high confidence rates and positive self-evaluations (Costa & McCrae, 1992) that make them fit better into a new social group. On the other hand, Lazarus' cognitive model of stress (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984) stated that personal beliefs such as self-efficacy makes individuals perceive external demands as a "threat" or a "challenge," and individuals with high self-efficacy tend to evaluate the requirements as a challenge (Chemers, Hu, and Garcia, 2001; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Pintrich and De Groot, 1990). Transition to university requires fitting in a new environment while dealing with various stressors in the present study. Openness to experience is characterized by high self-efficacy and confidence perception. Students with high openness to experience levels would be more confident about their competence to handle transition to university process.

Also, in a number of studies, self-efficacy and stress among college students did have moderate to strong negative correlations (Gigliotti and Huff, 1995; Hackett et al., 1992; Solberg, Hale, Villarreal, and Kavanagh, 1993; Solberg and Villarreal, 1997; Torres and Solberg, 2001). The reason why students with high openness to experience levels have higher personal adjustment scores might be their low perceived stress levels that are a result of their high competence perception.

Change in academic adjustment levels (which showed a decrease pattern in the present sample) was significantly predicted by changes in perceived stress scores and extraversion. All predictive variables explained 6 % of the total variance for academic adjustment. While increasing perceived stress scores predicted worsening academic adjustment, low extraversion levels predicted better academic adjustment. This sub-dimension of adjustment did not only include a student's scholarly potential. General satisfaction with the academic demands, motivation to learn, taking action to meet academic demands are also the essential components of academic adjustment (Baker & Siryk, 1989). The reason why extroversion related with better academic adjustment might be because students with higher extraversion levels would achieve peer acceptance easily and fit in university quickly. These qualifications would make them to have more time for dealing with academic demands within the present study as having a good social support and feelings of belonging impact students' adaptation and academic performance (Lieberman, Solomon, & Ginzburg, 2005; Hwang, Wang & Sodanine, 2011). What is more, these students would be more comfortable with asking academic and personal support when needed. This might result in better understanding of the academic demands. Perceived stress was the second significant predictor of academic adjustment in the present study. This finding is in accordance with the literature since Stress and anxiety were among the important factors for low academic achievement (Pancer, Pratt, Michael, & Alisat, 2000). In general, college-related stress has been found to be inversely related to academic performance among undergraduates (Felsten and Wilcox, 1992; Pritchard and Wilson, 2003; Russell and Petrie, 1992), and among freshmen in particular (Struthers, Perry, and Menec, 2000). Because Yaşar University offers courses in English, and participants of the present study mostly consisted of students attending preparatory class, learning and performing in a foreign language might increase the perceived stress levels. Increased stress might impair academic adjustment as stress significantly associates with performance in

English (Pintrich and De Groot, 1990). On the other hand, freshmen try to form effective social support networks while dealing with various other stressors, since they are at the beginning of forming relationships, they might feel their friendship number is not sufficient and they cannot get enough help when needed. Hackett et al. (1992) concluded that perceived support is a significant predictor of cumulative grade-point average (GPA) and a high GPA generally links to better academic adjustment. Students who got low GPA scores might experience or perceive less social support or vice-versa students who perceive less social support might get low GPA scores. Thus, perceiving social support as insufficient might be the reason why present sample showed decrease pattern in academic adjustment.

5.3. Limitations and Implications

This section discusses limitations of the present study and suggests corresponding implications for future research. One limitation of the present study was that all independent variables were measured using self-report scales. According to Misra and Castillo (2004) participants might respond with socially desirable, rather than truthful answers, when self-reports are used. Self-report measures are entirely subjective; as a result, students' response might differ from time to time, in accordance with what is happening in their lives at that specific period when they participate in study. On the other hand, it is hard to find out whether the participants responded honestly or not. They might give answers according to what they thought the researcher desired to know. Attachment style scale, for instance, has very intimate questions that would trigger defensive distortion and response bias. One by one application might solve these problems, and without meeting with the participant in person. Upon this issue, George, Kaplan, and Main, (1985), suggested that future studies might use interview-based measures of adult attachment and objective personality measures as well as alternative data sources such as friends, roommates, residence hall advisors, and parents.

Also, scale applications might be made via the internet. However, this would result in giving answers without even reading the questions. Present study consisted of questions about attachment styles. Students prefer answering questions about sensitive subjects, like attachment, online (Yi-Ching Wang, 2005). In second part of

the study (that was made in April via internet), participants' responses would be more reliable because of feeling more comfortable. Furthermore, the researcher does not need to be present at scheduled appointments if the scales can be reached online at any time by the participant. This procedure provides time and cost-effective data collection. Since self-report stress measurement was also used in the present study, it is possible to get unreliable answers because of the before-mentioned reasons (social desirability, etc.). On this topic, Vogel and Wei (2005) recommended using physical stress measures to validate self-report stress measures. However, this might be too time-consuming for the researcher.

What is more, since the present study is longitudinal and participation in both application points is critical regarding having significant and reliable results, this necessity must have told the students in person. However, the importance of completing both halves of the study was not told students in person. This procedure was only presented on the informative consent page of the scales; participants may not understand the importance of participating at both time points fully or they may not read that page carefully at all. There was a substantial attrition rate from fall to spring semester in the present study. Having lower participant number at Spring Semester application places limitations on the conclusions that can be drawn from the present study. Nearly 40% of the students who completed questionnaires at Fall Semester did not contribute data at Spring Semester and most of the attrition is likely related to dropping out of the study, not from dropping out of university. High proportion of the students who did not complete spring part of the study might found the questions more intimate or long as respondents have limited tolerance for data that is collected in one occasion of the study (Davies and Dale, 1994). Losing nearly half of the sample size matters as greater sample size would increase the power of the study. Although the hypotheses of the present study did not include gender, it would have increase the validity if more males participated in the study. On the other hand, age was also important because although most of the freshmen were 18, some older students who came from other universities that closed because of Turkish Government's policies did also participate in the study, because many of them have to attend the Preparatory Class. These students might be more experienced on the transition to university issue. Furthermore, findings represent only the students from Yaşar University, which is a private university in one of the most developed cities in Turkey. So, these results might not be generalized to the students from state

universities, from the universities in more rural areas or the ones with lower SES scores.

Another limitation was using two data collection time within an academic year, whose interval was short. Data collection for this study was conducted at the beginning of the semester when students likely experience less stress and at the end of the semester when students likely have more stress because of the final exams. As situational states, feelings, perceptions etc. might affect subjective measures and spring semester is different from fall semester, changes in attachment styles or stress perception rates might be simply the result of situational states, rather than individual variations. However, many researchers have used two intervals for gathering data on a specific topic and got varying results that can be compared to each other and previous studies (Andrews & Wilding, 2004; Bernier et al., 2004; Gloria & Kurpius, 1996; Scharfe & Cole, 2006; Soucy & Larose, 2000). Furthermore, in the present longitudinal design same subjects participated repeatedly and same measurements were used at the two data collection time (Spring and Fall), it is possible that responses given in one session might be influenced by those provided in the previous session (Trivellato 1999). Regarding Recall bias, studies concerning motivational, attitudinal, cognitive or affective states are problematic, because respondents might find it hard to remember the timing of changes in these states accurately. When this statement is adapted to the present study, stress perception scale that tries to assess perceived stress from the events happened in last month might be problematic. Students would confuse their feelings on a stressful event or remember their coping capabilities in a more favorable way as time passes by (Blossfeld and Rohwer, 1995).

Stress, Attachment styles, and personality were modeled as predictors of adjustment, which is consistent with theoretical and empirical literature that has examined predictors of adjustment among college students (Chemers, Hu, & Garcia, 2001). However, others have modeled psychological (emotional) adjustment as one predictor of stress among college students (Dusselier, Dunn, Wang, Shelley, & Whalen, 2005).

Findings suggest interventions for university administrators, counselors, and student affairs practitioners. First, consistent and significant relations between perceived stress and all aspects of university adjustment shows that a particular importance must be on stress management courses to help student deal with the

university demands. Brief interventions in college population might be effective but they often reach only students who have severe problems and are motivated to seek treatment (Deckro et al., 2002). In order to reach all of the students in a university environment, daily activities that balance stress levels and increase students' feelings of belonging to Yaşar University must be found and provided. For example, while regular exercising is known to reduce anxiety levels, depressive-like symptoms, foster socializing, readily accessible athletic and recreational facilities in university environment may help students exercise more regularly as one method of modulating stress (Campbell, Svenson, & Jarvis, 1992).

Furthermore, a worldwide declining pattern in adult attachment security (Mickelson et al., 1997; Vivona, 2000) and increasing pattern in stress levels has been reported (Hobson et al., 1998). These reports mean more and more highly stressed and insecurely attached students are expected to start university in the following years. perceived stress is known to distort decision- making abilities; decisions made under stressful conditions result in a premature closure without giving students time to consider all the relevant information and alternatives (Janis, 1993). This might trigger dropouts or effect commitment to university. Given that there is a negative relationship between stress and academic success for freshmen, universities might run a stress reduction program including these three primary elements: educational material related to effects of stress, potential stressors often found in a student population, and college and community resources available to help manage stress (Misra, 2000). So, more counselors are needed in a university setting. All students must be the target rather than focusing on only troubled ones to make students feel comfortable seeking counseling when they need assistance because early interventions can resolve problems before they turn into crises.

Since secure attachment results in greater adjustment among freshmen and it is a protective factor against the stressful demands of university life. Thus, features of secure attachment should be encouraged, practiced and maintained. Parents and students could be encouraged to keep a secure adult attachment via personal interviews. Parents need to be invited to assist their college-aged children financially and emotionally; students and parents need to be encouraged to establish and maintain stable, secure attachments with each other. Students' parents might taught to provide sense of safety and protection at all times and to be responsive when their

child experiences distress. Combining systemic attachment style improvement with prevention and early intervention at the level of the student and his/her family might provide the highest promise for helping freshmen, and this combination may decrease the likelihood of adjustment difficulties.

Furthermore, results of the present study support the view that transitional stress causes changes in attachment style. Thus, stability and change in adult attachment styles over the university transition are associated with significant and theoretically consistent perceived stress patterns. These findings might provide support to the growing body of literature that focuses on relevant associations between adult attachment security and various individual indexes of transitional adjustment.



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Appendix A

YIYE-II

Her bir maddenin ilişkilerinizdeki duygu ve düşüncelerinizi ne oranda yansıttığınızı karşılarda ki 7 aralıklı ölçek üzerinde işaretleyiniz.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Hiç katılmıyorum Kesinlikle katılıyorum

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	Gerçekte ne hissettiğimi birlikte olduğum kişiye göstermemeyi tercih ederim.							
2.	Terk edilmekten korkarım.							
3.	Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilere yakın olmak konusunda çok rahatım.							
4.	İlişkilerim konusunda çok kaygılıyım.							
5.	Birlikte olduğum kişi bana yakınlaşmaya başlar başlamaz kendimi geri çekiyorum.							
6.	Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişilerin beni, benim onları umursadığım kadar umursamayacaklarından endişelenirim.							
7.	Romantik ilişkide olduğum kişi çok yakın olmak istediğinde rahatsızlık duyarım.							
8.	Birlikte olduğum kişiyi kaybedeceğim diye çok kaygılanırım.							
9.	Birlikte olduğum kişilere açılma konusunda kendimi rahat hissetmem.							
10.	Genellikle, birlikte olduğum kişinin benim için hissettiklerinin benim onun için hissettiklerim kadar güçlü olmasını arzu ederim.							
11.	Birlikte olduğum kişiye yakın olmayı isterim, ama sürekli kendimi geri çekerim.							
12.	Genellikle birlikte olduğum kişiyle tamamen bütünleşmek isterim ve bu bazen onları korkutup benden uzaklaştırır.							
13.	Birlikte olduğum kişilerin benimle çok yakınlaşması beni gerginleştirir.							
14.	Yalnız kalmaktan endişelenirim.							
15.	Zel duygu ve düşüncelerimi birlikte olduğum kişiyle paylaşmak konusunda oldukça rahatımdır.							
16.	Çok yakın olma arzum bazen insanları korkutup uzaklaştırır.							
17.	Birlikte olduğum kişiyle çok yakınlaşmaktan kaçınmaya çalışırım.							

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	Birlikte olduğum kişi tarafından sevildiğimin süreklifade edilmesine gereksinim duyarım.							
19.	Birlikte olduğum kişiyle kolaylıkla yakınlaşabilirim.							
20.	Birlikte olduğum kişileri bazen daha fazla duygu ve bağlılık göstermeleri için zorladığımı hissederim.							
21.	Birlikte olduğum kişilere güvenip dayanma konusunda kendimi rahat bırakmakta zorlanırım.							
22.	Terk edilmekten pek korkmam.							
23.	Birlikte olduğum kişilere fazla yakın olmamayı tercih ederim.							
24.	Birlikte olduğum kişinin bana ilgi göstermesini sağlayamazsam üzülür ya da kızarım.							
25.	Birlikte olduğum kişiye hemen hemen her şeyi anlatırım.							
26.	Birlikte olduğum kişinin bana istediğim kadar yakın olmadığını düşünürüm.							
27.	Sorunlarımı ve kaygılarımı birlikte olduğum kişiyle tartışırım.							
28.	Bir ilişkide olmadığım zaman kendimi biraz kaygılı ve güvensiz hissederim.							
29.	Birlikte olduğum kişilere güvenip dayanmakta rahatımdır.							
30.	Birlikte olduğum kişi istediğim kadar yakınımda olmadığında kendimi engellenmiş hissederim.							
31.	Birlikte olduğum kişilerden teselli, öğüt ya da yardım istemekten rahatsız olmam.							
32.	İhtiyaç duyduğumda birlikte olduğum kişiye ulaşamazsam kendimi engellenmiş hissederim.							
33.	İhtiyaç duyduğumda birlikte olduğum kişiden yardım istemek işe yarar.							
34.	Birlikte olduğum kişiler beni onaylamadıkları zaman kendimi gerçekten kötü hissederim.							
35.	Rahatlama ve güvencenin yanı sıra birçok şey için birlikte olduğum kişiyi ararım.							
36.	Birlikte olduğum kişi benden ayrı zaman geçirdiğinde üzülürüm.							

Appendix B

ALGILANAN STRES ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıdaki sorular son bir ay içindeki düşünceleriniz ve duygularınızla ilgilidir. Her bir soruda sizden bu düşünceyi ya da duyguyu ne sıklıkta yaşadığınızı belirtmeniz istenmektedir. Bazı sorular birbirine benzer gibi görünse de aralarında farklılıklar vardır ve her soruyu ayrı bir soru olarak değerlendirmeniz gerekmektedir. Soruları yanıtlarken son bir ay içinde ne sıklıkta bu şekilde düşündüğünüzü ya da hissettiğinizi hesaplamaya çalışmak yerine soruyu okuduktan sonra seçenekler arasında en uygun gördüğünüz tahmini işaretlemeniz daha uygun olacaktır.

	HİÇ	NEREDEYSE HİÇ	BAZEN	SIKÇA	ÇOK SIK
1.Son bir ay içinde, beklenmedik şekilde gerçekleşen olaylardan dolayı ne sıklıkta üzüldünüz.					
2.Son bir ay içinde ne sıklıkta, yaşamınızdaki önemli şeyleri kontrol edemediğinizi hissettiniz?					
3.Son bir ay içinde kendinizi ne sıklıkta gergin ve stresli hissettiniz?					
4.Son bir ay içinde ne sıklıkta, kişisel sorunlarınızla baş etme yeteneğinizden emin oldunuz?					
5.Son bir ay içinde ne sıklıkta, işlerin istediğiniz gibi gittiğini hissettiniz?					
6.Son bir ay içinde ne sıklıkta, yapmak zorunda olduğunuz her şeyin üstesinden gelemeyeceğinizi düşündünüz?					
7. Son bir ay içinde yaşamınızdaki rahatsız edici olayları ne sıklıkla kontrol edebildiniz?					
8.Son bir ay içinde ne sıklıkta, yaşamınızdaki olaylara hakim olduğunuzu hissettiniz?					
9.Son bir ay içinde, kontrolünüz dışında gerçekleşen şeylerden dolayı ne sıklıkta öfkelenirsiniz?					
10.Son bir ay içinde ne sıklıkta, güçlüklerin, üstesinden gelemeyeceğiniz kadar çoğaldığını hissettiniz?					

Appendix C

ÜNİVERSİTE YAŞAMI ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda üniversite yaşantısıyla ilişkili olabilecek duygu, düşünce ve beklentileri ifade eden 48 cümle bulunmaktadır. Her bir ifadeyi okuduktan sonra **şimdiki durumda (son birkaç gündür)** yaşadıklarınızı göz önünde bulundurarak her cümledeki ifadenin size ne derece uygun olduğunu cümlelerin karşısında verilen “Bana hiç uygun değil (1)” - “Bana tamamen uygun (7)” seçeneklerinden birini işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

	Bana Hiç Uygun Değil					Bana Tamamen Uygun	
1. Üniversitedeki topluluklara girmeye çekinirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
2. Kendimi genellikle gergin hissederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
3. Kendimi severim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
4. Arkadaşlarımla yakınlaşamam	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
5. Derslerde işlenen konuları anlamakta zorluk çekiyorum	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
6. Kendimi yalnız hissederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
7. Üniversite öğrencisi olmaktan memnun değilim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
8. Olayların hep kötü gideceğini düşünürüm.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
9. Hayatımı istediğim gibi yönlendiririm.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
10. Cinsellik beni korkutur.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
11. Sınıf içinde konuşmaktan çekinirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
12. Kaldığım yerdeki kişilerle anlaşırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
13. Kendimi bu üniversitenin kültürüne uzak hissediyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
14. Genellikle olaylar karşısında kendimi suçlarım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
15. Kararlarımın sonuçlarına katlanırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
16. Benimle kimsenin çıkmak istemeyeceğini düşünüyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
17. Kaldığım yere uyum sağlayamadım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
18. Üniversitenin beklentilerime cevap vereceğini düşünüyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
19. Duygularımı anlamakta zorlanırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
20. Karşı cinsle birlikte bulunduğum ortamlarda kendimi rahat hissederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
21. Öğretmenlerimle ilişkilerimden memnun değilim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
22. Aile içinde sık sık çatışmalar yaşarım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
23. Üniversitedeki destek birimlerini (Kültür İşleri, Spor Müdürlüğü, Öğrenci İşleri gibi) tanıyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
24. Hayır demekte güçlük yaşarım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
25. Bu üniversitenin eğitimini zor buluyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)

	Bana Hiç Uygun Değil					Bana Tamamen Uygun	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
26. Değerlerim bu üniversitedeki kişilerin değerleri ile uyuşur.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
27. Devam etmesini istemediğim ilişkilerimi bitirmekte zorlanırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
28. Kendime zaman ayırırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
29. Üniversite yaşamına uyum sağlayamadım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
30. Cinsel yaşamımdan memnunum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
31. Arkadaş edinmekte güçlük yaşıyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
32. Üniversitedeki arkadaşlarımdan örf ve adetleri bana yabancı gelir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
33. İlişkilerimde çatışmaya girmekten çekinirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
34. Kendime güvenirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
35. Dersleri İngilizce takip etmekte zorluk çekiyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
36. Aile içinde rahat iletişim kurarım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
37. Kampüste (yerleşke) kendimi rahat hissediyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
38. Sık sık moralim bozulur.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
39. Kendimi olumlu ve olumsuz yönlerimle kabul ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
40. Üniversitedeki sosyal/kültürel etkinliklere katılmıyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
41. Çıktığım kişi ile ilişkiyi sürdürmekte sıkıntı çekerim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
42. Çalıştığım halde sınavlarda başarılı olamam.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
43. Kendimi üniversitenin bir parçası gibi hissediyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
44. Karar vermekte güçlük çekerim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
45. Bende en az diğer insanlar kadar değerliyim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
46. Biriyle duygusal ilişkiye girmekte zorlanırım.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
47. Derslerde başarılı olup olamayacağımdan emin değilim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
48. Üniversitenin bulunduğu şehri tanıyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)

Appendix D

TÜRK KÜLTÜRÜNDE GELİŞTİRİLMİŞ TEMEL KİŞİLİK ÖZELLİKLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ

YÖNERGE:

Aşağıda size uyan ya da uymayan pek çok kişilik özelliği bulunmaktadır. Bu özelliklerden her birinin sizin için ne kadar uygun olduğunu ilgili rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

Örneğin;

Kendimi biri olarak görüyorum.

<u>Hiç uygun değil</u>	<u>Uygun değil</u>	<u>Kararsızım</u>			<u>Uygun</u>	<u>Çok uygun</u>		
1	2	3			4	5		
		Hiç uygun değil	Uygun değil	Kararsızım		Hiç uygun değil	Uygun değil	Kararsızım
1 Aceleci	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
2 Yapmacık	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
3 Duyarlı	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
4 Konuşkan	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
5 Kendine güvenen	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
6 Soğuk	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
7 Utangaç	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
8 Paylaşımçı	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
9 Geniş / rahat	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
10 Cesur	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
11 Agresif(Saldırgan)	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
12 Çalışkan	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
13 İçten pazarlıklı	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
14 Girişken	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
15 İyi niyetli	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
16 İçten	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
17 Kendinden emin	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
18 Huysuz	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
19 Yardımsever	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
20 Kabiliyetli	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
21 Üşengeç	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
22 Sorumsuz	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
23 Sevecen	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
24 Pasif	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
25 Disiplinli	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
26 Ağgözlü	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
27 Sinirli	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
28 Canayakın	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
29 Kızgın	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
30 Sabit fikirli	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
31 Görgüsüz	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
32 Durgun	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
33 Kaygılı	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
34 Terbiyesiz	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
35 Sabırsız	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
36 Yaratıcı (Üretken)	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
37 Karpisli	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
38 İçine kapanık	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
39 Çekingen	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
40 Alıngan	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
41 Hoşgörülü	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
42 Düzenli	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
43 Titiz	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
44 Tedbirli	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		
45 Azimli	1 2 3 4 5	1	2	3	4	5		

Appendix E

İLİŞKİ ÖLÇEKLERİ ANKETİ

Aşağıda yakın duygusal ilişkilerinizde kendinizi nasıl hissettiğinize ilişkin çeşitli ifadeler yer almaktadır. Yakın duygusal ilişkilerden kastedilen arkadaşlık, dostluk, romantik ilişkiler ve benzerleridir. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi bu tür ilişkilerinizi düşünerek okuyun ve her bir ifadenin sizi ne ölçüde tanımladığını aşağıdaki 7 aralıklı ölçek üzerinde değerlendiriniz.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7
Beni hiç Beni kısmen Tamamıyla
tanımlamıyor tanımlıyor beni tanımlıyor

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Başkalarına kolaylıkla güvenemem.							
2. Kendimi bağımsız hissetmem benim için çok önemli.							
3. Başkalarıyla kolaylıkla duygusal yakınlık kurarım.							
4. Başkalarıyla çok yakınlaşırsam incitileceğimden korkuyorum.							
5. Başkalarıyla yakın duygusal ilişkilerim olmadığı sürece oldukça rahatım.							
6. Başkalarıyla tam anlamıyla duygusal yakınlık kurmak istiyorum.							
7. Yalnız kalmaktan korkarım.							
8. Başkalarına rahatlıkla güvenip bağlanabilirim							
9. Başkalarına tamamiyle güvenmekte zorlanırım.							
10. Başkalarının bana dayanıp bel bağlaması konusunda oldukça rahatımdır.							

11. Başkalarının bana, benim onlara verdiğim kadar değer vermediğinden kaygılanırım.							
12. Kendi kendime yettiğimi hissetmem benim için çok önemli.							
13. Başkalarının bana bağlanmamalarını tercih ederim.							
14. Başkalarıyla yakın olmak beni rahatsız eder.							
15. Başkalarının bana, benim istediğim kadar yakınlaşmakta gönülsüz olduklarını düşünüyorum.							
16. Başkalarına bağlanmamayı tercih ederim.							
17. Başkaları beni kabul etmeyecek diye korkarım.							
11. Başkalarının bana, benim onlara verdiğim kadar değer vermediğinden kaygılanırım.							

Appendix F

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ GÖNÜLLÜ ONAM FORMU

Sizi Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı tarafından yürütülen “**Kişilik, Yetişkin Bağlanma Stili, Stres Algısı ve Üniversite Hayatına Uyum arasındaki ilişki**” başlıklı ankete dayalı bir **araştırmaya** davet ediyoruz. Araştırmanın neden yapılacağını bilmek araştırmaya katılıp katılmama kararını vermenizde etkili rol oynayacaktır. Bu nedenle bu form hazırlanmış olup, anlaşılması büyük önem taşımaktadır. Aşağıdaki bilgileri lütfen dikkatlice okuyunuz.

Bu anket çalışmasına katılmak tamamen **gönüllülük** esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmaya katılmama hakkına sahipsiniz. **Anketi yanıtlamanız, araştırmaya katılım için onam verdiğiniz** biçiminde yorumlanacaktır. Size verilen **anket formlarındaki** soruları yanıtlarken çalışmanın amacına ulaşabilmesi için bütün soruları eksiksiz ve kimsenin baskısı veya telkini altında olmadan yanıtlamanız gerekmektedir. Bu formlardan elde edilecek bilgiler tamamen araştırma amacı ile kullanılacaktır ve kişisel bilgileriniz gizli tutulacaktır. Anlamadığınız ve sizin için açık olmayan şeyler varsa, ya da daha fazla bilgi isterseniz bize irazkural@gmail.com e-mail adresinden ulaşabilirsiniz.

Araştırma Sorumlusu
(Ayşe Iraz KURAL-Psikoloji Master Öğrencisi)

Araştırmanın Amacı:

Üniversiteye yeni başlamış öğrencilerin yıl içerisindeki stres algılarının kişilik özellikleri ve bağlanma stillerine göre belli iki tarihte (Ekim- Mart ayları içinde) incelenmesi ve bunların üniversiteye uyum üzerindeki etkilerinin çalışılmasıdır.

İzlenecek Olan Yöntem ve Yapılacak İşlemler:

Gönüllü katılımcılara aynı okul yılı içerisinde biri okul dönemi başında (Ekim ayı içerisinde), diğeri de okul dönemi sonunda (Mart ayı içerisinde) iki defa stres algısı anketi verilecektir. Yetişkin Bağlanma Stili Anketi, Kişilik Özellikleri anketi okul dönemi başında, Üniversite Hayatına Uyum anketi ise okul dönemi sonunda birer defa uygulanacaktır. Anketler yaklaşık yarım saat vakit alacak, öğrencilere dağıtılıp(en geç) bir hafta içerisinde toplanacaktır ve her iki uygulama da aynı kişilere yapılacaktır.

Araştırmanın Süresi: Bütün anketlerin tamamlanması için yaklaşık yarım saat

Katılması Beklenen Gönüllü Sayısı: 300-350 öğrenci

Araştırmanın Yapılacağı Yer(ler): Yaşar Üniversitesi

Yukarıda yer alan bilgileri okudum ve katılmam istenen çalışmanın kapsamını ve amacını anladım. Çalışma hakkında yazılı ve sözlü açıklama yukarıda adı belirtilen araştırmacı tarafından yapıldı. Kişisel bilgilerimin özenle korunacağı konusunda yeterli güven verildi.

Bu koşullarda söz konusu araştırmaya kendi isteğimle, hiçbir baskı ve telkin olmaksızın katılmayı kabul ediyorum.

Katılımcının:

Adı-Soyadı.....

İletişim bilgileri: (e-mail):

(Telefon):

İmza :

Tarih : ___/___/___



T.C.
YAŞAR ÜNİVERSİTESİ
ETİK KOMİSYONU

Toplantı Tarihi: 26.08.2016

2015-16 Akademik Yılı Toplantı Sayısı: 11

GÜNDEM:

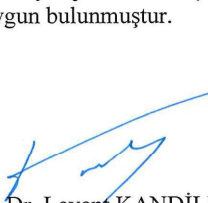
Yaşar Üniversitesi Yrd.Doç.Dr.Berrin Özyurt'un tez danışmanlığını yürütmekte olduğu Psikoloji İngilizce Tezli Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi 15300024002 nolu Ayşe İraz Kural'ın "The relationship between personality, attachment style, stress perception and university adjustment" başlıklı tezinin anket uygulamasına ilişkin Etik Komisyonu tarafından incelenmesi isteğinin değerlendirilmesi;

GÖRÜŞME ve KARAR:

Yaşar Üniversitesi Etik Komisyonu 26.08.2016 Cuma günü, saat 10.00'da Prof. Dr. Levent KANDİLLER başkanlığında ve üyelerin katılımlarıyla toplanmış, gündem maddesi değerlendirilmiş, aşağıdaki karar alınmıştır.

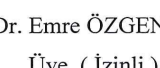
Karar 7 :


Yaşar Üniversitesi Yrd.Doç.Dr.Berrin Özyurt'un tez danışmanlığını yürütmekte olduğu Psikoloji İngilizce Tezli Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi 15300024002 nolu Ayşe İraz Kural'ın "The relationship between personality, attachment style, stress perception and university adjustment" başlıklı tezinin anket uygulaması Etik Komisyonu tarafından incelenmiş ve uygun bulunmuştur.



Prof. Dr. Levent KANDİLLER
Üye

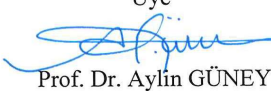

Prof. Dr. Ayşe HAVUTÇU
Üye



Prof. Dr. Lale DİLBAŞ
Üye (İznil)



Prof. Dr. Emre ÖZGEN
Üye (İznil)


Prof. Dr. Levent KANDİLLER
Etik Komisyonu Başkan V.


Prof. Dr. Ali Nazım SÖZER
Üye


Prof. Dr. Aylin GÜNEY
Üye


Prof. Dr. Eröl SEZER
Üye


Av. Serkan AYAN
Üye