

A DYADIC ANALYSIS OF THE LINK BETWEEN COUPLES' PERFECTIONISM AND
ATTACHMENT BEHAVIORS

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DEDICATION

To my precious

*You are the most invaluable person in my little world as my biggest fortune in life. Thank you
for your healing love, limitless support, and all the joy you bring into my life.*

ABSTRACT

Recently, perfectionism has been a more important construct due to its links with adverse individual and relational outcomes. In this regard, perfectionism's association with people's actions, particularly with the attachment behaviors predicting secure feelings in a romantic relationship, was focused on in this work. Further, attributions were considered as an essential factor in the way how people behave in their relationships. Following the relation between perfectionism and the way people interpret events, attributions were examined as a mediator in the link between perfectionism and attachment behaviors. Consecutively, the present work aimed exploring the direct actor and partner total effects between perfectionism and attachment behaviors, as well as, indirect effects between perfectionism and attachment behaviors through attributions with a sample of heterosexual married couples in Turkey. Particularly, 91 heterosexual couples (91 women and 91 men) who were married for at least 2 years ($M = 164.9$, $SD = 135.5$ in months) participated in the study. Thanks to snowball sampling, individuals from various geographical, educational, and economic backgrounds were reached. As for online data collection process, the couples filled out Demographic Information Form, Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (Hewitt & Flett, 1991), Brief Accessibility, Responsiveness, and Engagement Scale (Sandberg, Busby, Johnson, & Yoshida, 2012), and Relationship Attribution Measure (Fincham & Bradbury, 1992) via Qualtrics. To test hypotheses, Actor Partner Interdependence Model of Mediation (APIMeM) analysis was carried on. Results demonstrated that men's own perfectionism and their wives' attachment behaviors were negatively related (direct partner total effect, men to women). Moreover, the adverse association between men's perfectionism and women's attachment behaviors through men's attributions was found to be significant (indirect men to women actor-partner effect). These findings were interpreted in terms of their implications on the basis of the existing literature and the relative theoretical framework. Lastly, the present

work's contributions to the field were argued, together with the limitations and future research recommendations.

Keywords: perfectionism, attributions, attachment behaviors, married couples, actor-partner interdependence model, actor-partner interdependence model of mediation



ÖZET

Son zamanlarda, mükemmeliyetçilik olumsuz bireysel ve ilişkisel sonuçları sebebiyle daha da önemli bir kavram haline geldi. Bu bağlamda, bu çalışmada mükemmeliyetçiliğin insanların eylemleriyle, özellikle de bir romantik ilişkideki güven hissini öngören bağlanma davranışlarıyla olan ilişkisine odaklanıldı. Ayrıca, atıflar, insanların ilişkilerinde nasıl davrandıkları konusunda önemli bir faktör olarak görüldü. Mükemmeliyetçilik ile insanların olayları yorumlama şekli arasındaki ilişkinin ardından, atıflar mükemmeliyetçilik ve bağlanma davranışları arasındaki ilişkide ara değişken olarak incelendi. Bu çalışma, Türkiye'de heteroseksüel evli çiftlerden oluşan bir örneklemle, mükemmeliyetçilik ve bağlanma davranışları arasındaki doğrudan aktör ve partner toplam etkilerinin yanı sıra, dolaylı etkilerin de atıflar yoluyla araştırılmasını amaçladı. Çalışmaya en az 2 yıldır evli olan 91 heteroseksüel çift (91 kadın ve 91 erkek) ($M = 164.9$, $SD = 135.5$ ay) katıldı. Kartopu örnekleme sayesinde çeşitli coğrafi, eğitimsel ve ekonomik geçmişten bireylere ulaşıldı. Çevrimiçi veri toplama sürecine gelindiğinde, çiftler Demografik Bilgi Formu, Çok Boyutlu Mükemmeliyetçilik Ölçeği (Hewitt & Flett, 1991), Kısa Duyarlılık, Ulaşılabilirlik ve Yakınlık Ölçeği (Sandberg, Busby, Johnson, & Yoshida, 2012) ve İlişkilerde Yükleme Ölçeği'ni (Fincham & Bradbury, 1992) Qualtrics üzerinden doldurdu. Hipotezleri test etmek için Aktör-Partner Karşılıklı Bağımlılık Aracılık Modeli (APKAM) analizi yapıldı. Sonuçlar erkeklerin kendi mükemmeliyetçiliğinin ve eşlerinin bağlanma davranışlarının olumsuz ilişkili olduğunu gösterdi (doğrudan partner toplam etkisi, erkekte kadına). Ayrıca, erkeklerin mükemmeliyetçiliği ile kadınların bağlanma davranışları arasındaki olumsuz ilişkinin erkeklerin atıfları yoluyla anlamlı olduğu ortaya çıktı (erkekte kadına dolaylı aktör-partner etkisi). Bu bulgular, mevcut literatür ve ilgili teorik çerçeve temelinde etkileri açısından yorumlandı. Son olarak, bu çalışmanın alana katkıları, sınırlılıkları ve gelecekteki araştırma önerileri ile birlikte tartışıldı.

Anahtar kelimeler: mükemmeliyetçilik, atıflar, bağlanma davranışları, evli çiftler, aktör-partner karşılıklı bağımlılık aracılık modeli



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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

“Perfectionism is a dangerous state of mind in an imperfect world”

— Robert Hillyer

Could the way we and our partner behave in our romantic relationship be closely related to our perfectionism levels? Also, could attributions we make about events be added into this picture? In particular, could perfectionism be associated with individuals' behaviors through attributions in a romantic relationship? This study aimed to find the answers of these questions by focusing on the role of such individual processes in the romantic relationship dynamics. In this context, the individual processes were assessed by the perfectionism level of individuals and how they make attributions about their partners' behaviors in their relationship. On the other hand, how individuals behave toward their partners was used to evaluate the romantic relationship processes. First, the perfectionism level of individuals was divided into three subparts as the perfectionism toward one's self (i.e., self-oriented perfectionism; SOP), perfectionism toward one's partner (i.e., partner-oriented perfectionism; POP), and the belief that one's partner expects perfection from them (i.e., partner-prescribed perfectionism). Second, the attachment behaviors, the extent to which individuals are accessible, responsive, and engaged in a romantic relationship, were specifically examined regarding how individuals behave in their romantic relationship. Lastly, the causal and responsibility attributions were examined in relation to these events. Consequently, this study analyzed the link between individuals' perfectionism level including self-oriented, partner-oriented and partner-prescribed dimensions and the attachment behaviors of accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement through the causal and responsibility attributions individuals make.

The previous research on perfectionism and attachment quality showed a well-

established negative link between the two (Rice, Lopez, & Vergara, 2005; Wei, Mallinckrodt, Russell, & Abraham, 2004). Likewise, perfectionism was also found to be associated with negative attributional styles of individuals (Chang & Sanna, 2001; Furman, Luo, & Pond Jr, 2017). Moreover, attributional styles of individuals had an invaluable role in romantic relationship outcomes such as relationship satisfaction (Bradbury & Fincham, 1990; 1992; Fincham & Bradbury, 1987; 1988; Tutarel-Kışlak, 1999) and interpersonal behaviors such as forgiveness in a relationship (Hall & Fincham, 2006; Johnson, 2019; Taysi, 2010). Similarly, it was shown that the attachment construct is strongly related to the way individuals explain the world (Hazan & Shaver, 1987). Even though these notions were greatly investigated before, there is no study including perfectionism, attributions and attachment behaviors together. Particularly, since the concept of attachment behaviors is novel in the field rather than the quality or dimensions of attachment, there is no research focusing on individuals' accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement behaviors while studying perfectionism and attributions. In short, this study focused on highlighting the role of individual processes in the couple dynamics and relationship outcomes.

Thus, the aim of this study was to analyze perfectionism, attributions and attachment behaviors in relation with each other. More importantly, this study asked whether individuals' perfectionism is related to their own (i.e., actor effect) and their partner's (i.e., partner effect) attachment behaviors through their own and their partners' attributions. This section comprised the conceptualization of the study variables and their relationship with each other in the existing literature.

1.1 Conceptualization of Perfectionism

Perfectionism is widely defined as a multidimensional construct (Frost, Heimberg, Holt, Mattia, & Neubauer, 1993; Slaney, Rice, Mobley, Trippi, & Ashby, 2001). In the current study, perfectionism is specifically defined as perfectionism toward the self (self-

oriented perfectionism; SOP), perfectionism toward the partner (partner-oriented perfectionism; POP), and the idea of partner's perfectionist expectations from the self (partner-prescribed perfectionism; PPP) in line with Hewitt and Flett's (1991) general perfectionism construct. Self-oriented perfectionism is about demanding perfection from the self and striving for it. Partner-oriented perfectionism is characterized with demanding perfection from the partner and expecting him/her to fulfill considerably high standards. Lastly, partner-prescribed perfectionism is conceptualized as the idea that the partner demand perfection from the self together with greatly high standards.

1.2 Conceptualization of Attributions

Attributions can be defined as the interpretations individuals make about events or behaviors. More specifically, Fincham and Bradbury (1992) stated that causal attributions reflect the explanations individuals make about their partners' behaviors regarding the source of actions such as who/what the reason of a specific behavior is. Meanwhile, responsibility attributions indicate who is accountable and blamable for the behavior. More specifically, causal attributions can be divided into three as the locus (whether the reason is internal or external), stability (whether the reason is changeable) and globality (whether the reason is also true for other aspects of relationship) whereas responsibility attributions are grouped as the intent (whether the behavior is on purpose), motivation (whether the behavior is selfish) and blame (whether the partner can be blamable) regarding the behaviors.

1.3 Conceptualization of Attachment Behaviors

Attachment behaviors are composed of each partner's accessibility, responsiveness and engagement in a romantic relationship (Sandberg, Bradford, & Brown, 2017; Sandberg, Busby, Johnson, & Yoshida, 2012). These behaviors promote the feeling of security in an intimate relationship (Greenman & Johnson, 2013). In this characterization, accessibility refers to emotional availability and the extent to which it is easy to get attention (Bradford,

Drean, Sandberg, & Johnson, 2020). Second, Reis and Gable (2015) defined responsiveness as the level of individuals' support and concern for as well as validation of each other's needs. Lastly, engagement is characterized with positive and meaningful connection between partners through responsiveness and accessibility toward each other (Sandberg et al., 2012).

1.4 Perfectionism and Romantic Relationships

Individuals' perfectionism was found to be connected to several relational elements. In particular, perfectionism was mostly linked to poor relationship outcomes (Hewitt & Flett, 1993; Martin & Ashby, 2004; Shea, Slaney, & Rice, 2006), even terminating the romantic relationship (Lopez, Fons-Scheyd, Morúa, & Chaliman, 2006). To illustrate, it was indicated that perfectionism is related to adverse relationship coping styles (Haring, Hewitt, & Flett, 2003). For example, maladaptive coping was found to be a mediator in the association between perfectionism and poorer marital functioning. Similarly, Stoeber (2012) indicated that, in a sample of university students, perfectionism was negatively linked to their relationship satisfaction and commitment. In a similar vein, perfectionism was found to be related to lower levels of dyadic adjustment in romantic relationships (Habke, Hewitt, Fehr, Callander, & Flett, 1997) and higher levels of dyadic conflict (Mackinnon, Sherry, Antony, Stewart, Sherry, & Hartling, 2012). Moreover, it was indicated that perfectionism has a role in the sexual life of partners. In particular, the more perfectionist the individuals were, the less they were satisfied sexually (Habke, Hewitt, & Flett, 1999; Stoeber, Harvey, Almeida, & Lyons, 2013). Consecutively, it is valuable to expand the role of perfectionism in romantic relationships. For this aim, it is crucial to investigate the contribution of the extent to which individuals are perfectionist in how they interpret their partners' actions, in turn, how they behave in their romantic relationships.

1.5 The Interplay of Perfectionism, Attributions, and Attachment Behaviors

Individuals' attributions about events are also important in romantic relationships.

Fincham and Bradbury (1987) found that attributions for difficulties in marriage and for negative behaviors of partners were closely associated with marital satisfaction. Also, maladaptive attributions for marital problems were negatively linked to effective problem-solving behaviors and positively to hostile and rejecting behaviors after controlling for marital satisfaction (Bradbury & Fincham, 1992). Moreover, conflict-promoting attributions were found to be linked to interpersonal behaviors such as lower likelihood of forgiving partners' undesirable behaviors (Furman et al., 2017). Johnson (2019) also showed that benign attributions have a significant role in forgiveness after infidelity incident. In short, it can be said that attributions make important contributions to romantic relationships in terms of how individuals behave in these relationships.

Regarding the association between perfectionism and attributions, research also demonstrated that perfectionist individuals are more likely to make negative attributions about events (Anshel & Mansouri, 2005; Blankstein & Winkworth, 2004; Chang & Sanna, 2001; Flett, Hewitt, Blankstein, & Pickering, 1998). Also, Ashby and Rice (2002) argued that perfectionist individuals are more likely to have cognitive distortions regarding their self-perceptions linked to their all or nothing thinking. Despite the abundance of studies, the research mostly reflected the link between perfectionism and attributions in individual contexts such as achievement and performance, rather than the relational ones. However, a recent study indicated that perfectionists made also conflict-promoting interpretations about their partners' behavior in their romantic relationships (Furman et al., 2017). Thus, perfectionism can also be considered to be closely related to maladaptive attributions regarding either individual or relational issues. Moreover, similar to attributions, perfectionist individuals were found to be more prone to blame their partners, which in turn increases the likelihood of conflicts in relationships. Further, individuals with higher levels of perfectionism were more likely to exhibit dominant, hostile, and less agreeable behaviors

toward others (Hewitt & Flett, 2004), try to take revenge, and act in a sarcastic, critical way (Hewitt, Flett, & Mikail, 2017). On the basis of these findings, both constructs of perfectionism and attributions about events appear to be linked to relationship dynamics and outcomes in terms of negative interpersonal exchanges, in addition to their relation with each other.

As for the link between perfectionism and attachment concepts, this association has not been explored through specifically attachment behaviors that partners display, even though individuals' attachment quality was found to be adversely related to their perfectionism levels in the existing literature (Rice et al., 2005; Wei et al., 2004). Further, since the feeling of security in romantic relationships as a result of attachment behaviors is linked to more positive expectations and emotions about romantic partners (Cobb, Davila, & Bradbury, 2001; Zeytinoğlu-Saydam, Erdem, Söylemez, 2020), working on attachment behaviors might be beneficial to decrease the adverse effect of individuals' perfectionist expectations on romantic relationships (Stoeber, 2012). Additionally, since changing attachment behaviors is easier than altering expectations about partners and relationships (Sandberg et al., 2017), understanding the association between perfectionism and attachment through behaviors is important for romantic relationships. Consequently, the current study aspired to apprehend the perfectionism's role in intimate relationships focusing on attachment behaviors.

Regarding the identified directions of the links among these constructs, perfectionism was regarded as the initial variable and attachment behaviors as the outcome variable. Also, the model examined the indirect effects of attributions in this association. First, as for the link between perfectionism and interpersonal actions, a 14-day diary study with couples showed that perfectionism predicted the changes in conflictual behavioral exchanges in a romantic relationship (Sherry, Sherry, et al., 2014). Likewise, perfectionism was found to be related to

marital adjustment through couples' coping strategies in a mediation model with dyadic analysis (Haring et al., 2003). LaFontaine, Pélouquin, Levesque, Azzi, Daigle, and Brassard (2019) also found perfectionism as a mediator in the attachment insecurity's relation with coping strategies of individuals with the actor-partner interdependence model. Hence, it might be suggested that perfectionist expectations as an initial variable would be related to interpersonal behavioral exchanges as an outcome variable. Considering the relation between perfectionism and attributions, a longitudinal study displayed that perfectionism was related to attributions that served as a moderator in the association between perfectionism and future depressive symptoms (Chang & Sanna, 2001). Along the same line, another longitudinal study demonstrated that unrealistic relationship expectations were connected to maladaptive attributions, thereby, supported the idea that negative attributions arise in relation to unrealistic expectations (Fincham & Bradbury, 1987). Particularly, their findings were consistent with the model asserting that expectations in a relationship give rise to attributions, which in turn impact how satisfied individuals were in their marriage. In the light of relevant findings especially from the longitudinal studies, it might be asserted that perfectionism might be linked to attributions in a romantic relationship where the notion of perfectionist expectations is the initial variable. Lastly, related to the attributions and interpersonal actions, it was stated that how individuals attribute events impacts their behavioral responses (Kelley, 1973). Moreover, theoretical background focusing on the role of attributions in relationships assumed that attributions for particular partner actions influence individuals' subsequent behavioral response to the partner (Fincham & Bradbury, 1987). Similarly, experimental (Fincham & Bradbury, 1988) and other studies (Fincham & Bradbury, 1992) as well as the observational data of actual behaviors (Bradbury & Fincham, 1992) showed that the attributions were linked to negative interpersonal exchanges. Likewise, using the Baron Kenny model of mediation, attributions were found to serve as a mediator in the attachment

quality's relation with forgiveness as an example of interpersonal exchanges (Johnson, 2019). Further, Ra, Cha, Hyun, and Bae (2013) demonstrated that narcissism was related to forgiveness through the indirect effects of attributions. In a similar vein, Furman et al. (2017) found that perfectionism was associated with forgiveness through the indirect effects of attributions that individual make. Considering several similar aspects of perfectionism and narcissism (Furman et al., 2017) in addition to abovementioned other findings, it might be asserted that perfectionism might be associated with interpersonal exchanges in terms of attachment behaviors through the indirect effects of attributions.

In sum, considering the link between perfectionism and negative attributional styles, as well as their relations with detrimental behavioral exchanges in relationships, it might be concluded that perfectionism is associated with individuals' attributions, in turn, the way they behave in an intimate relationship. Particularly, the extent to which individuals are accessible, responsive and engaged in their relationship might be related to perfectionism through attributional styles. In this regard, focusing on attributions that individuals make in a relationship is valuable to expand the link between perfectionism and attachment behaviors. Thus, this study aimed to test whether the perfectionism is related to individuals' attachment behaviors through the attributions that they make about their partners' behaviors in relationship.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Perfectionism

Perfectionism is generally considered as a multidimensional construct (Frost et al., 1993; Slaney et al., 2001). In particular, perfectionism can be qualified as an intrapersonal and interpersonal trait at the same time (Frost, Marten, Lahart, & Rosenblate, 1990; Hewitt & Flett, 1991). The notion of perfectionism was first described by Hamachek (1978) with normal and neurotic dimensions. Hamachek (1978) asserted that normal perfectionism is about setting high but flexible standards whereas neurotic perfectionism is about setting greatly high and inflexible standards even though it has negative outcomes. Normal perfectionism was regarded as the adaptive perfectionism while the neurotic perfectionism was regarded as the maladaptive one (Hamachek, 1978; Slaney & Ashby, 1996; Stoeber & Otto, 2006). In the literature, adaptive perfectionism refers to an endeavor for high but reachable and realistic standards (Enns & Cox, 2002; Flett & Hewitt, 2002). Individuals with adaptive perfectionism are described as not criticizing themselves in a harmful way if there is a discrepancy between high personal standards and their actual performance. On the other hand, maladaptive perfectionism comes with a continuous self-criticism. In a similar vein, individuals with maladaptive perfectionism believe that they are unable to achieve their considerably high personal standards and continuously doubt their actions. From this point of view, Slaney and Ashby (1996) characterized perfectionism as a need for order, setting high standards for performance, and continuously feeling a difference between standards and actual performance, in turn, feeling stressed. In this identification, high standards are considered as adaptive perfectionism while the feeling of discrepancy as maladaptive perfectionism.

Later, Hewitt and Flett (1991) redefined perfectionism in three dimensions considering

its personal and social aspects: self-oriented, other-oriented, and socially-prescribed perfectionism. In this regard, self-oriented perfectionism is defined as expecting perfection from the self and striving for it. Additionally, other-oriented perfectionism is identified as wanting perfection from the others and expecting them to fulfill considerably high standards. Finally, socially-prescribed perfectionism is characterized as the belief that the others expect perfection from the self and set considerably high standards. Also, individuals with higher levels of socially-prescribed perfectionism sense that they must meet these standards in order to gain others' acceptance (Enns & Cox, 2002; Hewitt & Flett, 1991; 2004).

Nevertheless, Wiebe and McCabe (2002) argued that all these conceptualizations reflect perfectionism regarding individuals, rather than relationships. Therefore, they presented a new definition of perfectionism in relationships based on Hewitt and Flett's (1991) model. This new concept of relationship perfectionism was identified as setting high standards or having high expectations of a relationship. Since this model takes perfectionism into account in all relationships, Matte and Lafontaine (2012) developed a model of romantic relationship perfectionism including both self-oriented and other-oriented relationship perfectionism by modifying Wiebe and McCabe's (2002) relationship perfectionism conceptualization. From this point of view, self-oriented romantic perfectionism indicates having extreme and rigid expectations and standards regarding individuals' own success in their romantic relationships while other-oriented one reflects setting inflexible and excessive standards and expectations about their significant others' success in the relationship. Followingly, Shea, Slaney, and Rice (2006) also suggested a dyadic perfectionism characterization but only with three dimensions of partner-oriented romantic perfectionism. These three categories are of individuals' high standards for their romantic partners and expectations about being orderly from the partners as well as to what extent the partners meet these expectations.

Regardless of which conceptualization is embraced, research widely showed that perfectionism is related to adverse consequences. Regarding its importance in daily life, perfectionism was connected to mental health of individuals with increased risk of psychopathology (Matte & Lafontaine, 2012). To put it differently, the level of perfectionism was linked to several psychological problems such as depression, anxiety disorders such as phobias and obsessive-compulsive disorder, eating disorders, and suicide (Hewitt & Flett, 2004; Shafran & Mansell, 2001). In a similar vein, it was shown that perfectionism was closely associated with psychological distress through emotional dysregulation (Aldea & Rice, 2006). Moreover, perfectionism was consistently linked to poor coping skills (Dunn, Whelton, & Sharpe, 2006; Macedo et al., 2017; O'Connor & O'Connor, 2003). Also, Blankstein and Dunkley (2002) displayed that coping is essential for the relation between perfectionism and distress.

Recently, perfectionism has been examined in a relational context as well and found to be associated with interpersonal difficulties (Matte & Lafontaine, 2012). For example, perfectionism was associated with social anxiety (Alden, Bieling, & Wallace, 1994). Moreover, some features of perfectionism such as fear of failure and cognitive inflexibility as well as other factors related to perfectionism like pessimism and hopelessness were likely to impede treatment process of perfectionism (Flett & Hewitt, 2007). Therefore, understanding the construct of perfectionism in depth is crucial for personal and relational well-being as well as the effective treatment of perfectionism in the clinical field.

2.1.1 Perfectionism and Couple Relationships

As for the impact of perfectionism in romantic relationships, there is a growing body of recent literature investigating the perfectionism in relational contexts. Generally, certain dimensions of perfectionism were found to be connected to adverse outcomes in close relationships. To illustrate, Haring, Hewitt, and Flett (2003) found that perfectionism was

linked to lower levels of marital quality through maladaptive relationship coping styles. Similarly, higher perfectionism was found to be related to increased dyadic conflict (Mackinnon et al., 2012). Furthermore, higher levels of perfectionism were linked to lower levels of relationship satisfaction (Matte & Lafontaine, 2012; Stoeber, 2012) and lower levels of relationship commitment (Stoeber, 2012). Moreover, the extent to which individuals are perfectionist was negatively linked to their dyadic adjustment in the romantic relationship (Habke et al., 1997) and their sexual satisfaction (Habke et al., 1999; Stoeber et al., 2013).

Various possible reasons why perfectionism is connected to adverse relationship outcomes were suggested in the literature. For instance, Burns (1983) suggested that perfectionism is detrimental to the marital relationship since individuals with higher levels of perfectionism are more likely to respond with defensiveness to any criticism. Along the same line, they are more prone to withdraw to hide their imperfections in the relationship. Also, the unreachable perfectionistic standards imposed on others conclude with the disappointment of their partners. Moreover, Hewitt and Flett (1991) asserted that demanding perfection from others is related to exploitative, narcissistic, dominant, and authoritarian traits. Additionally, individuals with other-oriented perfectionism tend to blame their partners which may lead to conflicts in relationships. Further, individuals who are perfectionist toward themselves are more likely to show anger together with hostility in their relationships. In a similar vein, perfectionism toward the self is generally associated with detrimental relationship coping styles such as sarcasm, criticism, and revenge (Hewitt et al., 2017). Further, Shea and colleagues (2006) asserted that perfectionist individuals think that their standards about either the partner or the relationship are not shared by their partners. On the other hand, the partners of perfectionist individuals believe that they are not good enough even though they try their best. Thus, these rigid and high expectations as well as the demands for behaving according to these criteria are regarded as unrealistic and irrational by the partners (Wiebe & McCabe,

2002). Moreover, the partners also think that being loved and accepted depends on the perfection (Flett, Hewitt, Shapiro, & Rayman, 2001). In other words, when they do not fulfill the high standards, it means that they lose their perfectionist partners' love. At this point, the idea of demanding unreachable standards in exchange for acceptance and love results with anger and hostility. Consecutively, a dyadic conflict is an inevitable outcome of this pattern. Several studies showed that especially perfectionism directed to the others is associated with conflicts in relationships since mostly negative responses are given to this expectation of perfection by the others (Habke et al., 1999). Likewise, individuals with high other-oriented perfectionism display more hostile, more dominant and less agreeable behaviors toward others as well as continuously blame the others (Hewitt & Flett, 2004). Similarly, Fritts (2012) stated that perfectionism in an interpersonal context is associated with maladaptive irrational thinking and coping styles which influences the relationships in an adverse way. In this regard, Haring and colleagues (2003) pointed out that individuals with higher partner-prescribed perfectionism use more negative coping skills in their marriage. Also, this study indicated that both wives' and husbands' partner-oriented perfectionism levels are strongly associated with their partners' adverse dyadic coping styles. Considering these findings, it might be concluded that perfectionist human beings prefer more negative dyadic coping strategies, in turn, are similarly responded with conflictual coping skills by their spouses. Depending on these results, it is crucial to explore the reasons of perfectionism's adverse relational outcomes, specifically interpersonal behavioral exchanges. For this aim, the current study investigated the way perfectionist individuals attribute to their partners' certain behaviors and the way they generally behave toward their partners as well as the way they are responded by their partners in terms of attachment behaviors.

2.2 Attributions

Attributional (or explanatory) style can be conceptualized as a cognitive construct

indicating how individuals explain events that they encounter (Peterson & Seligman, 1984). Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale (1978) defined the attribution styles in three dimensions of stability, globality and externality to explain depression depending on the learned helplessness phenomenon. Particularly, they examined the reasons for the helplessness that depressed individuals have. In line with this definition, if one believes that the reason of an event is related to the self, it is regarded as internality. On the contrary, if the reason is thought of as related to the factors other than the self, it is called as externality. Regarding stability, one thinks that the reason is stable over time, long-term and likely to frequently repeat in the future. Conversely, if one sense that the reason is short-term and likely to repeat in intervals, it can be seen as instability. Lastly, globality refers to the belief that the reason is valid for other contexts. If one has the idea that the reason is specific to a certain situation, it is considered as specificity. Consecutively, it was stated that individuals who believe that the negative events are the results of internal, stable, and global reasons are more depressed compared to individuals who think the reasons of negative events are external, unstable and specific (Alloy, Lipman, & Abramson, 1992; Seligman, Abramson, Semmel, & Von Baeyer, 1979). Similarly, research with diverse groups of children, adolescents or adults showed that maladaptive attributional style is related to adverse outcomes such as depression, lower academic success and other several illnesses (Dykema, Bergbower, Doctora, & Peterson, 1996; Peterson, 1990; Peterson & Bossio, 1991; Peterson & Seligman, 1984).

In line with Abramson and colleagues' identification, Fincham and Bradbury (1992) developed a measure for the attributions in relational contexts by specifically focusing on the explanations about events in marriage and partner's behaviors. In their conceptualization, causal attributions can be defined as the interpretations about who or what caused a particular event or behavior in marriage while the responsibility attributions are related to blameworthiness and accountability. From this point of view, causal attributions include

whether the reason of event or behavior is internal or external (locus), stable or unstable (stability), and global or specific (globality) whereas responsibility attributions comprise intent (whether the behavior is on purpose), motivation (whether the behavior is selfish) and blame (whether the partner is blamable).

2.2.1 Attributions and Couple Relationships

Attributions appear to be closely related to couple relationships, especially in terms of relationship satisfaction. In this regard, the first studies examining interpersonal behaviors in marital relationships showed that less satisfied couples exhibit and reciprocate negative behaviors more and have more rigidity in terms of behaviors, compared to the couples with more satisfaction (Christensen, 1987; Weiss & Heyman, 1990). Nonetheless, Bradbury and Fincham (1992) argued that researchers did not give attention to individuals' previous experiences and expectations in the marriage as well as to the way how interpersonal actions are related to the relationship satisfaction. Therefore, they stressed out that the intrapersonal factors that can be linked to satisfaction in marriage and interpersonal behaviors must be highlighted in these studies. At this point, the explanations made for events in a marriage, or attributions, came into the picture. In this regard, Bradbury and Fincham (1990) emphasized that individuals who feel less satisfied in a marriage make attributions augmenting the effect of negative events and diminishing positive ones. Consequently, attributions have an invaluable place in the marital relationship outcomes with regard to marital satisfaction.

Further, longitudinal studies questioned the possibility of whether attributions may initiate or maintain distress in marital relationship (Fincham & Bradbury, 1987). Fincham and Bradbury (1988) designed an experimental study and found that lower levels of marital satisfaction was related to greater number of negative behaviors when the partner was seen as responsible for a negative event, compared to those couples with again less satisfaction but who see their partner as not responsible. In a similar vein, it was indicated that individuals

who experience maladjustment in their marriage were more likely to attribute the reasons for this maladjustment to their spouses and see these reasons as stable, global and impacting several aspects of their marriage relationship (Tutarel-Kışlak, 1999). Additionally, the couples with lower marital adjustment thought that their spouses' behaviors were more intentional and selfish, and in turn blamed their partners more. Particularly, women who blamed their partners more, had lower levels of marital satisfaction.

In one study, Bradbury and Fincham (1992) specifically focused on the importance of attributions that spouses make as an example of intrapersonal variables while investigating the interpersonal exchanges as well. In particular, they carried out two studies separately to find out the attributions' contribution to the rate and sequence of behaviors seen in a relationship. In their work focusing on the exchange of especially problem-solving behaviors, the researchers utilized the contextual model (Raush, Barry, Hertel, & Swain, 1974) emphasizing the role of meanings of actions assigned to them on the basis of other events in an interaction. This model suggests that individuals perceive their partners' behavior, make meaning out of it, and then respond behaviorally. This period of time is called as processing stage. Several affective and cognitive factors such as memories, mood, personality, and satisfaction may impact the processing stage. Considering these factors, the researchers asserted that the explanations made about partner behaviors might have an essential part in meanings assigned to them. From this point of view, Bradbury and Fincham (1992) examined whether the attributed reasons regarding problems in the marriage would be associated with problem solving actions related to the marital difficulties. To put it differently, they assumed that individuals who make negative attributions, indicating that the actions of their spouse are seen from a negative perspective, would act in a way that interferes with solving of those problems. Conversely, individuals making adaptive or benign attributions were expected to show behaviors in a way that promotes the resolution of problems. More importantly, the

researchers collected observational data in order to measure the quality of partners' approach to problem solving during discussion. Overall, they found that individuals' maladaptive attributions were linked to their negative behavior. Moreover, in their first study, individuals who made maladaptive attributions for the problems in their marriage were more likely to act negatively and to behave in a less skillful way in terms of problem-solving during discussions. Further, especially wives who made maladaptive attributions regarding responsibility were more likely to act in a way that hindered effective problem solving. Additionally, the second study focusing on the sequences of behaviors during interactions demonstrated that the attributions partners made were linked to their behavioral responses to certain actions of their partners. Those individuals who made maladaptive attributions were more likely to behave in a more rejecting and hostile way. Moreover, women with higher rates of unfavorable attributions tended to reciprocate negative behaviors of their husbands but not reciprocate the empathic and supportive ones, even after controlling for satisfaction in marriage. In line with these findings, Sillars (1985) showed that as individuals blamed their partners, they also exhibited more negative and less positive behaviors in their interactions. Bradbury and Fincham (1992) also found that wives who made more positive attributions to their marital problems preferred focusing on the problem in a constructive way, accepting their own role in the problem, having a negotiative approach in the discussion taking their spouse's perspective into account. Similarly, husbands making benign attributions preferred focusing on the problem constructively. To sum up, they concluded that the attributions that couples make for their marital problems were related to the interpersonal behaviors in a marriage, and especially the maladaptive ones were linked to detrimental behavioral exchanges. To put it differently, maladaptive attributions were related to negative behaviors that perpetuated the difficulties in a marriage, in turn, confirmed these attributions, increased detrimental behaviors, and decreased satisfaction. As a result, why couples with more marriage distress

are more likely to show and reciprocate negative actions of the partner (Gottman, 1979) as well as why they are more reactive to these actions (Jacobson, Waldron, & Moore, 1980) were explained to some extent via the attributions or explanations made in an intimate relationship.

Additionally, numerous studies examined the role of attributions in other important interpersonal actions such as forgiveness in an intimate relationship. To exemplify, Hall and Fincham (2006) illustrated that more benign attributions were associated with increased likelihood of forgiveness while the conflict-promoting ones were linked to lower levels of forgiveness, in turn, relationship termination. They identified conflict-promoting attributions as thinking that the infidelity behavior is stable, intentional, blamable, related to an internal reason, and affects several aspects of marriage. Consecutively, this type of attributions damages the relationship through increased negative behaviors such as avoidance and revenge. Along the same line, Fincham, Paleari, and Regalia (2002) indicated that higher levels of marital quality predicted positive attributions, as a result, the possibility of forgiveness increased through emotional reactions and empathy. In this context, especially responsibility attributions of wives predicted forgiveness better, compared to that of husbands. Moreover, similar to Fincham, Paleari, and Regalia's findings (2002), Taysi's study (2010) with married couples demonstrated that attributions are the best predictors of whether one would forgive the partner after a particular offense experienced in the marriage or not. Specifically, the responsibility attributions were the best predictors of forgiveness for wives while marital adjustment in addition to responsibility attributions were the best predictors for husbands. According to the results, blame and intention dimensions of responsibility attributions were the best predictors of revenge for all the participants. Also, attributions predicted forgiveness in marriage better than marital adjustment.

In the light of these findings, it can be concluded that the way how individuals explain

events or behaviors is essential in understanding intimate relationships. On this basis, the unanswered questions of how attributions are related to other specific actions such as attachment behaviors in a relationship and of how other intrapersonal factors such as perfectionism might contribute to behaviors exchanges especially in terms of attachment behaviors should be addressed.

2.2.2 Attributions and Perfectionism

Based on the existing literature, perfectionism is found to be closely related to individuals' negative attributional styles (Flett et al., 1998; Chang, & Sanna, 2001). In this issue, Chang and Sanna (2001) claimed that perfectionism and negative attributions are related regarding personal life events as well. Both were indicated as significant predictors of depression and dysphoria. Further, researchers displayed that higher levels of negative attributional style were found to increase the correlation between perfectionism and symptoms of depression.

At this point, probable common aspects of these two constructs of attributions and perfectionism should be addressed. To illustrate, the judgment-related cognitive processes regarding both notions can be one of these aspects that should be investigated to enlighten the link between them. Also, it was claimed that individuals try to make explanations for several events and behaviors by taking their past experiences and expectations into account (Piri & Kabakçı, 2007). At this point, perfectionist expectations might be associated with the attributions that individuals make. It means that cognitive processes should be focused on when exploring perfectionist individuals' attributions.

The previous literature commonly showed that perfectionism is closely related to cognitive distortions. Particularly, other-oriented perfectionism was found to be associated with blaming others more, insensitivity to other individuals' needs and emotions (Hewitt & Flett, 1991; Kim, Johnson, & Ripley, 2011), as well as untrustworthiness and hostile attitudes

toward other individuals (Flett et al., 1998). Further, socially prescribed perfectionism was linked to the feeling of anger (Hewitt & Flett, 1991). Regarding this finding, Flett and colleagues (2001) stated that individuals' perception that the others are unfair toward them by asking for the perfect is detrimental to relationships. This dimension of perfectionism also goes with irrational beliefs such as over concern anxiously and having a tendency to blame (Flett, Hewitt, Blankstein, & Koledin, 1991). As for the blame, individuals blamed themselves as well as the others since they believe that the others set unachievable perfectionist expectations for them. Moreover, individuals with higher levels of perfectionism are more likely to have maladaptive cognitive processes like thinking dichotomously (Lee, 2007) or in a "should" way (Ellis, 2002), overgeneralizing (Lee, 2007; Burns, 1980), catastrophizing and blaming the self (Rudolph, Flett, & Hewitt, 2007), and ruminating (O'Connor, O'Connor, & Marshall, 2007; Harris, Pepper, & Maack, 2008), in addition to maladaptive affective processes such as feelings of guilt, shame (Hamachek, 1978), and inferiority (Lee, 2007). Bergman and colleagues (2007) also indicated that undergraduate students' perfectionism was positively linked to cognitive dysfunctions like distorted thinking. Similarly, case studies reflected the association between perfectionism and detrimental cognitive styles (Riley & Shafran, 2005). Further, perfectionism level of undergraduate students was linked to other cognitive biases such as categorical thinking (Burns & Fedewa, 2005). In harmony with these findings, children's perfectionism was demonstrated to be related to negative affective states (Bieling, Israeli, Smith, & Antony, 2003) and distorted negative thinking (Davis & Wosinski, 2012). Additionally, Di Bartolo and colleagues (2007) exhibited that higher levels of perfectionism went with judgmental biases, such as believing in the greater possibility of negative events occurring in the future and that these events would result with detrimental consequences. Also, perfectionists were found to react to negative outcomes more (Furman et

al., 2017). Along the same line, perfectionists were more likely to react to criticisms in a hypersensitive way.

Thus, it can be concluded that perfectionism might have an impact on individuals' judgements, possibly on attributions for events and others' behaviors. From this perspective, investigating how perfectionists make interpretations is an important issue in the field. As stated previously, the link between maladaptive attributions and perfectionism is already documented. Considering this association, individuals with higher perfectionism level may see the reason of a problem as stable and affecting the relationship in several aspects. Also, they can see a behavior of their partner as worthy to blame and intentional. Particularly, Furman and colleagues (2017) showed that partner-oriented perfectionism was one of the important predictors of responsibility attributions as individuals think that the behavior of the partner was selfish, blamable, and intentional. Likewise, partner-prescribed perfectionism predicted that individuals see the reason as stable.

Gender differences were also found to be important in understanding the concepts of perfectionism and attributions. As for perfectionism, Davis and Wosinski (2012) expressed that there might be a discrepancy regarding the strength of perfectionism's correlates. To illustrate, the link between perfectionism and negative affect was found to be stronger for girls. Drawing from this result, they argued that particular dimensions of perfectionism might be more strongly associated with distress for girls in adolescence. Studies also highlighted that there were some gender differences in the attributions that individuals made for events and behaviors. To illustrate, the effect of attributions on the quality of marriage was different for wives and husbands (Sanford, 2005). Also, the strength of the relation between attributions and interpersonal behaviors was not the same for wives and husbands, favoring women (Bradbury, Beach, Fincham, & Nelson, 1996; Miller & Bradbury, 1995). Bradbury and Fincham (1992) reported that the maladaptive attributions of spouses were associated

with ineffective behaviors in problem solving specifically among women. Additionally, they indicated that women were more likely to make maladaptive attributions and respond to negative partner behaviors in the same way. To put it differently, as the women see the reasons of their marriage problems as global, stable, and related to their partners, in turn, see their partners as blamable, behave intentionally and selfish regardless of the extent to which they satisfied in their marriage, they have higher levels of negative reciprocity tendency. Moreover, women who made more detrimental attributions criticized their husbands in their interactions more. They interpreted the reason of women's higher levels of negative attributions for marital problems or partner behaviors as related to their orientation to social and emotional aspects of intimate relationships. Along the same line, since women gave more importance to relationships, their attributions predicted problem solving behaviors better, compared to men. Likewise, the reason why they attributed events and behaviors in a more maladaptive way was suggested to be related to women's higher levels of rumination (Boon & Sulsky, 1997; Taysi, 2010). In a similar vein, the reason of this gender discrepancy in attributions might be the higher levels of women's responsiveness to the context and attentiveness to details of interaction (Acitelli, 1992).

2.3 Attachment Behaviors

Attachment is a concept originally developed by Bowlby (1973) related to close relationships. Attachment is defined as an emotional bond formed in the first two years of life between the child and the primary caregiver (Ainsworth, 1989). The development of this bond depends on the behaviors of the caregiver toward the infant's needs (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978). Particularly, when the caregiver acts sensitively and responsively toward the child's physical as well as psychological needs, a secure attachment is built. On the contrary, if the caregiver gives inconsistent responses to the needs of the infant, then, anxious attachment is observed. Lastly, inadequate responses from the caregiver concludes

with avoidant attachment. Additionally, Bowlby (1973) indicated that individuals develop representations of the world mentally according to the affectional bond with their caregivers through internal working models. To put it differently, several expectations about the self, the other and the future relationships are constructed depending on this first relationship with the primary caregiver (Bretherton & Munholland, 2008).

Hazan and Shaver (1987) extended this conceptualization of parental attachment into future adult close relationships, especially the romantic ones. Specifically, they considered love in terms of a secure adult attachment bond built between romantic partners. This affective bond is viewed as a reference point to shape individuals' perceptions about themselves regarding their worth of love and about availability and trustworthiness of their partners in the intimate relationship. Adult attachment has been categorized similarly with Ainsworth et al.'s (1978) model for parental attachment. In other words, adults attach to their romantic partners securely, anxiously, or avoidantly as well.

Moreover, a shift toward a dimensional categorization of adult attachment has appeared over time (Creasey & Ladd, 2004). Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) suggested a two-dimensional assessment of adult attachment with the dimensions of avoidance and anxiety. Likewise, Brennan and colleagues (1998) conducted a factor analysis of 60 attachment subscales related to adult attachment and agreed upon anxiety and avoidance dimensions. In particular, attachment anxiety is identified with a fear of abandonment or rejection stemming from a negative view of self. Further, individuals high on attachment anxiety are readily overwhelmed by negative emotions. Specific to romantic relationships, higher attachment anxiety brings an overvalue of and clingy behaviors toward the partners. On the other hand, attachment avoidance is characterized with a desire for self-reliance as well as emotional and psychological independence as a result of negative view of others. Individuals with avoidant attachment also feel uncomfortable about closeness to others, and

therefore are afraid of intimacy and commitment in romantic relationships. On the basis of this two-dimensional attachment model, higher attachment anxiety or avoidance or both is regarded as an insecure adult attachment style whereas lower levels are remarked as secure.

Further, there is another shift toward studying attachment through an emphasis on behaviors that promote secure attachment (Greenman & Johnson, 2013). This change in interest is also more beneficial for interventions in couple therapy (Sandberg et al., 2017), compared to relatively more stable attachment styles (Fraley, 2002). Regarding this issue, Sandberg and colleagues (2012) indicated that specific behaviors related to secure attachment predict positive communication between couples as well as marital stability and satisfaction. These attachment behaviors are accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement of partners in the relationship. Similarly, Bowlby (1973) primarily suggested responsiveness and accessibility behaviors as crucial for the sense of security in the relationship. Along the same line, these behaviors are found to be essential for a secure bond in adult romantic relationships (Mikulincer & Goodman, 2006). Consequently, the attachment behaviors of accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement have an effect on the internal working models over time, in turn, attachment styles.

When defining attachment concept in terms of specific behaviors, accessibility indicates the extent to which one is emotionally available and easy to get one's attention (Bradford et al., 2020). As for responsiveness, Reis and Gable (2015) defined it as individuals' concern and support for as well as validation of each other's needs. Finally, engagement refers to positive and meaningful connection between partners through responsiveness and accessibility toward each other (Sandberg et al., 2012). Previous research suggests that accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement in romantic relationships predict better relationship outcomes, more than the attachment styles (Cobb et al., 2001; Feeney, 2003; Sandberg et al., 2017). Therefore, focusing on attachment behaviors as a remark of

relationship processes is essential. At this point, analyzing the contributions of individual processes in relationship outcomes such as attachment behaviors is valuable.

2.3.1 Attachment Behaviors and Couple Relationships

The attachment bond is one of the most popular concepts in investigating relationships, especially the intimate ones. The correlates of this bond were well documented in the literature. All individuals have a regulation system that is essential to interpersonal behavioral exchanges (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016). Attachment strategies of dealing with stress are important in understanding the link between the quality of attachment and behaviors in romantic relationships. While securely attached individuals prefer proximity seeking behaviors which are called primary attachment strategy in times of stress, insecurely attached individuals tend to use secondary attachment strategies as a result of negative self and other images (Mikulincer, Shaver, & Pereg, 2003). Specifically, attachment anxiety is linked to hyperactivation strategies whereas avoidance is associated with deactivation ones (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2016). In this characterization, anxiously attached individuals exceedingly need their partners' validation and are more sensitive to any remarks of threats regarding the relationship. On the other side, avoidantly attached individuals prefer relying on themselves for emotional comfort and put a distance between themselves and their partners. From this perspective, attachment avoidance appears to be congruent with more traditional male roles while attachment anxiety with more traditional female roles (Huston, Surra, Fitzgerald, & Cate, 1981). Consecutively, there might be some gender differences in the attachment issues. Regarding this assumption, Lafontaine and colleagues (2019) found that women's higher attachment avoidance linked with their male partners' lower dyadic coping. The researchers explained this finding through traditional roles of gender. In particular, they discussed that since women are traditionally seen as nurturing in relationships (Gottman, 1994), the partners

of avoidantly attached women might have trouble in relying on an untraditional female partner and be less motivated to use dyadic coping skills when dealing with stressors.

Additionally, Sandberg and colleagues (2012) emphasized that particular behaviors of accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement are essential to the facilitation of partners' bonding within the relationship. In other words, these behaviors are identified as promoting the attachment bond of couples. In accordance with Bowlby's own statements, the behaviors of accessibility and responsiveness in a relationship are crucial for whether one would feel secure, anxious, or distressed (Mikulincer & Goodman, 2006). In times of stress, if individuals can make a request for their desire to be close and connected and if their partners can respond accordingly, new events of bonding called engagement as the other one of attachment behaviors (Johnson, 2008) can be noticed in the romantic relationship (Johnson, 2004).

As for the correlations of attachment behaviors with relational outcomes, Sandberg et al. (2016) demonstrated that accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement behaviors are positively associated with secure attachment. Moreover, these actions predicted couples' constructive communication, relationship satisfaction, and stability. Also, Zeytinoğlu-Saydam et al. (2020) analyzed attachment behaviors with a Turkish sample. Similar to the previous results, attachment behaviors were linked to individuals' attachment quality as well as the higher degrees of satisfaction, commitment, and happiness in the relationship. Consequently, engaging in attachment behaviors is crucial for romantic relationships. Therefore, expanding the links between attachment behaviors and other intrapersonal or interpersonal factors is invaluable in order to better understand intimate relationships.

2.3.2 Attachment Behaviors and Perfectionism

After discovering the significance of perfectionism in personal and relational life, researchers aimed to specify the precursors of perfectionist expectations and actions. At this

point, the attachment bond came into the picture. Nevertheless, this link was not thoroughly explored. Considering this issue, Hamachek (1978) proposed that the perfectionist behaviors are a coping mechanism for children to handle negative self- and other-images stemming from insecure attachment with the caregiver. In particular, The Perfectionism Social Disconnection Model (PSDM; Hewitt et al., 2017) posits that insecure attachment with the caregiver in the beginning years of life, in turn, negative self- and other-views are crucial for the development of maladaptive perfectionistic behaviors in the following years of life. Further, Rice and Mirzadeh (2000) specified that adaptive and maladaptive perfectionism are connected to the attachment quality separately. In their leading research with university students, findings showed a positive correlation between insecure parental attachment and maladaptive perfectionism. On the other hand, adaptive perfectionism correlated with less insecure parental attachment. Then, Rice and Lopez (2004) expanded these results into adult attachment quality and showed that there is a relation between perfectionism and adult attachment quality, as well. In a similar vein, several studies identified this link between perfectionism and adult attachment in a clear way (Chen, Hewitt, & Flett, 2015; Rice et al., 2005; Wei et al., 2004). In this regard, Andersson and Perris (2000) also found that perfectionism was positively correlated with attachment insecurity. In addition, Wei and colleagues (2006) reported that perfectionism mediated the association between attachment and college students' depressive moods. Particularly, they stressed out that attachment insecurity has a role in the development of future depression as a result of ineffective coping styles to deal with stress via future perfectionist tendencies. They found the same result even when they controlled the beginning perfectionism level, depression and maladaptive coping.

Moreover, Lafontaine and colleagues (2019) found that perfectionism toward the partner has a mediator role in the link between attachment insecurity and lower levels of dyadic coping skills in their study with 170 couples. Specifically, they indicated that

attachment avoidance was closely linked to partner-oriented perfectionism, in turn, lower levels of dyadic coping. Related to this point, researchers suggested that since avoidant individuals see their partners as inadequate due to their perfectionist tendencies towards the partner, they might not be eager to support their partners or use dyadic coping skills. In a similar vein, Feeney and Collins (2001) offered that avoidantly attached individuals do not have the motivation and skills regarding supporting their partners. Moreover, other studies showed the similar findings of the link between attachment avoidance and lower levels of supportiveness (Collins, Guichard, Ford, & Feeney, 2006; Feeney & Hohaus, 2001; Simpson, Rholes, Oriña, & Grich, 2002). Further, Kane and colleagues (2007) found that insecure attachment, particularly avoidance, was related to the perception that the partners were less supportive. Avoidant individuals had unrealistic expectations from their partner, hence, they could not see their partner's coping effort positively. Also, for this association between attachment avoidance and partner-oriented perfectionism, Lafontaine and colleagues (2019) discussed that unrealistic standards toward the partner resulting with lower satisfaction might make avoidantly attached individuals justify their emotional detachment and distancing from their partner. In other words, individuals with avoidant attachment may want their partners to meet unachievable standards so that they distance themselves from their partners when these standards are naturally not met. Consequently, avoidantly attached individuals may reinforce their negative other-image and discomfort with closeness. In the same study, researchers found that attachment anxiety was connected to self- and partner-oriented perfectionism as well as poorer dyadic coping skills. Considering this result, anxiously attached individuals' perfectionist standards for their partners was suggested as a result of their hypervigilance to any relationship threats which make them have trouble in counting on their partner when dealing with distress. These researchers also argued that individuals with higher attachment anxiety had higher levels of self-oriented perfectionism because they might

try to fulfill unattainable self-imposed standards to decrease their abandonment risk by their partner. They may also view imperfect actions of their partner as a remark of relationship threat or abandonment as a result of their rejection fear, hypersensitivity, and self-doubt. In a similar way, anxiously attached individuals may set perfectionist standards toward their partner as a result of their need for affection and reassurance in an excessive way. Due to these higher criteria, they are more likely to behave in a highly demanding and critical way. On this issue, Fritts (2012) also discussed that reassurance seeking actions of anxious individuals might be related to the need for being perfect in relationship and to the belief that others expect the perfect from them. Besides, attachment anxiety was associated with a negative self- and positive other-view as well as a fear of abandonment by partners due to viewing self as unworthy of love. Because of a hypervigilance toward any remarks of rejection, individuals with higher attachment anxiety expect greatly high and rigid standards from the partners in order to feel satisfied in the relationship. On the contrary, avoidant individuals would avoid conflicts with withdrawing behaviors and might prefer displaying themselves as perfect in order to hide their feelings of inadequacy as well as to avoid criticism. They particularly want to be perfect because of either their own perfectionist standards for themselves or their perception that others have perfectionist standards for them. Further, Lafontaine and colleagues (2021) found that anxiously or avoidantly attached individuals have higher levels of partner-prescribed perfectionism, which was related to higher levels of couple conflict perceived by the individuals. In the light of these findings, it can be stated that perfectionist individuals have unrealistic expectations in their relationships, thus, might see the ordinary interactions in daily life as threats to them. Consequently, their attachment system might be activated and increase the amount of conflict in the relationship.

Drawing from all the findings from the relevant literature, it is well documented that attachment quality is strongly connected to the degree to which individuals are perfectionist.

Nonetheless, since attachment behaviors in romantic relationships is a novel issue, there is no study that directly examines the relation between perfectionism and attachment behaviors, to my knowledge. Meanwhile, numerous studies found that perfectionism level is closely related to the way individuals behave in a relationship. To illustrate, individuals with higher levels of socially prescribed perfectionism tend to interact with more conflictual patterns like hostile dominant behaviors (Flett, Hewitt, Blankstein, & Dynin, 1994). Along with the same line, higher perfectionism toward the self was seen together with angry hostility (Hill et al., 1997). Further, Sherry and colleagues (2014) investigated partner-prescribed perfectionism and daily conflict between partners with a 14-day diary design in a dyadic way. They examined daily conflict in terms of critical, hostile, inconsiderate, and rejecting actions toward the partner. As a result, for men, self and partner claims of higher partner-prescribed perfectionism was found to be associated with higher daily conflict reports either by self or partner. As for women, the partner-prescribed perfectionism reported only by the self was linked to higher daily conflict reports by the partner. Considering these results, the researchers suggested that men who believe their partner expect the perfect from them were more likely to defeat themselves through conflictual behaviors. On the other hand, women with higher partner-prescribed perfectionism may prefer non-conflictual responds to the demand of perfect by the partner.

Likewise, Haring, Hewitt, and Flett (2003) analyzed the relation between perfectionism and coping strategies. In particular, they underlined that although the theoretical background and many empirical studies showed the relation between perfectionism and behaviors that may influence the intimate relationships' quality (Hewitt & Flett, 1991), little attention was given directly to this association. Therefore, they conducted a study with 76 couples to shed light on the links among perfectionism, marital coping, and marital functioning. The researchers demonstrated that perfectionist individuals were more prone to use conflictual marital coping skills regarding the problems in marriage and reported lower

levels of marital adjustment. These findings were true for both the self and the partner. Particularly, the belief that the partner has perfectionist expectations from the self was one of the adverse predictors of adjustment level in marriage. Also, partner-prescribed perfectionism was linked to conflictual coping like wanting change from the partner, blaming partner, and nagging. Moreover, adverse marital coping preferences were found to be the mediator in the association between partner-prescribed perfectionism and lower marital functioning, again for both the self and the partner. Similarly, it was shown that the more the partner-oriented perfectionism was, the more individuals criticized and blamed their partners as well as used conflictual coping skills and behaved in a less supportive way in marriage. Related to this finding, Flett and colleagues (2001) argued that detrimental strategies might be a consequence of perfectionists' feelings of hopeless and helpless since they think they are unable to be approved by others due to others' unachievable perfectionist expectations. To sum, it can be stated that perfectionism has an invaluable role in understanding the close relationships, specifically through the way how individuals behave in their relationships.

In a nutshell, researchers well documented that perfectionism is strongly related to the attachment concept and had an invaluable contribution to relationship behaviors. Nevertheless, to my knowledge, there is no research directly investigating the association between perfectionism and attachment behaviors. In other words, contemporary literature falls short of expanding the previously found connection between perfectionism and attachment quality into the behaviors even though it is asserted that the security within romantic relationship as a result of attachment-related behaviors of accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement is closely related to more positive expectations and emotions about individuals' romantic partners (Cobb et al., 2001; Zeytinoglu-Saydam et al, 2020). From this point of view, promoting attachment behaviors may have a positive influence on individuals' perfectionist expectations about partners and relationships which is associated with negative

relational elements (Stoeber, 2012). Further, exploring the link between perfectionism and attachment focusing on behaviors is essential regarding romantic relationships because attachment behaviors are changed more easily than expectations (Sandberg et al., 2017). Thus, this study will contribute to the understanding of this association between perfectionism and attachment from a different point of view by examining accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement behaviors of both partners within their romantic relationship with a dyadic method.

2.3.3 Attachment Behaviors and Attributions

In social psychology, it was commonly assumed that individuals' ways of how they attribute events influence their behaviors as a response (Kelley, 1973). As previously mentioned, numerous studies also showed that how individuals interpret events in their close relationships or their partners' behaviors is closely linked to how they behave (Fincham & Bradbury, 1992). Particularly, maladaptive attributions appeared to be associated with less problem-solving actions and more conflicts in an intimate relationship. Considering this issue, it can also be assumed that individuals' attribution styles might be related to their certain behaviors such as their accessibility, responsiveness and engagement, in short, attachment behaviors.

2.3.4 Linking Attachment Behaviors, Attributions and Perfectionism

In the light of all these findings in the literature, perfectionism, attributions and attachment behaviors might be related to each other. As expected, all three variables were also found to be related to relationship satisfaction. In particular, perfectionism (Matte & Lafontaine, 2012; Stoeber, 2012), maladaptive attributions (Fincham & Bradbury, 1987; 1988), and attachment behaviors (Sandberg et al., 2012) were found to be important factors examining relationship satisfaction. Further, recent studies started to focus on possible intrapersonal factors impacting satisfaction in marriage and interpersonal actions. At this

point, perfectionism and attributions might come into the picture as the intrapersonal variables influencing individuals' behaviors. Researchers well documented that perfectionism had an invaluable contribution to negative relationship behaviors (Haring et al., 2003; Lafontaine et al., 2019; Sherry et al., 2014) but the question of how was not thoroughly answered.

Regarding the answer, attributions were seen as one of the possible factors in expanding the link between perfectionism and negative relationship behaviors. Specifically, as previously mentioned, perfectionism toward the partner was found to be positively correlated with conflict-increasing attributions by viewing the partner's negative behavior as blamable, selfish, and intentional and seeing the partner as responsible for this behavior (Furman et al., 2017). The researchers interpreted this finding as individuals with perfectionist expectations toward their partner see their partner accountable regarding the behavior, independent from the belief that the partner is the reason. Moreover, it was demonstrated that partner-oriented perfectionists see the partner behavior after an infidelity as selfish and the reason of it as global, in turn, less forgive their partner. Similarly, the possibility of whether one would forgive the partner after an infidelity as an example of interpersonal behaviors decreased with partner-prescribed perfectionism. Individuals believing their partner expects the perfect from them were more likely to see the reason of partner behavior as affecting other aspects of the relationship and to not forgive their partner. To put it differently, partner-oriented and partner-prescribed perfectionism were linked to conflictual attributions, in turn, lower levels of forgiveness. This finding might help explain the role of perfectionism in detrimental outcomes in relationships. Therefore, it can be expected that as the perfectionism levels increase, individuals make more negative attributions about events or behaviors, then, the extent to which they or their partners' display attachment behaviors decrease.

2.4 Current Study

Even though numerous studies widely examined the concepts of perfectionism,

attributions, attachment and interpersonal behaviors in relationships, the associations between the degree to which individuals are perfectionist, the way how they explain and make attributions to behaviors and, in turn, the way these two notions impact the interactions through behaviors have not yet been clearly explained. Even, since exploring the attachment concept through behaviors in couple relationships is a novel issue, focusing on these behaviors as an example of couple interactions within an intimate relationship is important. In the light of previous results within the relevant literature, it can be stated that perfectionism is connected to various poor relational outcomes (Hewitt & Flett, 1993; Martin & Ashby, 2004; Shea, Slaney, & Rice, 2006) such as higher likelihood of terminating the romantic relationship (Lopez et al., 2006), adverse relationship coping styles, in turn, lower marital functioning (Haring, Hewitt, & Flett, 2003), lower relationship satisfaction and commitment (Stoeber, 2012), lower sexual satisfaction (Stoeber et al., 2013), and higher levels of dyadic conflict (Mackinnon et al., 2012). Likewise, negative attributions that individuals make about events or behaviors were also found to be closely associated with important relationship variables. That is, it was indicated that maladaptive attributions are lower marital satisfaction, ineffective problem-solving behaviors, and more hostile and rejecting behaviors (Bradbury & Fincham, 1992), as well as lower likelihood of forgiveness (Furman et al., 2017; Johnson, 2019). Hence, expanding the association between the extent to which individuals are perfectionist, how they explain events and behaviors, and how they behave in their marriage relationship is valuable to understand intimate relationships more deeply. Based on the theoretical definitions of the constructs and findings from previous empirical studies as well as the gap in the existing literature, the current study aimed to apprehend the contributions of individual processes to relationship processes such as interpersonal actions. Furthermore, the analysis will be conducted in a dyadic way, thus, taking both partners' perspectives into consideration and their influences on each other. In short, the goal of this study was to

examine the possible direct and indirect actor and partner effects of perfectionism on attachment behaviors through attributions.

2.4.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present work addressed the research questions followingly:

Question 1: Is women's own perfectionism directly related to their own attachment behaviors (direct actor effect, women)?

Question 2: Is men's own perfectionism directly related to their own attachment behaviors (direct actor effect, men)?

Question 3: Is women's own perfectionism directly related to their partners' attachment behaviors (direct partner effect, women)?

Question 4: Is men's own perfectionism directly related to their partners' attachment behaviors (direct partner effect, men)?

Question 5: Is women's own perfectionism indirectly related to their own attachment behaviors through their own attributions (indirect actor effect, women)?

Hypothesis: Higher levels of women's own perfectionism will be connected to higher levels of their own maladaptive attributions which in turn, to lower levels of their own attachment behaviors.

Question 6: Is men's own perfectionism indirectly related to their own attachment behaviors through their own attributions (indirect actor effect, men)?

Hypothesis: Higher levels of men's own perfectionism will be linked to higher levels of their own negative attributions which in turn, to lower levels of their own attachment behaviors.

Question 7: Is women's own perfectionism indirectly related to their partners' attachment behaviors through women's own or their partners' attributions (indirect partner effect, women)?

Hypothesis: Higher levels of women's own perfectionism will be related to higher levels of their own or their partners' maladaptive attributions which in turn, to lower levels of men's attachment behaviors.

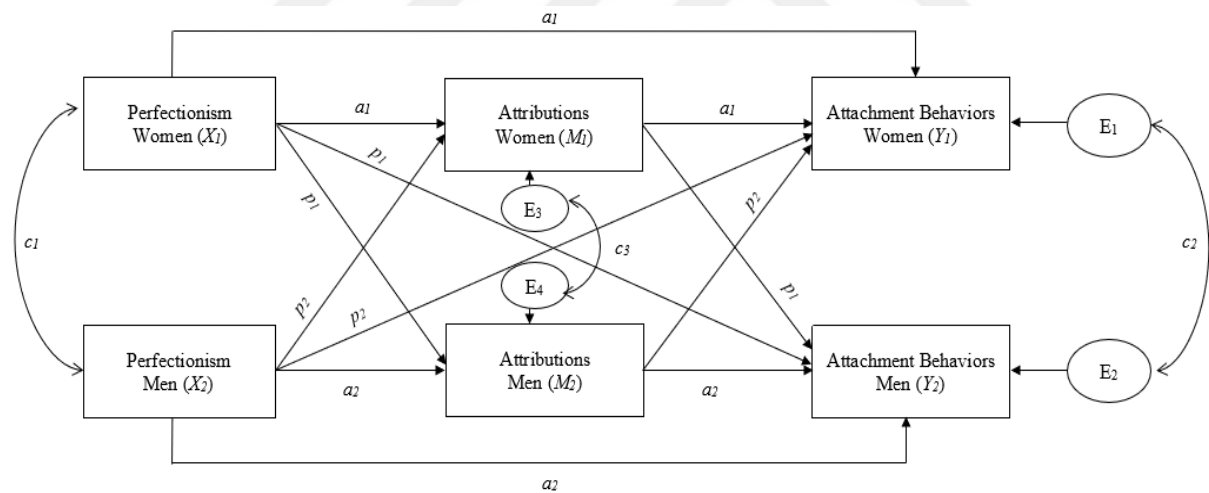
Question 8: Is men's own perfectionism indirectly related to their partners' attachment behaviors through men's own or their partners' attributions (indirect partner effect, men)?

Hypothesis: Higher levels of men's own perfectionism will be associated with higher levels of their own or their wives' negative attributions which in turn, with lower levels of women's attachment behaviors.

The theoretical model for Actor Partner Interdependence Mediation Model (APIMeM) with the indirect effects of attributions is demonstrated below in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Theoretical Model for APIMeM with Indirect Effects of Attributions



Note. Actor effects are denoted by a , partner effects are denoted by p ; c_1 indicates the correlation between X_1 and X_2 , c_2 indicates the residual nonindependence of Y_1 and Y_2 , c_3 indicates the residual nonindependence of M_1 and M_2 .

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

3.1 Participants

Snowball sampling method was used to reach participants in initial sample of 97 couples. Four couples were excluded due to not meeting the inclusion criteria of being married at least two years and two were removed during the data cleaning process (see results section). Thus, the final sample consisted of 91 married couples. The inclusion criteria of being married for at least two years was set since the goal of the current study was to explore individual and relationship processes in relatively long-term and stable relationships. Furthermore, the data from 77 individuals were excluded in the analyses because their partner did not participate in the study.

The demographic information of the final sample can be seen in Table 1. In the final sample, the ages varied between 20-71 years for all participants ($M = 39.1$, $SD = 10.5$), 20-63 years for women ($M = 37.4$, $SD = 10.04$), and 25-71 years for men ($M = 40.7$, $SD = 10.7$). Also, the income level ranged from 2800 to 50000 TL for all participants ($M = 10900$, $SD = 8500$), the same as women ($M = 10800$, $SD = 8800$) and for men ($M = 10900$, $SD = 8300$). Further, the education level changed between 5-25 years for all participants ($M = 14.7$, $SD = 4.6$), the same with women ($M = 14.02$, $SD = 4.9$) and men ($M = 15.4$, $SD = 4.2$). Additionally, the relationship duration varied between 31 and 624 months for all participants ($M = 191.97$, $SD = 128.7$), 31-624 months for women ($M = 194.5$, $SD = 132.8$), and 31-518 months for men ($M = 189.4$, $SD = 125.1$). Besides, the length of marriage ranged between 24-629 months for all participants ($M = 164.9$, $SD = 135.5$), 24-629 months for women ($M = 166.5$, $SD = 139.7$), and 24-491 months for men ($M = 163.2$, $SD = 131.9$). Similarly, the duration of cohabitation changed from 24 to 629 months for all participants ($M = 166.4$, $SD = 135.7$), the same as for women ($M = 167.7$, $SD = 140.3$), and 24-491 months for men ($M =$

164.98, $SD = 131.8$). Moreover, the number of children that couples had ranged between 0 and 4 for both women and men. Particularly, 18 women (19.8%) and 19 men (20.9%) indicated that they do not have any children. On the other hand, 73 women (80.2%) and 72 men (79.1%) reported that they have children. As for the participants with children, 26 women (28.6%) and 25 men (27.5%) reported having one child, 36 women and men (39.6%) reported having 2 children, 7 women and men (7.7%) reported having 3 children, and 4 women and men (4.4%) reported 4 children. Since none of the demographic variables were related to any main study variables, they were not included in the analyses.

Table 1
Demographic Information

	Women			Men			All Participants		
	Min-Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min-Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min-Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Age	20-63	37.4	10.04	25-71	40.7	10.7	20-71	39.1	10.5
Relationship Length in months	31-624	194.5	132.8	31-518	189.4	125.1	31-624	191.97	128.7
Cohabitation Length in months	24-629	167.7	140.3	24-491	164.98	131.8	24-629	166.4	135.7
Marriage Length in months	24-629	166.5	139.7	24-491	163.2	131.9	24-629	164.9	135.5
Education level in years	5-25	14.02	4.9	5-25	15.4	4.2	5-25	14.7	4.6
Income level (1000 TL)	2.8-50	10.8	8.8	2.8-50	10.9	8.3	2.8-50	10.9	8.5
Ages of children									
1 st Child	0-40	13.98	10.9	0-40	14.1	10.9	0-40	14.1	10.8
2 nd Child	1-34	15.01	8.96	0.5-34	15.1	9.01	0.5-34	15.03	8.9

3 rd Child	1-24	9.6	8.04	1-24	9.7	7.97	1-24	9.7	7.8
4 th Child	1-21	8.0	9.01	1-21	8.0	9.02	1-21	8.0	8.4

Note. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation.

3.2 Procedures

Initially, the approval from Human Research Ethics Board of Özyeğin University was obtained to recruit participants. Then, snowballing sampling technique was utilized to reach individuals and gather online data in social networks. Specifically, the information about the study and the survey link were delivered through e-mails and online messaging platforms such as WhatsApp. In the announcements, a poster including the summary of the study information, participation criteria, the prize draw of D&R, the link of survey, and e-mail address of the primary researcher for any questions were included. The participants were informed that their e-mail addresses were collected only to communicate with them when they won the gift card, were maintained confidentially, and then would be deleted after the draw was terminated.

The data were collected online via the Qualtrics survey platform. The anonymity of the participants was protected by asking the participants to designate a pseudonym for themselves as a couple. The pseudonym allowed the researcher to match the couples' data for the analysis purposes. At first, informed consent form (see Appendix A) was presented to the participants and only the individuals who gave consent continued the study. Following the completion of data collection, one of the ID numbers assigned to the couples who wrote their e-mail addresses was randomly chosen. Afterwards, the couple was informed about being drawn and the gift card was delivered to them through e-mail. The possibility of being drawn for the prize was calculated as 1.695%.

The data were kept and protected in the researcher's personal laptop with a password. After the completion of data collection, the data were exported from Qualtrics in sav formats.

The couples were matched on the basis of reported couple nick names, their birthdays, and marriage dates. Mostly, SPSS 25.0 was utilized for the basic analyses process. As for the dyadic analysis, MEDYAD was chosen to perform APIMeM analysis (Coutts, Hayes, & Jiang, 2019).

3.3 Measures

Demographic Information Form, Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale, Brief Accessibility, Responsiveness and Engagement Scale, and Relationship Attribution Measure were used in order to collect the data.

3.3.1 Demographic Information Form

In this form, the participants were asked to report their gender, age, education levels in years, couple income level, romantic relationship length, marriage length, cohabitation length, and the number and ages of children (see Appendix B).

3.3.2 Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale

The level of perfectionism was assessed through the 45-item Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale (MPS; Hewitt & Flett, 1991) as the most widely used tool for the relevant construct and taking interpersonal dimensions of perfectionism into account (Matte & Lafontaine, 2012). MPS has three subscales of self-oriented, other-oriented and socially-prescribed perfectionism, and each with 15 items. The self- (items 1, 6, 8, 12, 14, 15, 17, 20, 23, 28, 32, 34, 36, 40, and 42) and other-oriented (items 2, 3, 4, 7, 10, 16, 19, 22, 24, 26, 27, 29, 38, 43, and 45) perfectionism subscales evaluate high and inflexible standards as well as expectations toward the self and toward the significant others respectively. Further, the socially-prescribed perfectionism (items 5, 9, 11, 13, 18, 21, 25, 30, 31, 33, 35, 37, 39, 41, and 44) measures the extent to which individuals believe that significant others have high and inflexible standards as well as expectations toward them. Respondents are supposed to rate each statement on a 7-point Likert scale where 1 refers to “strongly disagree” and 7 “strongly

agree". Some of the items are "When I am working on something, I cannot relax until it is perfect." (self-oriented); "If I ask someone to do something, I expect it to be done flawlessly." (other-oriented), and "The people around me expect me to succeed at everything I do." (socially-prescribed). To adopt the scale for marriage, the items in other-oriented and socially-prescribed subscales are reworded focusing on the romantic partner, rather than the general significant others. To illustrate, the items such as "I have high expectations for the people who are important to me." and "I feel that others are too demanding of me" were transformed to "I have high expectations for my spouse" and "I feel that my spouse is too demanding of me" (Habke Hewitt, Fehr, Callander, & Flett, 1997; Habke, Hewitt, & Flett, 1999; Haring, Hewitt, & Flett, 2003). The scores in each subscale are calculated by averaging the scores on 15 items following the coding and reverse coding. The reverse coded items were items 2, 3, 4, 8, 9, 10, 12, 19, 21, 24, 30, 34, 36, 37, 38, 43, 44, and 45. Also, since the present study was exploratory and had lower sample size, a total perfectionism score was computed by averaging all the scores, rather than the scores of subscales. Higher scores mean higher perfectionism in the relevant subscale, or in total.

The reliability coefficient alphas were indicated as .86 for self-oriented perfectionism, .82 for other-oriented perfectionism, and .87 for socially-prescribed perfectionism for the original scale (Hewitt & Flett, 1991). As for the marriage adapted version, Cronbach's alpha values were reported as .90 for self-oriented, .78 for other-oriented, and .88 for socially prescribed perfectionism subscales (Haring et al, 2003). Oral (1999) translated the scale into Turkish and reported its reliability with the alpha values of .91 for total perfectionism, .91 for self-oriented, .73 for other-oriented, and .80 for socially prescribed perfectionism. In the present study, the Cronbach's coefficient alpha of self-oriented perfectionism was found to be $\alpha = .87$ for both women and men. For the subscale of partner-oriented perfectionism, Cronbach's coefficient alpha was $\alpha = .62$ for women and $\alpha = .72$ for men. Additionally,

Cronbach's alpha values were equal to .90 for women and .88 for men regarding the partner-prescribed perfectionism subscale. Lastly, Cronbach's coefficient alpha of the total scale was $\alpha = .88$ for women and .87 for men.

The Turkish adapted version of MPS can be found in Appendix C.

3.3.3 Brief Accessibility, Responsiveness, and Engagement Scale

In order to measure the participants' attachment behaviors, the 12-item Brief Accessibility, Responsiveness, and Engagement Scale (BARE; Sandberg et al., 2012) was utilized. The measure is comprised of six items about respondents' perceptions regarding their own attachment behaviors and six items regarding their partner's. In both self and partner parts, two questions are designed to measure each of the three constructs (i.e., accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement behaviors). Participants are asked to respond to each item on a 5-point Likert scale where 1 indicates "never" and 5 reflects "always". Some of the items are "It is hard for my partner to get my attention" (accessibility), "I listen when my partner shares her/his deepest feelings" (responsiveness), and "It is hard for me to confide in my partner" (engagement). There are no reverse-coded items. The scores on all 6 items regarding self attachment behaviors were averaged to create a composite self attachment behaviors score. The same calculation was used in order to get a partner attachment behaviors score. Similarly, a total attachment behavior score was computed by averaging the scores on all 12 items. Consecutively, higher scores demonstrate more secure attachment behaviors.

Sandberg et al. (2012) reported the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients to range between .66 and .85 and test-retest scores between .60 and .75 on both subscales of self and partner. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Zeytinoğlu-Saydam and colleagues (2020) with a community sample of adults. The researchers found that the self and the partner subscales were highly overlapping and not distinct from each other in the Turkish sample and suggested using the scale with a total score or only with one of the self or partner subscales. In line with

their recommendations, only the scores from self subscale were used in the analyses. Again, due to exploratory aims and lower sample size, a total self attachment behaviors was used, rather than the subdimensions of accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement. Zeytinoğlu-Saydam and colleagues (2020) also reported the test-retest reliability coefficients as .79 for self and .86 for partner scale. Moreover, the values of Cronbach's alpha were reported as .76 for the self, .86 for the partner, and .89 for the total attachment behavior. As for the current study, Cronbach's alpha value of self subscale was $\alpha = .79$ for women and $\alpha = .76$ for men. Also, Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the partner subscale was found to be .87 and .83 for women and men, respectively. Finally, Cronbach's alpha coefficient of the total scale was $\alpha = .90$ for women and $\alpha = .88$ for men.

The Turkish adapted version of BARE was presented in Appendix D.

3.3.4 Relationship Attribution Measure

The participants' attributions about their marital relationship were evaluated through the 24-item Relationship Attribution Measure (RAM; Fincham & Bradbury, 1992). This measure specifically focuses on the explanations regarding the partner's behaviors. RAM consists of two subscales named causality and responsibility, and each with 12 items. The causality attributions also included three subscales of locus (items 1, 9, 15, and 23), stability (items 2, 10, 18, and 24), and globality (items 3, 7, 14, and 20) while responsibility attributions involved three subscales of intentionality (items 4, 12, 16, and 19), motivation (items 5, 11, 13, and 22), and blameworthiness (items 6, 8, 17, and 21). Participants were asked to rate the same six statements on each subscale with four different scenarios considering some hypothetical negative partner behaviors. These four scenarios were "Your spouse criticizes something you say", "Your spouse begins to spend less time with you", "Your husband doesn't pay attention to what you are saying", and "Your spouse is cool and distant". A 6-point Likert scale was used where 1 reflects "strongly disagree" and 6 "strongly

agree”. The examples of the items in each scenario were “My spouse’s behavior was due to something about him (e.g., the type of person s/he is, the mood s/he was in; locus), “The reason my spouse doesn’t pay attention to what I am saying is not likely to change (stability), “The reason my spouse is cool and distant is something that affects other areas of our marriage (globality)”, “My spouse criticized me on purpose rather than unintentionally (intentionality), “My spouse’s behavior was motivated by selfish rather than unselfish concerns (motivation)”, and “My spouse deserves to be blamed for spending less time with me (blameworthiness)”. The scores for each six subscales are computed by averaging the points on each four items in the relevant subscale. Also, a score of causality and responsibility attributions can be calculated by averaging the scores on relevant 12 items. Finally, a total score of attributions was computed by taking the average of all the scores in all the items. As in perfectionism and attachment behaviors, the composite score of attributions were utilized because of exploratory goals and lower sample size. There are no reverse items in the measure. Higher scores mean higher negative attributions to partner behaviors.

Fincham and Bradbury (1992) demonstrated that the scale was reliable with Cronbach’s alpha coefficients ranging between .73 and .91 for men, and between .62 and .93 for women, in all subscales. Specifically, the internal consistency values of alpha were indicated as .86 for causality and .91 for responsibility subscale of men as well as .89 and .93 of women, respectively. Likewise, test-retest reliability coefficients were reported as .84 and .87 for causal and responsibility subscales of women while as .72 and .61 for men, accordingly. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Tutarel-Kışlak (1999) with Cronbach’s alpha values of all the subscales varied between .71 and .90 for men, and between .76 and .91 for women. Further, alpha values were .84 for causality and .90 for responsibility dimensions regarding men as well as .88 for causality and .91 for responsibility regarding women. Additionally, test-retest coefficients were indicated as ranging between .56 and .82.

Specifically, test-retest reliability values were remarked as .76 for causality and .73 for responsibility subscales. In the current study, Cronbach's coefficient alpha values regarding the causal attribution subscale were .90 for women and .89 for men. As for the responsibility subscale, the alphas were found to be equal to .93 for women and .92 for men. Lastly, the total scale's Cronbach's alpha values were .95 for women and .94 for men.

The Turkish adapted version of RAM was provided in Appendix E.



CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This section of the paper reports the results of statistical analyses run in the current study. Particularly, there are three parts of this chapter. The first part gives information about the data cleaning and missing data processes. The second one includes the descriptive statistics and the findings of the preliminary analyses. Lastly, the third part reports the findings of Actor-Partner Interdependence Mediation Model (APIMeM) with the indirect effects of attributions.

4.1 Data Cleaning and Missing Data

Before starting the data analysis, 77 individuals whose partners did not complete the surveys were excluded from the study. In addition, four couples were not included in the analyses as a result of being newlywed and not fulfilling the criterion of being married for at least two years. Two couples were also excluded because their scores were outliers in the main variables. Thus, there were 91 couples (182 individuals) in the final sample. Also, the analysis for missing values was conducted for three main variables and no missing data were found in the questionnaires. However, it was detected that a female participant wrote an invalid value for her income level as a couple in Demographic Form.

4.2 Preliminary Analysis and Descriptive Statistics

IBM SPSS 25.0 was utilized to carry out the analyses for preliminary analyses. The individual structure data were converted to a dyadic structure for the purposes of dyadic analysis. Mahalanobis Distance method was utilized to control for the outliers and normality, ($X^2(6, N = 93) = 22.46, p = 0.001$). The criteria for chi square were decided depending on the critical values presented in chi square table. Also, the value of p was fixed at 0.001 in order to decrease the margin of error (Tabachnick, Fidell, & Ullman, 2007). As a result, two couples' Mahalanobis Distance values were found to exceed the Chi-square statistic value, therefore,

these two cases were removed from further analyses. Additionally, descriptive statistics were used in order to evaluate whether the data is distributed normally through skewness and kurtosis reports. Since the data has a dyadic nature, these values were separately obtained for wives and husbands (see in Table 2). The main study variables' skewness and kurtosis values ranged between the acceptable limits (Kline, 2005). Consecutively, the rest of analyses were run with 91 couples.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for Perfectionism, Attributions, and Attachment Behaviors

	Range	Min-Max	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skew- ness	Kurtosis	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Women							
Perfectionism	3.40	2.16-5.56	3.8	0.72	-0.04	-0.18	0.88
Attributions	4.58	1.0-5.58	2.9	0.98	0.22	-0.06	0.95
Attachment Behaviors	2.50	2.50-5.0	4.4	0.53	-1.29	1.79	0.79
Men							
Perfectionism	3.16	2.11-5.27	3.8	0.70	-0.06	-0.42	0.87
Attributions	3.58	1.0-4.58	2.7	0.86	0.03	-0.68	0.94
Attachment Behaviors	2.67	2.33-5.0	4.4	0.51	-1.19	2.18	0.76
All Participants							
Perfectionism	3.44	2.11-5.56	3.77	0.71	-0.04	-0.31	0.88
Attributions	4.58	1.0-5.58	2.8	0.93	0.18	-0.22	0.94
Attachment Behaviors	2.67	2.33-5.0	4.40	0.52	-1.21	1.84	0.77

Note. *M* = Mean, *SD* = Standard Deviation.

Next, bivariate analysis was carried out with the study variables (see Table 3 and 4). Depending on bivariate coefficients, there was no multicollinearity.

4.2.1 Correlation Analyses

In the bivariate analysis, first, the associations between main study variables with their subscales for women and men were examined (see Table 3). However, due to the exploratory aims of the current study and lower sample size, the analyses with the composite scores, rather than with subdimensions, were mainly considered. Regarding this issue, Table 4 reflected the correlations between women and men's reports regarding only the main composite variables of perfectionism, attributions, and attachment behaviors.

Particularly, the correlational analysis with composite scores showed that the scores of women and men were significantly correlated on perfectionism, $r(89) = .45, p < .001$; attributions, $r(89) = .57, p < .001$; and attachment behaviors, $r(89) = .51, p < .001$. Also, women's perfectionism was positively related to their own attributions, $r(89) = .28, p < .01$; as well as their husbands' attributions, $r(89) = .22, p < .05$. Nonetheless, there were no significant correlations between women's perfectionism and their own attachment behaviors, $r(89) = -.20, p = .055$; and their husbands' attachment behaviors, $r(89) = -.12, p = .27$. Further, women's attributions were negatively linked to their own attachment behaviors, $r(89) = -.41, p < .001$; as well as positively to their husbands' perfectionism, $r(89) = .28, p < .01$; and adversely to attachment behaviors, $r(89) = -.29, p < .01$. Moreover, women's attachment behaviors were negatively associated with their husbands' perfectionism, $r(89) = -.29, p < .01$; and attributions, $r(89) = -.54, p < .001$. As for men's scores, their perfectionism went with their own attributions, $r(89) = .30, p < .01$; but not with their own attachment behaviors, $r(89) = -.14, p = .20$. Lastly, men's attributions negatively correlated with their own attachment behaviors, $r(89) = -.44, p < .001$.

Lastly, there were no correlations between any demographic variables and main study variables for both women and men, therefore, the demographic variables were not included in the further analysis.

Table 3
Pearson Correlations of Main Variables with Subscales for Women and Men

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. SOP _w	-															
2. POP _w	.55**	-														
3. PPP _w	.19	.24*	-													
4. CA _w	-.03	.22*	.27*	-												
5. RA _w	.10	.33**	.29**	.74**	-											
6. AB _w	-.05	-.23*	-.08	-.16	-.26*	-										
7. RB _w	-.01	-.26*	-.23*	-.32**	-.36**	.58**	-									
8. EB _w	-.05	-.08	-.20	-.35**	-.46**	.46**	.54**	-								
9. SOP _m	.14	.21*	.23*	.21*	.08	-.01	.04	.03	-							
10. POP _m	.19	.21*	.42**	.22*	.17	-.07	-.11	-.11	.51**	-						
11. PPP _m	.25*	.37**	.17	.18	.27*	-.45**	-.38**	-.42**	.05	.27**	-					
12. CA _m	-.01	.23*	.15	.60**	.45**	-.37**	-.38**	-.36**	.20	.09	.34**	-				
13. RA _m	.08	.26*	.22*	.37**	.52**	-.40**	-.50**	-.44**	-.03	.14	.42**	.67**	-			
14. AB _m	.13	-.08	-.27**	-.21	-.20	.34**	.27**	.28**	.19	-.13	-.28**	-.23*	-.34**	-		
15. RB _m	.19	.00	-.14	-.25*	-.26*	.35**	.31**	.33**	.21*	-.10	-.33**	-.26*	-.36**	.65**	-	
16. EB _m	.01	-.16	-.29**	-.18	-.27*	.33**	.44**	.45**	.20	-.06	-.43**	-.30**	-.47**	.41**	.52**	-

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Note. SOP = Self-oriented perfectionism, POP = Partner-oriented perfectionism, PPP = Partner-prescribed perfectionism, CA = Causal attributions, RA = Responsibility attributions, AB = Accessibility behaviors, RB = Responsiveness behaviors, EB = Engagement behaviors; subscript w indicates women while subscript m indicates men.

Table 4

Pearson Correlations of Three Main Variables for Women and Men

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Perfectionism ₁	-					
2. Attributions ₁	.275**	-				
3. Attachment Behaviors ₁	-.202	-.410**	-			
4. Perfectionism ₂	.453**	.278**	-.286**	-		
5. Attributions ₂	.216*	.565**	-.536**	.304**	-	
6. Attachment Behaviors ₂	-.117	-.294**	.510**	-.135	-.437**	-

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$ (2-tailed).

Note. Subscript 1 indicates women while subscript 2 indicates men.

4.2.2 Paired Samples *T*-tests

To explore whether there are any gender differences in the main three study variables, paired samples *t*-tests were carried out. Consecutively, the analysis for perfectionism demonstrated that the difference between women ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 0.72$) and men ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 0.70$) was not statistically significant, $t(90) = 0.529$, $p = .598$. In a similar vein, there was no statistically significant difference in attachment behaviors, $t(90) = 1.456$, $p = .149$, with women ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 0.53$) and men ($M = 4.36$, $SD = 0.51$) scoring similarly. Conversely, a significant difference was found between women's and men's attributions, $t(90) = 2.164$, $p = .033$, with women scoring higher ($M = 2.90$, $SD = 0.98$) than men ($M = 2.71$, $SD = 0.86$).

4.3 APIMeM Analysis for the Indirect Effects of Attributions

To explore the link between perfectionism and attachment behaviors through attributions for both women and men, the actor-partner interdependence mediation model (APIMeM) was utilized. This model allowed to take the interdependence between partners and probable actor and partner effects into account (Cook & Kenny, 2005). For this analysis, first, nonindependence of observations of three study variables was evaluated through Pearson product-moment correlation. As a result, significant correlations were found in the scores of women and men on perfectionism, $r(89) = .45$, $p < .001$; attributions, $r(89) = .57$, $p < .001$; and attachment behaviors, $r(89) = .51$, $p < .001$.

Further, whether the gender was a distinguishable variable in the analysis was tested. In this regard, the results of previous paired samples *t*-tests showed that there were gender differences only in attributions, but not in perfectionism and attachment behaviors. Particularly, statistically significant mean differences were found in the comparison of women's and men's attributions scores, $t(90) = 2.164$, $p = .033$, with women scoring higher ($M = 2.90$, $SD = 0.98$) than men ($M = 2.71$, $SD = 0.86$). Nonetheless, significant gender

differences were not revealed in perfectionism scores of women and men, $t(90) = 0.529$, $p = .598$, with women ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 0.72$) and men ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 0.70$) scoring similarly. Likewise, there were no statistically significant differences in attachment behaviors, $t(90) = 1.456$, $p = .149$, with women ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 0.53$) and men ($M = 4.36$, $SD = 0.51$) scoring similarly.

Additionally, two models, one with distinguishable members and the other with indistinguishable members, were compared in order to test the distinguishability in terms of gender. This distinguishability test pointed out a non-significant result, $X^2(6, N = 91) = 7.84$, $p = .250$). Depending on the insignificant results of distinguishability test, it can be said that distinguishing participants based on the gender is not possible, that is named as empirical indistinguishability (Kenny, Kashy, & Cook, 2006). However, the analysis with the method of distinguishable-dyads was carried on in accordance with Sadler, Ethier, and Woody's (2011) recommendations because the current thesis argued that women and men are theoretically distinguishable by their gender. In this issue, Sadler, Ethier, and Woody's (2011) asserted that a priori theoretical and conceptual basis should be considered as much as empirical results in deciding distinguishability. Also, since the female and male members of mixed-sex dyads as in the case of heterosexual married couples are considered as different types, the present data can be still treated as distinguishable. Moreover, they stressed out that if the number of dyads is equal to or greater than 80, the difference between distinguishable- and indistinguishable-dyads analyses can be ignored. In other words, the results of these two paths of analyses would approximate each other. Therefore, the data were treated as distinguishable using the distinguishable-dyads method.

4.3.1 Total Effects of Perfectionism on Attachment Behaviors

First, the results indicated that the actor total effect of women's own perfectionism on their own attachment behaviors was not significant ($b = -.07$, $p = .427$). Also, the actor total

effect of men's own perfectionism on their own attachment behaviors was not significant ($b = -.08, p = .387$).

Regarding the partner effects, the women to men partner total effect of women's own perfectionism on their husbands' attachment behaviors was not significant ($b = -.05, p = .552$). As for the other partner effect, the men to women partner total effect of men's own perfectionism on their wives' attachment behaviors was significant ($b = -.19, p = .035$). It can be interpreted that men's perfectionism was found to be negatively associated with their wives' attachment behaviors. Table 5 demonstrates the estimates of standardized total effects for the model.

Table 5

Total Effects: Standardized Effect Estimates

	Estimate	<i>p</i>
Actor effects		
Women – $X_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	0.083	.427
Men – $X_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.087	.387
Partner effects		
Women to men – $X_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.084	.552
Men to women – $X_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	0.086	.035

Note. X = perfectionism, Y = attachment behaviors; subscript 1 indicates women while subscript 2 indicates men.

4.3.2 Direct Effects

Regarding the direct effects, several significant results were found. First, men's own perfectionism was found to be positively related to their own attributions ($b = .32, p = .024$). As the perfectionism levels of men increased, they were more likely to make maladaptive attributions to their wives' behaviors. Likewise, men's own attributions were negatively associated with both their own ($b = -.24, p = .001$) and their wives' attachment behaviors ($b =$

-.26, $p = .0002$). That is, men who made more negative attributions to their partners' actions were less prone to display attachment behaviors toward their wives. Likewise, their wives reported less attachment behaviors toward them. Table 6 shows the estimates of unstandardized direct effect for the APIMeM with attributions. Also, Figure 2 presented the APIMeM model with unstandardized direct effect estimates.

Table 6

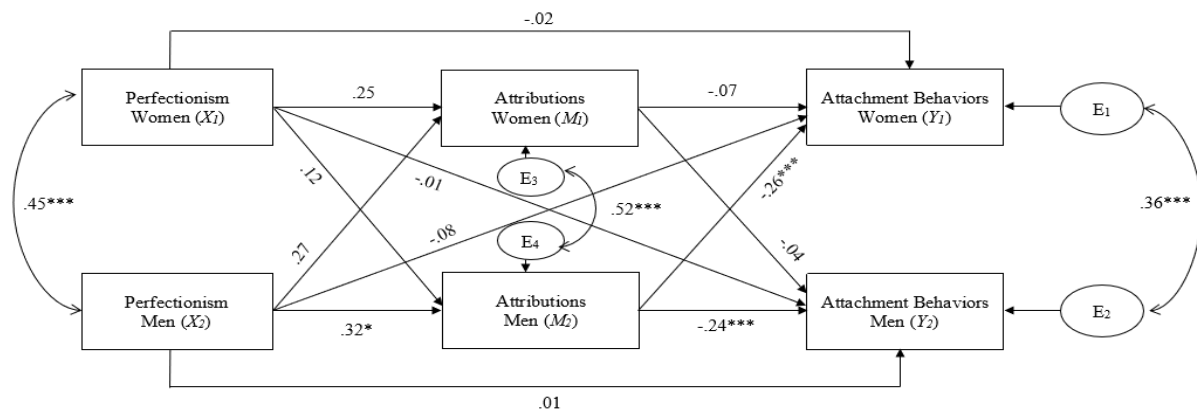
Unstandardized Direct Effect Estimates for the APIMeM with Indirect Effects of Attributions

	Estimate	SE	<i>p</i>
<i>X</i> → <i>M</i>			
Women AE – $X_1 \rightarrow M_1$	0.254	0.153	.101
Men AE – $X_2 \rightarrow M_2$	0.322	0.140	.024
Women to men PE – $X_1 \rightarrow M_2$	0.117	0.135	.390
Men to women PE – $X_2 \rightarrow M_1$	0.272	0.159	.090
<i>M</i> → <i>Y</i>			
Women AE – $M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.073	0.059	.225
Men AE – $M_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.237	0.071	.001
Women to men PE – $M_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.035	0.063	.575
Men to women PE – $M_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.258	0.067	.000
<i>X</i> → <i>Y</i>			
Women AE – $X_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.018	0.074	.810
Men AE – $X_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	0.010	0.082	.901
Women to men PE – $X_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.013	0.078	.864
Men to women PE – $X_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.082	0.078	.294

Note. *X* = perfectionism, *M* = attributions, *Y* = attachment behaviors; subscript 1 indicates women while subscript 2 indicates men; AE = actor effect, PE = partner effect; SE = standard error.

Figure 2

APIMeM with Unstandardized Direct Effect Estimates and Indirect Effects of Attributions



Note. * $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$.

4.3.3 Indirect Effects

The fifth research question focused on the indirect actor effect of women's attributions. It was predicted that higher levels of women's own perfectionism would be connected to higher levels of their own maladaptive attributions which in turn, to lower levels of their own attachment behaviors. Yet, women's indirect actor effect of their own perfectionism on their own attachment behaviors through their own attributions was not significant ($b = -0.02$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-0.064, 0.018]).

The sixth research question focused on the men's indirect actor effects of attributions. It was expected that men's own perfectionism would be positively linked to their own negative attributions which in turn, negatively related to their own attachment behaviors. Consequently, a significant indirect actor effect of men was detected. As hypothesized, higher levels of men's own perfectionism were found to be linked to higher levels of their own maladaptive attributions which in turn, related to lower levels of their own attachment behaviors toward their wives ($b = -0.08$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [-0.175, -0.007]).

The seventh research question focused on women's indirect partner effect. It was predicted that higher levels of women's own perfectionism would be related to higher levels of their own or their partners' maladaptive attributions which in turn, to lower levels of men's

attachment behaviors. Nevertheless, neither women to men actor-partner ($b = -0.01$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-0.057, 0.026]) nor partner-actor effects ($b = -0.03$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-0.092, 0.028]) were significant.

Lastly, the eighth research question focused on men's indirect partner effect. It was expected that higher levels of men's own perfectionism would be associated with higher levels of either their own or their partners' negative attributions which in turn, with lower levels of women's attachment behaviors. In line with the hypothesis, the effect of men to women actor-partner was significant ($b = -0.08$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [-0.183, -0.009]). To put it differently, men's own perfectionism level was adversely indirectly associated with their wives' attachment behaviors through men's own negative attributions. On the other hand, there was no significant men to women partner-actor effect ($b = -0.02$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-0.077, 0.012]). Table 7 showed the unstandardized indirect effect estimates for the model with attributions.

Table 7

Unstandardized Indirect Effect Estimates for APIMeM with Attributions

Indirect Effects	Estimate	95% CI
Women actor-actor – $X_1 \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.019	-0.064, 0.018
Women partner-partner – $X_1 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.030	-0.102, 0.029
Men to women partner-actor – $X_2 \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.020	-0.077, 0.012
Men to women actor-partner – $X_2 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_1$	-0.083	-0.183, -0.009
Women to men actor-partner – $X_1 \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.009	-0.057, 0.026
Women to men partner-actor – $X_1 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.028	-0.092, 0.028
Men partner-partner – $X_2 \rightarrow M_1 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.010	-0.055, 0.028
Men actor-actor – $X_2 \rightarrow M_2 \rightarrow Y_2$	-0.076	-0.175, -0.007

Note. X = perfectionism, M = attributions, Y = attachment behaviors; subscript 1 indicates women, subscript 2 indicates men; CI = confidence interval.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

The current study aimed to explore the link between perfectionism and attachment behaviors in depth. A dyadic perspective was adopted to take the interdependence between spouses in a marital relationship into account (Cook & Kenny, 2005). The main research questions that were addressed in the present study are as follows; (a) Does perfectionism have a direct effect on participants' own and their partners' attachment behaviors, and (b) Does perfectionism have an indirect effect on their own and their partners' attachment behaviors through attributions. By utilizing a dyadic approach, both actor and partner effects were considered while answering these two questions.

Regarding the first main question, direct actor and direct partner total effects of perfectionism on attachment behaviors were examined. According to results, a significant negative direct partner total effect of men's perfectionism on their wives' attachment behaviors was indicated. To put it differently, women with spouses who reported higher levels of perfectionism are more likely to display lower levels of attachment behaviors toward their spouses. Further, pertaining to the second main question, several direct and indirect effects were found in the APIMeM model with attributions. In particular, the results demonstrated that men's own perfectionism was directly and positively linked to their own maladaptive attributions. Additionally, men's own attributions were directly and negatively associated with their wives' attachment behaviors. Moreover, men's perfectionism had an indirect effect on women's attachment behaviors through men's maladaptive attributions. In other words, women who are less accessible, responsive, and engaged in the marriage were partnered with husbands who are more perfectionist, and in turn, make more negative attributions for his partner's actions. These findings are detailly argued below, focusing particularly on each research question. Afterwards, the implications of results are discussed. Lastly, the limitations

and contributions of the current study as well as recommendations for future research are identified.

5.1 Research Questions and Relevant Findings

5.1.1 Main Research Question 1

On the basis of findings regarding whether perfectionism has direct total effects on attachment behaviors, a significant direct partner effect was found although there were no significant direct actor effects of women's or men's perfectionism on their own attachment behaviors. In particular, while the direct partner effect of women's perfectionism on their husband's attachment behaviors was not significant, men's own perfectionism was directly and negatively related to their wives' attachment behaviors. This result suggests that more perfectionist husbands have wives who show attachment behaviors at lower levels toward their husbands.

The significant results of the link between perfectionism and negative behavioral exchanges in relationships are congruent with the previous findings. In the literature focusing on the relationship outcomes of perfectionism, it was found to be associated with dominant, exploitative, and authoritarian actions as well as blame-proneness (Hewitt & Flett, 1991); outward anger and angry hostility toward others (Hill et al., 1997); insensitivity toward partners and lower dyadic adjustment (Flett et al., 2001); interpersonal hostility (Wiebe & McCabe, 2002); lower levels of intimacy and higher levels of inconsiderate, hostile, rejecting, and critical conflicts (Mackinnon et al., 2012); problematic interpersonal exchanges with the partner and lower relationship satisfaction (Lopez et al., 2006); self-defeating destructive tendencies as well as insensitivity and negative outlook toward the partner which may make intimacy and commitment harder in a romantic relationship (Flett et al., 2001); and higher dyadic conflict perception, in turn, higher levels of interpersonal violence (Lafontaine et al., 2021). Further, Haring and colleagues (2003) found that both married wives and husbands

with higher levels of perfectionism are more likely to use conflictual coping styles regarding their problems in marriage. Even, women's and men's higher perfectionism was found to be linked to their partner's negative coping strategies. Consequently, the researchers highlighted the existence of possible partner effects between an individual's own perfectionism and their partner's adverse coping strategies, partially supporting the finding of partner effect of perfectionism on attachment behaviors in the current study. Also, Sherry, Sherry, et al. (2014) demonstrated that men's higher levels of perfectionism reported by both themselves and their partners were related to higher levels of conflictual interactions (i.e., rejecting, hostile, inconsiderate, and critical actions toward the partner) reported by both partners. As for women, yet, higher levels of perfectionism only reported by themselves predicted higher levels of conflict only perceived by partners. The researchers argued this finding as more perfectionist men are more likely to prefer self-defeating interpersonal actions as an example of conflictual behaviors whereas women with higher levels of perfectionism may behave in a less conflictual way such as trying to seem perfect. In this regard, Hill, Zrull, and Turlington (1997) demonstrated that some dimensions of perfectionism are related to more adaptive interpersonal styles for women, compared to men. In particular, certain aspects of perfectionism were found to be connected to women's being nurturant and gregarious whereas men's being vindictive, arrogant, cold, and dominant. However, this argument contradicts the only significant result of men's perfectionism partner effect on women's lower levels of attachment behaviors in the present study. Specifically, the present findings suggest that women may prefer lower levels of positive interpersonal exchanges with their partners in case of their husbands' higher perfectionism while neither women's nor men's perfectionism has a direct effect on men's behaviors in the marriage. At this point, it might be offered that different dimensions of perfectionism may yield different consequences regarding relational outcomes. Also, focusing on more positive behaviors toward the partner such as attachment

behaviors may have a role in the discrepancy between the current and previous results since the literature mostly included the studies with negative behaviors toward the partner as an example of interpersonal exchanges.

Moreover, other studies indicated that women's expectations in relationship are better predictors of marital outcomes like marital adjustment as well as relevant cognitions and behaviors, rather than men's relationship expectations (Gordon, Baucom, Epstein, Burnett, & Rankin, 1999; Rankin-Esquer, Burnett, Baucom, & Epstein, 1997). Considering this finding, Gordon and colleagues (1999) offered that women may mind out their relationships more, in turn, be more aware of the problems in the marriage. Even though men's perfectionism had a direct effect on their wives' attachment behaviors in the current research, the same argument can be applied to this finding. In particular, women in the current study may be monitoring their marriages more closely than their husbands do and be more aware of their husband's perfectionism. Consequently, they may respond with lower levels of attachment behaviors toward their husband as a result of this higher level of awareness.

Another important point that needs to be considered in the adverse partner effect of perfectionism on relationship outcomes is the stress levels of individuals. Relatedly, Hewitt, Flett, and Mikail (1995) found that higher levels of perfectionism of chronic pain patients were not related to their own or their partners' adjustment in the marriage. Nonetheless, higher perfectionism levels of the partners were associated with the patients' lower adjustment levels. Also, perfectionist partners were seen as less supportive by the patients, even after controlling for dyadic adjustment levels. Also, other studies indicated that perfectionism did not have an actor effect on marital adjustment (Habke et al., 1997; Habke et al., 1999; Haring et al, 2003; Dimitrovsky, Levy-Shiff, & Schattner-Zanany, 2002; Koydemir, Sun Selışık, & Tezer, 2005; Tuncay, 2006) while individuals whose spouses have higher levels of perfectionism are tend to have lower levels satisfaction (Hewitt et al., 1995; Stoeber,

2012), indicating a partner effect. On the other hand, Haring and colleagues (2003) did not find a partner effect of perfectionism on marital functioning. The researchers interpreted that perfectionism may predict detrimental relationship outcomes such as lower marital adjustment only when the partner of the perfectionist individual is already distressed and needs support. In short, depending on the literature, perfectionism might not have an actor effect on marital outcomes such as adjustment and have a partner effect only related to the stress factor (Bıyıkoglu, 2012). Consecutively, the present finding of the partner effect of men's perfectionism on women's attachment behaviors can be viewed as in accordance with the existing literature, if women have higher levels of stress than men in the present sample. However, since we have not measured the stress levels of partners in the present sample, we cannot draw this conclusion, but can suggest for future studies to consider the stress factor as well.

5.1.2 Main Research Question 2

To explore whether there are indirect effects of perfectionism on attachment behaviors through attributions, the APIMeM analysis with the indirect effects of attributions was carried out. The results of the APIMeM analysis with the indirect effects of attributions pointed out several direct and indirect effects. First, a positive direct actor effect was found between men's own perfectionism and their own attributions. Further, the results indicated a negative direct partner effect of men's attributions on their wives' attachment behaviors. Lastly, the indirect partner effect of men's perfectionism on women's attachment behaviors through men's maladaptive attributions were indicated.

To begin with, the association between perfectionism and maladaptive attributions was in line with the literature (Chang, & Sanna, 2001; Flett et al., 1998; Furman et al., 2017). Relatedly, Flett and colleagues (1991) showed the link between perfectionism and irrational thinking including blame proneness, need for approval, anxious overconcern, and

dependency, that may have a role in personal and social maladjustment in life. Previous results also indicated that negative attributional styles of individuals were found to increase the relation between perfectionism and depressive symptoms (Chang, & Sanna, 2001). As for the perfectionism and its correlates, the actor and partner effects of perfectionism on relational outcomes were complicated in the literature. To illustrate, in their dyadic study, Habke and colleagues (1999) showed the possible actor and partner effects of perfectionism on sexual satisfaction, yet, did not find the partner effects of certain dimensions of perfectionism on relationship quality. Likewise, Haring and colleagues (2003) found some actor and partner effects of perfectionism on dyadic adjustment for both husbands and wives, but, not any partner effects on relationship satisfaction and commitment. Hence, it can be stated that the actor and partner effects of men's own perfectionism on marital dynamics might be partially supported by the literature. In the current study, men with higher levels of perfectionist expectations reported more negative attributions for their wives' behaviors.

Related to the absence of any actor or partner effects for women, the gender roles might have played a role. For example, a study focusing on attachment and interpersonal exchanges of dyadic coping found that the male partners of more avoidantly attached women perceived lower dyadic coping in their relationships (Lafontaine et al., 2019). The researchers argued this finding on the basis of traditional gender roles. That is, men cannot readily team up with their partners in dealing with stress if the female partner is avoidant which can be seen as a discrepancy with traditional role of women's nurturing and maintaining intimate relationships (Gottman, 1994; Huston et al., 1981). Also, when exploring the link between perfectionism and irrational thinking, Flett and colleagues (1991) found that females were characterized with more irrational beliefs than men and this may be interpreted as women's perfectionism and maladaptive thinking such as negative attributions might be viewed as relatively normal, compared to men. From this perspective, perfectionist expectations and

negative attributions of women might be seen as normal and an afford to nurture and maintain the relationship in accordance with gender roles, thus, may not have affected neither women's own nor their husbands' behaviors in attachment terms. Another explanation for not finding any actor or partner effects of women's perfectionism on attributions and on attachment behaviors might be the involvement of other mechanisms for women in this pathway. In particular, since perfectionism was found to be related to lower self-forgiveness (Kim et al., 2011) and since women are more likely to feel responsible for the resolution of relationship conflicts (Madden & Janoff-Bulman, 1981; Nolen-Hoeksema & Girgus, 1994), the wives might be more prone to make negative attributions toward themselves, rather than their partners. Thus, it might be possible that negative attributions about the self, rather than about the partner, might be more important in the direct effects of women's own perfectionism on either their own or their husbands' attributions as well as in the indirect effect on their own or husbands' attachment behaviors through attributions. Accordingly, any significant results might not be found regarding this issue since only negative attributions toward the partner were assessed. Lastly, Fincham, Jackson, and Beach (2005) stated that since women might want to protect their relationships more, they might behave in a more positive way such as forgiving their partners more after a transgression. From this point of view, in the current study, women's attachment behaviors may have not been related to their own negative attributions or their perfectionist expectations.

Moreover, a direct significant partner effect of men's own attributions on women's attachment behaviors was found. Thus, men with higher levels of maladaptive attributions about their wife's actions had wives who were more prone to display less attachment behaviors towards their husbands. At this point, the association between maladaptive attributions and negative interpersonal actions was in line with the literature as well. In particular, Fincham and Bradbury (1992) indicated that maladaptive attributions were

associated with the emotion of anger toward the partner as well as with angry interactional exchanges in a problem-solving discussion. Also, Bradbury and Fincham (1992) showed that negative attributions were related to detrimental and ineffective conflict resolving actions, regardless of the extent to which individuals are satisfied in their marriages. Similar results were also found in several cultures regarding forgiveness as an important interpersonal exchange, in married Italian couples (Fincham et al., 2002), New Zealand couples (Friesen, Fletcher, & Overall, 2005), in U.S. and Indian couples (Bell, Kamble, & Fincham, 2018).

However, some gender differences were found regarding attributions and relevant relational outcomes in the literature with stronger associations for women. To illustrate, Fincham and colleagues (2005) showed that certain aspects of attributions predicted interpersonal exchanges such as forgiveness for women, rather than men. Also, Bradbury and Fincham (1992) showed that conflict-promoting attributions were linked to ineffective problem-solving actions as well as to higher possibility of reciprocation of adverse partner behaviors, particularly for women. This finding was explained with the women's being more sensitive to the details of relational interactions (Acitelli, 1992), and to the context (Carels & Baucom, 1999; Cutrona & Suhr, 1994). Along the same line, wives' attributions were better predictors of behaviors in a problem-solving discussion, compared to husbands' attributions (Bradbury et al., 1996; Miller & Bradbury, 1995). Moreover, Sanford (2003, 2005) found gender differences in attributions and related interactional consequences. Specifically, it was demonstrated that women's event-dependent attributions whereas men's schematic attributions were more important in predicting the consecutive emotional reactions (Sanford, 2005) and actions (Sanford, 2003). In other words, the findings indicated that there might be a gender differences in the processes connecting attributions and interpersonal exchanges. Relatedly, again, it was suggested that women may use more bottom-up processing as being more responsive to the details of an interaction (Acitelli, 1992) while men may use more top-

down processing acting depending on overall sentiment. In harmony with these findings and interpretations, an indirect partner effect of men's perfectionism on women's attachment behaviors through attributions was found in the present research. To put it differently, women who exhibit less attachment behaviors in the marriage had partners with more perfectionist expectations, in turn, with more negative attributions to their wife's actions. This result can be viewed as a reflection of women's sensitivity toward relational cues (Acitelli, 1992) such as their partners' perfectionist expectations and negative attributions. In other words, women may notice their partners' dysfunctional cognitions as a relationship problem sooner (Floyd & Markman, 1983; Rubin, Peplau, & Hill, 1981) and might respond accordingly with lower levels of attachment behaviors.

Nevertheless, a more recent longitudinal study of Durtschi, Fincham, Cui, Lorenz, and Conger (2011) did not find a gender difference in intraspousal and interspousal pathways including the associations between attributions and behaviors of newlyweds. The researchers discussed that their larger sample size might be influential in this discrepancy even though the attributions and behaviors were assessed similarly. Also, it was suggested that the longitudinal nature of the more recent research may indicate that there might not be a difference for gender in general across time even though sex differences might exist in this association at a time point. Also, the researchers found indirect actor effects from attributions to behaviors, in turn, the quality of marriage. In this context, the behaviors of partners were also found to have a mutual influence on each other. That is, one's own attributions had a direct actor effect on one's own behaviors, in turn, on the partner's behaviors, in turn, on the partner's marital quality, for both wives and husbands. From this point of view, one's own attributions did not have a direct effect on the partner's behavior. Even though the results of the present study did not include any actor effects of attributions on behaviors which contradicts the findings of previous literature, a partner effect of attributions on behaviors was found. Yet, only the

partner effects of men's but not women's attributions were found. In this regard, the behaviors of men's might be influenced by women's attributions through women's own behaviors as in the case of Durtschi et al.'s work (2011).

More to the gender differences in the link between attributions and behaviors, another important point is the stress factor, as in the association between perfectionism and relational outcomes. At this point, Holtzworth-Munroe and Jacobson (1985) showed a difference in attributional processing of women and men together with their stress levels. That is, it was indicated that husbands with lower levels of stress were less tend to engage in attributional processes, compared to their wives or to other married individuals with higher levels of stress. Also, the previous studies showed a differentiation in the attributions of distressed and non-distressed spouses (Fincham, Beach, & Nelson, 1987; Jacobson, McDonald, Follette, & Berley, 1985). That is, it was indicated that stress factor may increase the impact of attributions on relationships. Therefore, it was stated that individuals with higher levels of distress may see their partners' actions in a more negative way and be more likely to behave in a punitive way, then, their partners might respond in a similar manner which initiates a chain reaction between partners (Fincham, Beach, & Nelson, 1987). Likewise, it was found that depression had an important role in the attribution and behavior link (Bradbury et al., 1996).

Nonetheless, some studies did not find any differences in the link between attributions and behaviors on the basis of stress. In this issue, Bradbury and colleagues (1996) found that the relations between attributions and behaviors was significant only for women when there were no differences in this link regarding stress factor. However, when there was a difference in the distress levels of women in the compared groups, this was not the case for men. Therefore, it can be stated that the stress factor might be influential in the significant attributions and behaviors link only for women. Also, men's more similar stress levels, rather

than women's different stress levels, might be more important in the comparison of groups to see whether there is a difference in the attributions and behaviors link in the groups with couples having different stress levels. Regarding this issue, assessing the stress levels of individuals and testing whether the stress factor has a role in the findings would have made great contributions to the current study.

Alternative to gender and stress factors, another essential variable in the link between attributions and behaviors is the relationship adjustment. Taysi (2010) found that the findings can be different depending on the extent to which individuals are adjusted in their marriage. Marital adjustment was also found to be a more important predictor of forgiveness behaviors in men, compared to women. Also, men's maladaptive attributions together with marital adjustment predicted their desire to take revenge. Similarly, Kearns and Fincham (2004) showed that more adjusted couples approached more positively to the partners' negative behaviors and acted in a less conflictual way toward their partners. Therefore, individuals perceived adjustment levels might contribute to the current findings of direct partner effect of men's maladaptive attributions on their wives' less attachment behaviors.

In addition to gender, stress, and marital adjustment, another important factor that should be regarded in interpreting results is the culture. Since the majority of the results come from the studies in Western cultures, there might be inconsistencies among the findings. In particular, some differences might exist in the intrapersonal and interpersonal dynamics in marriage depending on cultural factors such as traditional gender roles and the meaning of marriage, hence, previously found associations might not be replicated in another culture (Özer & Cihan-Güngör, 2012). Also, in Durtschi and colleagues' research (2011), some differences were found considering U.S. and Indian couples. In particular, lower levels of maladaptive attributions of wives in U.S. and Indian samples and of husbands in U.S. were found to be related to benign marital outcomes. Nevertheless, for Indian husbands,

attributions were not found to be related to marital quality. That is, the researchers emphasized that attributions might function differently for couples from different cultures. Further, there were no partner effects of attributions on marital outcomes in U.S. or Indian couples. This finding might support the inconsistencies between the current and the previous results in terms of especially the partner effects. At this point, the researchers suggested investigating the influence of stress on the relations between attributions and marital outcomes as well as the culture impact with diverse samples. Overall, how gender, culture, and the stress levels of couples may intervene in the associations between individuals' cognitive processes such as expectations and attributions and behaviors in terms of attachment concept.

Lastly, the indirect effect of perfectionism on attachment behaviors through attributions can be supported by the previous findings. To exemplify, Flett and colleagues (2001) displayed that perfectionism was connected to maladaptive beliefs and detrimental actions in problem-solving processes. Likewise, Furman et al. (2017) found that perfectionism had an indirect effect on interpersonal behaviors such as forgiveness through the conflict-promoting attributions. In sum, the associations between perfectionism, attributions, and attachment behaviors were mostly supported by the literature. Overall, significant results suggested that partners in a marriage cannot be viewed independent from each other, regarding perfectionism, attributions, and attachment behaviors. As the family systemic theory suggests, Minuchin (1988) also asserted that partners in a dyad are interdependent. Similar to this argument, the results of the current study indicated that men and women are in the same dyad and men's own perfectionism had an indirect effect on women's own perfectionism through men's own attributions.

5.2 Implications

The findings from the current study stress out the value of intrapersonal and

interpersonal dynamics in the investigation of romantic relationship processes. In particular, the findings contribute to expanding the information on intrapersonal and interpersonal mechanisms underlying behavioral exchanges in married couples. From this point of view, the results are clinically important as well. To illustrate, while working with negative attributions in psychotherapy, dysfunctional expectations of individuals that might give rise to these attributions should be considered and explored in depth (Fincham & Bradbury, 1987). Especially, when dealing with maladaptive attributions of men, their perfectionism should be focused on in therapy. Also, the findings are valuable especially for couple therapy. Depending on the indirect effect of men's perfectionism on women's attachment behaviors, a systemic perspective should be adopted while dealing with perfectionism as well as attachment behaviors. To illustrate, women demonstrating lower levels of attachment behaviors toward their husbands can be seen as a reflection of their husbands' higher levels of perfectionism and more negative attributions in a couple session.

Moreover, Emotionally Focused Couple Therapy (EFT) that reframes the couple's problem as a reflection of the negative cycle between them is suggested to modify individuals' cognitions and consecutive behaviors related to their problems (Johnson, 2004), supporting the link between attributions and attachment behaviors. Particularly, EFT asserts that the change in individuals' maladaptive cognitions occurs through the corrective emotional experiences in the sessions (Johnson, 2019). For this aim, first, EFT therapists create a safe environment for both partners by modelling the attachment behaviors of being accessible, responsive, and engaged in the session as well as by reflecting and validating the couple's emotions and attachment needs. Followingly, the recurring patterns in the behavioral interactions of the couple called the negative communication cycle are tracked, outlined, and reflected to the couple, together with the individuals' perceptions, emotions, and underlying attachment needs that feed the negative cycle. In this cycle, mostly, one partner is the

withdrawer who prefers distance and silence during conflicts where the other is the pursuer who wants to connect more with displaying extreme emotions and with criticizing actions. Through the identification of the dysfunctional cycle and of each partner's position (i.e., withdrawer or pursuer) as well as their emotions and needs in the cycle, the conflicts between the partners decrease to some extent at the end of the de-escalation phase. Afterwards, the enactments are used to restructure the interactional patterns between the partners and to modify their typical dysfunctional coping techniques as well as the action tendencies related to their emotions. During enactments, the emotional experiences of individuals are deepened by evoking, engaging, exploring and expanding, elucidating, and actively encountering the emotions in the sessions with evocative questions and empathic conjectures. Then, individuals own and directly express their emotions together with underlying attachment needs, thereby, show their vulnerable sides to their spouses. In EFT, first, the withdrawer re-engagement step comes. Focusing on the emotions (such as feeling rejected, inadequate, judged, and lonely) and needs of withdrawer (such as being heard, seen, and accepted) in the cycle also makes the pursuer softening easier. Then, in the pursuer softening step, the pursuer's feeling (such as hurt, loneliness, feeling unwanted as well as fear of rejection and abandonment) and needs (such as being loved, accepted, and supported) are deepened and shared with the partner in the sessions through enactments again. At the end, both partners become more accessible, responsive, and engaged with the other's emotions and needs first in the sessions, and then in the relationship outside of the sessions. With this more secure bond between partners as a result of the corrective experiences in terms of both partners' accessibility, responsiveness, and engagement behaviors, the models of self and of other, that is, their internal working models are also revised. Afterwards, new interactional exchanges including new action tendencies and new meanings appear in the relationship. Therefore, it can be stated that the maladaptive cognitions of individuals such as negative attributions to the partner's actions

might be altered through the corrective emotional experiences through the attachment behaviors of the partners during enactments.

Additionally, the current results imply that it is better for the therapist to invite the partners into sessions and prefer couple therapy to get better outcomes since this way allows the therapist to make the couple be aware of their influences on each other and of that the problem is never the one partner's struggle. Specifically, the couple may recognize the impact of husbands' perfectionism and attributions on women's attachment behaviors. Further, working with maladaptive attributions in marriage may ease that couples become able to differentiate the factors accounting for their own and partners' behavior as whether internal or external. Further, the couples understand their relational dynamics more readily when they are aware of their own and their spouse's perfectionism and attributions. As a result, the married couples can try to solve their problem with alternative ways as a result of this awareness and have improved marital interactions.

However, interventions only targeting the perfectionism in dealing with negative relationship outcomes such as lower levels of attachment behaviors in a couple relationship are unlikely to succeed since the attributions' indirect effects in this pattern are ignored. Instead, intervening with the whole picture, beginning from cognitive processes such as perfectionism and attributions to consecutive interactional behaviors, may be more useful. In this context, changing the behaviors of individuals may be accompanied with the changes in perfectionist expectations and attributions about the behaviors of the partner. That is, interventions related to alternating specific actions in a marriage may be important in dealing with perfectionism and related maladaptive attributions to partner behaviors, especially considering the relatively more stability of cognitions such as expectations and attributions (Bradbury et al., 1996; Fincham & Bradbury, 1987). In a similar vein, Greenspon (2000) emphasized that individuals need to build a new set of beliefs about themselves and to have

more affirming relationships to overcome detrimental consequences of perfectionism. Therefore, increasing the attachment behaviors between couples may help individuals lessening their dysfunctional cognitions and their influence on the relationship through a positive self- and other-view and more secure relationships.

Also, similar relationship dynamics between partners may appear in the one between perfectionist individuals and the therapists. In other words, the interactional pattern including perfectionism, attributions, and interpersonal exchanges in terms of attachment behaviors might prevent building an alliance between the individuals with higher levels of perfectionism and the therapists, in turn, result with poorer outcomes in the therapy process (Lopez et al., 2006; Shahar, Blatt, Zuroff, Krupnick, & Sotsky, 2004). From this point of view, the therapists need to be more careful about this issue when working with dysfunctional thinking manners including perfectionism and maladaptive attributions.

Lastly, the clinicians need to be careful in cultural differences regarding the associations between perfectionism, attributions and attachment behaviors since the present findings point out possible effect of culture in this issue. Particularly, as Bell and colleagues (2018) as well as Durtschi et al. (2011) found, the relation between cognitions such as attributions and interpersonal behaviors may differ based on individuals' cultural background. Likewise, Chang (1998) indicated that there was a discrepancy in perfectionist tendencies of Asians and Caucasians. Hence, the couples from diverse cultures may understand and value perfectionism and attributions differently and behave accordingly in a different way. It is important for the clinicians take the culture into account when working with these concepts.

5.3 Limitations and Future Research

The current study also has some limitations. The most important one can be stated as the correlational nature of the study. In this regard, results should be cautiously interpreted, without making any causal claims. To put it differently, even though some direct and indirect

effects between perfectionism, attributions, and attachment behaviors were indicated, which variable led to a change in which one cannot be concluded depending on only the results of this study. Particularly, the attachment behaviors may predict perfectionist expectations through attributions as well because the current study was a cross-sectional one. To make any causal inferences and to indicate the chronological sequence of the associations, researchers should use longitudinal or experimental designs in the future.

Also, the composite scores of perfectionism, attributions, and self attachment behaviors were used for the analyses even though some differences were noticed between the bivariate analysis results of total and of subscale scores. However, the current study was exploratory and had lower sample size. Hence, the total scores rather than the subdimensions were utilized. Instead, using latent variables might be more beneficial in the future research with higher sample size.

Additionally, even though a dyadic method was used as a multi-informant one, as in all the studies with self-reports, a social desirability bias may intervene in the findings regarding the personal nature of statements in perfectionism, attributions, and attachment behaviors measures. Particularly, perfectionist people may have wanted to be seen as perfect in the measures as well, thus, may have not responded truly. Regarding these constraints, future studies might include other assessment techniques such as observations of actual behaviors, daily diaries, and qualitative analyses in order to expanding the link between perfectionism, attributions, and attachment behaviors in a romantic context.

Further, since the study was conducted with a sample of Turkish heterosexual at-least-2-year married couples and married couples might differ from others in important ways (Hsueh, Morrison, & Doss, 2009) such as higher levels of commitment and investment, the findings cannot be directly expanded into dating relationships or newlyweds, as well as into second and higher order marriages or homosexual couples. Similarly, the results cannot be

applied to the other cultures, especially regarding the possible cultural differences in mainly studied constructs (Bell et al., 2018; Chang, 1998; Durtschi et al., 2011). Also, the inconsistencies between the results and the literature might be stemmed from cultural differences. Therefore, the current study needs to be replicated with other samples of couples from diverse cultural backgrounds in future research.

Also, regarding the sample characteristics in the current study, participants' income levels in total as a couple and their education levels in years varied widely. In this regard, the research showed that the couples from higher and lower socioeconomic status may differ in important aspects of romantic relationship dynamics. Particularly, in a review paper, Karney (2021) concluded that the formation and management of intimate relationships differ for couples with regard to socioeconomic status. It was stated that individuals' cultural values also diverge depending on their socioeconomic status. For instance, individuals from lower socioeconomic status were found to be more collectivist, compared to those from higher socioeconomic levels. Likewise, it was asserted that the stress levels of individuals varied with respect to socioeconomic status. Consecutively, it was argued that the same variable may impact intimate relationships in a different way at different socioeconomic levels. To illustrate, it was indicated that individuals' socioeconomic status might have an effect on dealing with stress where similar coping strategies may yield different consequences in the relationships. Therefore, the present results might change depending on the socioeconomic levels of couples or be a consequence of it as well. Thus, it would be fruitful if the future research focuses on the role of socioeconomic status, specifically of the income and education levels, in romantic relationship dynamics while investigating perfectionism, attributions, and attachment behaviors.

Moreover, as a result of online data collection, participants may have not followed the instruction of completing the survey independent from their spouses. In other words, they

might have filled out the measures together as a couple or one partner might have completed all surveys on the behalf of the other as well. To prevent this situation, the couples may be invited to a lab setting and monitored during data collection in the future.

Lastly, some associations regarding actor and partner effects can be viewed as on the contrary to the existing literature. To illustrate, based on the possible role of stress in the partner effects of perfectionism (Bıyıkoğlu, 2012; Hewitt et al., 1995) and attributions (Bradbury et al., 1996; Holtzworth-Munroe & Jacobson) on adverse relational outcomes, it was argued that women might be more stressed, thus, may have reported less attachment behaviors towards their partners that have higher levels of perfectionism and consecutive maladaptive attributions. Nonetheless, Bıyıkoğlu (2012) argued that married men in the patriarchal context of Turkey might have higher levels of stress since they are responsible with making decisions (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1982) and are expected to be competent in supporting their families and to provide the family's future as opposed to women's role of being nurturing (Karakitapoğlu-Aygün & İmamoğlu, 2002). Moreover, marital adjustment is another crucial variable in investigating the attributions and interpersonal exchanges in an intimate relationship (Kearns & Fincham, 2004; Taysi, 2010). Therefore, the mechanisms underlying the associations between perfectionism, attributions, and attachment behaviors remained to be explored in depth. For this aim, relevant gender issues as well as other possible important factors such as stress and marital adjustment in the links between perfectionism, attributions, and attachment behaviors should be mainly investigated in the future studies.

5.4 Conclusion

To conclude, despite its limitations, the present work makes an essential contribution to the literature by indicating the importance of intrapersonal factors when evaluating interpersonal behavioral exchanges in a marriage. Also, to my knowledge, it was the first one

exploring the associations between couples' perfectionism, attributions, and attachment behaviors in a dyadic way with a Turkish sample. Specifically, a direct partner effect of men's perfectionism on women's attachment behaviors was found. This link offers that the husbands with higher levels of perfectionism encountered with their wives less attachment behaviors. Also, an indirect partner effect of men's perfectionism on women's attachment behaviors through men's own negative attributions was found. This association indicates that women who are more likely to display less attachment behavior had husbands with higher levels of perfectionism, in turn, higher levels of maladaptive attributions in the marriage. In the light of these findings, the present study has essential practical implications for marriage dynamics. In this regard, the findings from the current study provide insight on how to foster positive interactional exchanges in terms of attachment behaviors in couples where individuals either project or are projected perfectionist expectations and maladaptive attributions. Considering the indirect effects of attributions in the link between perfectionism and attachment behaviors, possible interventions can be developed accordingly. Furthermore, the present research gives an idea for couple and family therapists highlighting the importance of systemic approaches (Minuchin, 1988) when working with especially perfectionism, attributions, and attachment behaviors. It means that it might be better for the clinicians to prefer couple therapy or at least to consider the destructive effects of perfectionism and attributions on the partner's marital experiences when working with individual settings in therapy process. Additionally, using a dyadic perspective in the present study contributed to apprehend the influence of one spouse on the other in a marital relationship more. In line with the literature, the findings reinforced the idea that intrapersonal factors such as perfectionism and attributions might influence not only individuals' own experiences in the marriage, but also their partners' (Haring et al., 2003). Consecutively, the importance of a dyadic or interactional approach when exploring the marital dynamics was stressed out. Moreover, because the literature falls short of

information about perfectionism and interpersonal problems in men due to mainly involvement of women (Sherry, Nealis, Macneil, Stewart, Sherry, & Smith, 2013), investigating these concepts in a dyadic design is essential. Lastly, the findings are important due to highlighting the possible culture and gender influences on the relations between dysfunctional cognitional processes and interpersonal actions in a marriage. In a nutshell, this study had a valuable place in the existing literature, underlining the link between intrapersonal factors and interpersonal relationship dynamics through a dyadic perspective.



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APPENDIX A

Informed Consent Form

Projenin Adı: Çiftlerin Mükemmeliyetçilikleri ve Bağlanma Davranışları Arasındaki İlişkinin Çift Perspektifinden Analizi

Proje yürütücüsünün adı ve iletişim bilgileri:

Proje bütçesine katkı ile ve/veya diğer şekillerde projeyi destekleyen kuruluşlar:

Özyeğin Üniversitesi

Projenin amacı: Bu araştırmanın amacı bireysel ve ilişkisel süreçlerin evlilik ilişkisine etkisini incelemektir.

Süreç: Sizden internet üzerinden yollanan link aracılığıyla paylaşılan anketleri cevaplandırmanız istenmektedir. Bu süreçte öncelikle eşinizle birlikte ortak bir takma ad belirlemeniz istenecektir. Ardından, anketleri eşinizden bağımsız olarak doldurmanız çok önemlidir. Siz ve eşinizin anketleri ayrı ayrı tamamlamanızın ardından, 100 TL'lik kitabeve hediye çeki için çekilişimize katılabilirsiniz. Bunun için sizden çalışmanın sonunda mail adresleriniz ve ortak takma adınız istenecektir. Anketleri doldurmanız yaklaşık 20 dakikanızı alacaktır.

Gizlilik: Sizden elde edilen bilgiler tamamen gizli tutulacaktır. Veri toplama sürecinde katılımcıların kimliklerinin ortaya çıkmasına yol açabilecek herhangi bir bilgi talep edilmeyecektir. Çekiliş amacıyla eşleştirilen e-mail adresi ve takma isim bilgileri çekilişin hemen ardından silinecektir. İstatistik programlara veri girişi ise çiftlere atanan numaralar

üzerinden yapılacaktır. Toplanan veriler sadece araştırma yürütücüsünün şifreli bilgisayarında tutulacak ve tez danışmanı dışında başka kimsenin erişmesine olanak tanınmayacaktır. Elde edilen sonuçlar ışığında ortaya çıkacak yayın ve sunumlarda toplanan verilerin kullanılması durumunda, bireylerin kimliklerinin ortaya çıkmasına yol açabilecek herhangi bir bilgi kullanılmayacaktır.

Gönüllü Katılım: Bu çalışmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülüğe dayalıdır. İstedığınız zaman çalışmadan çekilme hakkına sahipsiniz. Katılmayı reddetmeniz ya da çekilmek istemeniz sizin için herhangi bir olumsuz duruma sebep olmayacaktır. Araştırma sırasında veya sonrasında herhangi bir sorunuz olursa lütfen yukarıda verdiğimiz iletişim bilgilerinden bize ulaşınız. Bu formda anlatılan araştırmanın etik yönleriyle ilgili soru veya görüşleriniz varsa lütfen Özyeğin Üniversitesi Etik Kurulu ile (216) 564 9846 numaralı telefonda temasa geçiniz. Yukarıda sözü geçen “Çiftlerin Mükemmeliyetçilikleri ve Bağlanma Davranışları Arasındaki İlişkinin Çift Perspektifinden Analizi” isimli araştırma projesinin detaylarını okudum ve bu proje ile ilgili sorularım cevaplandı. Bu çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılıyorum.

İLERLE BUTONUNA BASARAK ÇALIŞMAYA KATILMAYA GÖNÜLLÜ OLUYORUM.

APPENDIX B

Demographic Information Form

1. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın ☐ Erkek ☐
2. Yaşınız: _____
3. Toplam kaç yıl okula gittiniz? _____ yıl
4. Eşinizle birlikte ortalama aylık geliriniz toplam ne kadardır? _____ TL
5. Eşinizle ne kadar süredir birliktesiniz? _____ yıl _____ ay
6. Eşinizle ne kadar süredir evlisiniz? _____ yıl _____ ay
7. Eşinizle ne kadar süredir birlikte yaşıyorsunuz? _____ yıl _____ ay
8. Çocuğunuz var mı? Evet/Hayır
9. Çocuğunuz var ise kaç tane? _____
10. Çocuğunuz/çocuklarınız var ise kaç yaşında/yaşındalar? _____

APPENDIX C

Table 8

Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1. Bir iş üzerinde çalıştığımda iş kusursuz olana kadar rahatlayamam.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Genelde eşimi kolay pes ettiği için eleştirmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Eşimin başarılı olması gerekmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. En iyisinden aşağısına razı olduğu için eşimi nadiren eleştiririm.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Eşimin benden beklentilerini karşılamakta güçlük çekerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Amaçlarımdan bir tanesi yaptığım her işte mükemmel olmaktır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Eşimin yaptığı her şey en iyi kalitede olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. İşlerimde asla mükemmelliği hedeflemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Eşim benim de hata yapabileceğimi kolaylıkla kabullenir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10 Eşimin yapabileceğinin en iyisini yapmamış olmasını önemli görmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11 Bir işi ne kadar iyi yaparsam eşim daha da iyisini yapmamı bekler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12 Nadiren mükemmel olma ihtiyacı duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13 Yaptığım bir şey kusursuz değilse eşim tarafından yetersiz bulunur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14 Olabildiğim kadar mükemmel olmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15 Giriştiğim her işte mükemmel olmam çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16 Eşimden beklentilerim yüksektir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

17	Yaptığım her şeyde en iyi olmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Eşim yaptığım her şeyde başarılı olmamı bekler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Eşim için çok yüksek standartlarım yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Kendim için mükemmelden daha azını kabul edemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Her konuda üstün başarı göstermesem de eşim benden hoşlanacaktır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Kendilerini geliştirmek için uğraşmayan kişilerle ilgilenmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Yaptığım işte hata bulmak beni huzursuz eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Eşimden çok şey beklemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	Başarı, eşimi memnun etmek için daha da çok çalışmam gerektiği anlamına gelir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	Eşimden bir şey yapmasını istersem, işin yapılmasını beklerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Eşimin hata yapmasını görmeye tahammül edemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	Hedeflerimi belirlemede mükemmeliyetçiyimdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	Değer verdiğim eşim beni hiçbir zaman hayal kırıklığına uğratmamalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Başarısız olduğum zamanlar bile eşim yeterli olduğumu düşünür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	Eşimin benden çok şey beklediğini düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Her zaman yapabileceğimin en iyisini yapmaya çalışmalıyım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	Bana göstermese bile, hata yaptığım zaman eşim çok bozulur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	Yaptığım her şeyde en iyi olmak zorunda değilim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	Eşim benden mükemmel olmamı bekler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	Kendim için yüksek hedeflerim yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

37 Eşim nadiren hayatımın her alanında en başarılı olmamı bekler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38 Sıradan insanlara saygı duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39 Eşim benden mükemmelden aşağısını kabul etmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40 Kendim için yüksek standartlar koyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
41 Eşim benden verebileceğimden fazlasını bekler.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
42 Okulda veya işte her zaman başarılı olmalıyım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
43 Eşimin elinden gelenin en iyisini yapmaya çalışmaması benim için önemli değildir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
44 Hata yapsam bile, eşim yeterli ve becerikli olduğumu düşünür.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
45 Eşimin yaptığı her şeyden üstün başarı göstermesini nadiren beklerim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX D

Table 9

Brief Accessibility, Responsiveness, and Engagement Scale

	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Genellikle	Her zaman
<i>Ulaşılabilirlik</i>					
1. Eşime vakit ayırıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Eşimin ilgimi çekmesi kolaydır.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Duyarlılık</i>					
3. Eşim benimle duygularımı paylaştığında onu dinlerim.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Eşimle iyi iletişim kurabildiğime inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Yakınlık</i>					
5. Eşime sırlarımı anlatırım.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Eşime kendimi yakın ve bağlı hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Eşimin Ulaşılabilirliği</i>					
7. Eşim bana vakit ayırır.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Eşimin ilgisini çekebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Eşimin Duyarlılığı</i>					
9. Duygularımı paylaştığım zamanlarda eşim beni dinler.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Eşimin benimle iyi iletişim kurabildiğine inanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
<i>Eşimin Yakınlığı</i>					
11. Eşim bana sırlarımı anlatır.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Eşim bana kendini yakın ve bağlı hisseder.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

Table 10

Relationship Attribution Measure

	Tamamen yanlış	Yanlış	Kısmen yanlış	Kısmen doğru	Doğru	Tamamen doğru	
EŞİNİZ SÖYLEDİĞİNİZ BİR ŞEYİ ELEŞTİRİYOR							
1.	Eşimin bu davranışı kendi ile ilgili bir nedene bağlıydı (örn., kendi kişilik yapısı, içinde bulunduğu ruh hali).	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Eşimin beni eleştirme nedeni muhtemelen değişmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Eşimin beni eleştirme nedeni evliliğimizin diğer yönleri için de geçerlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Eşim beni istemeden değil kasıtlı olarak eleştirdi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Eşimin bu davranışı bencilce nedenlerden kaynaklanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Eşim beni eleştirdiği için suçlanmayı hak etmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
EŞİNİZ SİZİNLE DAHA AZ ZAMAN GEÇİRMEMEYE BAŞLIYOR							
7.	Eşimin daha az zaman geçirme nedeni evliliğimizin diğer yönleri için de geçerlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Eşim benimle daha az zaman geçirdiği için suçlanmayı hak etmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Eşimin bu davranışı kendi ile ilgili bir nedene bağlıydı (örn., kendi kişilik yapısı, içinde bulunduğu ruh hali).	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Eşimin daha az zaman geçirme nedeni muhtemelen değişmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Eşimin bu davranışı bencilce nedenlerden kaynaklanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Eşim benimle istemeden değil kasıtlı olarak daha az zaman geçirdi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
EŞİNİZ SÖYLEDİĞİNİZ ŞEYE DİKKAT ETMİYOR							

13.	Eşimin bu davranışı bencilce nedenlerden kaynaklanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Eşimin söylediğim şeye dikkat etmeme nedeni evliliğimizin diğer yönleri için de geçerlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Eşimin bu davranışı kendi ile ilgili bir nedene bağlıydı (örn., kendi kişilik yapısı, içinde bulunduğu ruh hali).	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Eşim istemeden değil kasıtlı olarak söylediğim şeye dikkat etmedi.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	Eşim söylediğim şeye dikkat etmediği için suçlanmayı hak etmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Eşimin söylediğim şeye dikkat etmeme nedeni muhtemelen değişmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6

EŞİNİZ SOĞUK VE UZAK DAVRANIYOR

19.	Eşim bana istemeden değil kasıtlı olarak soğuk ve uzak davrandı.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Eşimin soğuk ve uzak davranma nedeni evliliğimizin diğer yönleri için de geçerlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Eşim bana soğuk ve uzak davrandığı için suçlanmayı hak etmiştir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	Eşimin bu davranışı bencilce nedenlerden kaynaklanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	Eşimin bu davranışı kendi ile ilgili bir nedene bağlıydı (örn., kendi kişilik yapısı, içinde bulunduğu ruh hali).	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	Eşimin soğuk ve uzak davranma nedeni muhtemelen değişmez.	1	2	3	4	5	6