

**IBN HALDUN UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY**

MASTER THESIS

**THE ROLE OF VOLUNTEERISM AS A MODERATOR
IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTACHMENT
STYLE AND SELF-COMPASSION**

ŞEYMA NUR ERDOĞAN

**THESIS SUPERVISOR
ASST. PROF. HOOMAN KESHAVARZI**

ISTANBUL, 2022

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APPROVAL PAGE

This is to certify that we have read this thesis and that in our opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and quality, as a thesis for the degree of Master of Arts in Clinical Psychology.

Thesis Jury Members

Title – Name Surname

Opinion

Signature

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| _____ | _____ | _____ |
| _____ | _____ | _____ |

This is to confirm that this thesis complies with all the standards set by the School of Graduate Studies of Ibn Haldun University.

Date of Submission

Seal /Signature

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I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

Name Surname: Şeyma Nur Erdoğan

Signature:



ÖZ

ÖZ-ŞEFKAT İLE BAĞLANMA STİLİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİDE
GÖNÜLLÜLÜĞÜN MODERATÖR ROLÜ

Erdoğan, Şeyma Nur

Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı

Öğrenci Numarası: 194028017

Open Researcher and Contributor ID (ORC-ID): 0000-0001-7114-2338

Ulusal Tez Merkezi Referans Numarası: 10466118

Tez Danışmanı: Asst. Prof. Hooman Keshavarzi

Ocak 2022, 108 sayfa

Öz-şefkat, bireyin kendisine şefkatle yaklaşabilmesidir ve psikolojik iyi oluşa önemli bir katkısı bulunur. Güvensiz bağlanma stilleri ise özşefkat düzeyini olumsuz yönde etkiler. Bu araştırmanın amacı gönüllülük faaliyetlerinin güvensiz bağlanma ve öz-şefkat düzeyleri arasındaki ilişkide düzenleyici rolü olup olmadığını saptamaktır. Araştırma kapsamında kolaylıkla bulunabilen örnekleme yöntemi ile 370 kişiye ulaşılmıştır. Katılımcılara Öz Duyarlık Ölçeği, Yetişkinler için Ebeveyne Bağlanma Ölçeği, Gönüllülük Anketi ve Gönüllü Fonksiyonları Envanteri uygulanmıştır. Korelasyon analizleri sonucunda güvenli bağlanma stili ile öz-şefkat düzeyleri arasında pozitif, güvensiz bağlanma stilleri ile öz-şefkat düzeyleri arasında negatif korelasyon bulunmuştur. Yapılan çoklu regresyon analizi sonucunda ise gönüllülük faaliyetlerine ayrılan zamanın güvensiz bağlanmanın öz-şefkat düzeyine olan olumsuz etkisini azalttığı görülmüştür. Gönüllü motivasyonları açısından güvenli bağlanan ve güvensiz bağlanan grup arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunamamıştır. Güvensiz bağlananlar arasında gönüllü motivasyonları değerler ve sosyal olanlarda gönüllülüğün moderator etkisi daha güçlü, motivasyonları koruyucu olanlarda ise gönüllülüğün moderator etkisi daha güçsüz bulunmuştur. Çalışmanın bulguları, literatüre katkıları ve eksiklikleri tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Bağlanma, Gönüllülük, Gönüllülük Motivasyonu, Öz-şefkat

ABSTRACT

THE ROLE OF VOLUNTEERISM AS A MODERATOR IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTACHMENT STYLE AND SELF-COMPASSION

Erdoğan, Şeyma Nur

MA in Clinical Psychology

Student ID: 194028017

Open Researcher and Contributor ID (ORC-ID): 0000-0001-7114-2338

National Thesis Center Reference Number: 10466118

Thesis Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Hooman Keshavarzi

January 2022, 108 pages

Self-compassion is the ability of an individual to approach himself with compassion and has an important contribution to psychological well-being. Insecure attachment styles negatively affect the level of self-compassion. This research aims to determine whether volunteering activities have a moderator role in the relationship between insecure attachment and self-compassion levels. Within the scope of the research, 370 participants were reached through convenience sampling. Self-Compassion Scale, Adult Scale of Parental Attachment Scale, Volunteering Questionnaire, and Volunteer Functions Inventory were utilized to collect data from the participants. As a result of the correlation analysis, a positive correlation was found between secure attachment style and self-compassion levels, and a negative correlation was found between insecure attachment styles and self-compassion levels. As a result of the multiple regression analysis, it was observed that the time devoted to volunteering activities reduced the negative effect of insecure attachment on the level of self-compassion. There was no significant difference between the securely attached and insecurely attached groups in terms of volunteer motivations. Among those with insecure attachment, the moderator effect of volunteering was found to be stronger among those whose volunteer motivations were *values* and *social*, and the moderator effect of volunteering was weaker among those with *protective* motivations. The

findings of the study, its contributions to the literature, and its shortcomings are discussed.

Keywords: Attachment, Self-Compassion, Volunteering, Volunteer Motivation.



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Şeyma Nur Erdoğan

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LIST OF SYMBOLS AND ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|--------|------------------------------------|
| et al. | and others |
| SCS | Self-compassion Scale (SCS) |
| ASPA | Adult Scale of Parental Attachment |
| VFI | Volunteer Functions Inventory |



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Self-compassion is a relatively new concept that has been researched extensively in psychology in recent years. The concept of self-compassion was first formally introduced in psychological literature by Kristin Neff (2003). As the name suggests, it is defined as the individual's compassion for oneself. The positive effects of self-compassion on an individual's mental well-being have been demonstrated by many studies (K. D. Neff & McGehee, 2010; Allen et al., 2012; K. D. Neff, 2011a; Parente et al., 2018). Likewise, it was observed that a low level of self-compassion is a predictor of psychological vulnerabilities. In a meta-analysis study examining the relationship of self-compassion with anxiety, stress, and depression, a negative relationship was found between the level of self-compassion and psychopathology (Macbeth & Gumley, 2012). Considering its important contribution to an individual's well-being, it is important to examine the factors associated with higher degrees of self-compassion.

Attachment is among the most significant psychological factors affecting the level of self-compassion. Attachment theory, which is based on the relationship between caregiver and baby, was first put forward by John Bowlby (1969). He demonstrated that the security of the caregiver-child attachment depended on the caregiver's attitude towards the baby. The more responsive and sensitive the caregiver's attitude, the more secure the attachment became. According to Pepping et al. (2015), insecure attachment, which is associated with many negative psychological outcomes, also has negative effects on the level of self-compassion. Individuals with insecure attachment styles were found to have low levels of self-compassion (Pepping et al., 2015). According to Sakman and Sümer (2018), it is seen that nearly half of the population in many countries have insecure attachment styles. They reported that insecure attachment is reported within a range of 33% to 43% in Africa, 48% in Israel, 39% in Japan, 34% in Western Europe, and 33% in America. Considering

these rates, it can easily be said that insecure attachment, which is so commonplace, is a risk factor for lower levels of self-compassion. At this point, it is necessary to examine the factors that can mitigate the negative effects of insecure attachment on self-compassion in order to improve the overall psychological well-being of such individuals.

Volunteerism can have a moderating role in the relationship between attachment styles and level of self-compassion. Volunteerism can be defined as planned prosocial behavior that takes place in a long-term institutional setting, especially for the benefit of strangers (Penner, 2002). The contributions of volunteerism to the well-being of individuals have been revealed in many studies (Vecina & Fernando, 2013; Jiang et al., 2018). Therefore, it is plausible to assume that it would positively contribute to the level of self-compassion.

Social mentality theory (Gilbert, 1989) explains how volunteering activities compensate for the adverse effects of insecure attachment styles on self-compassion. According to this theory, social mentality depends on one's relationship with their social environment. Individuals relate to themselves through internal systems that evolve to relate to other people (Hermanto & Zuroff, 2016). This means individuals evolutionarily internalize early relational schemas that later serve as the basis for which to relate to other people. They also make use of these same internal mechanisms in establishing relationships with themselves. Pepping et al. (2015) evaluated self-compassion as a social mentality and reported that individuals, who had sensitive and responsive parenting in their childhood, also had higher levels of self-compassion.

Additionally, it is thought that volunteer motivations can shape the impact of volunteering activities. Gillath et al. (2005) found that while securely attached participants volunteer for more altruistic reasons, anxiously attached participants volunteer for reasons of self-serving motivations like being a volunteer to find a job. Although participants who volunteer for altruistic reasons benefit more from the contributions of volunteerism, both groups have been shown to significantly benefit from volunteering (Gillath et al., 2005). Considering these findings, it can be expected that participants volunteer for different motivations, and this difference can

result in differences in the impact of volunteerism on the relationship between self-compassion and attachment styles.

The study aims to explore the role of volunteering in the relationship between attachment styles and levels of self-compassion. There have been a limited number of studies examining self-compassion within an interpersonal context. Research that explores the relationship between these three variables has not been conducted in the literature before. It is supposed that an understanding of the relationship between these variables will fill a void in the literature and potentially inform the formulation of therapeutic interventions that take into consideration communal activities such as volunteerism when working with insecurely attached patients.

Specifically, this study sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the relationship between attachment style, volunteerism, and self-compassion levels?
2. What is the impact of volunteerism on the relationship between attachment style and self-compassion levels?
3. Does volunteer motivation make a difference in the impact of volunteerism on the relationship between attachment style and self-compassion levels?

The hypotheses of this research are as follows:

- H1. There is a negative association between insecure (avoidant or anxious) attachment and self-compassion levels.
- H2. There is a positive association between volunteerism and self-compassion levels.
- H3. There is a positive association between secure attachment and volunteerism.
- H4. Volunteerism is a moderator for the relationship between anxious attachment and self-compassion levels such that increased volunteerism leads to increased self-compassion for anxiously attached individuals.
- H5. Altruistic motivations strengthen the moderator role of volunteerism.

In a nutshell, considering that generally people who engage in volunteering activities also have compassionate relationships with other people, it can be inferred that

insecurely attached individuals may also benefit from the positive effects of volunteerism by also directing greater levels of compassion toward themselves.



CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, the factors explored in this study will be examined comprehensively at first and then their relations with each other will be revealed systematically. Finally, how the moderator model was established through the social mentality theory will be described.

2.1. Self-Compassion

Kristin Neff (2003), who first introduced self-compassion in psychology, argues that instead of self-esteem, self-compassion can be one of the alternative conceptualizations about humans' attitudes toward themselves. She proposes that self-esteem has been used as a standard measure of well-being in the science of psychology; while, it also contains some adverse effects such as negatively evaluating others in order to feel better as well as overly focusing on the role of performance and evaluation of others (Neff, 2003). For this reason, psychologists have been trying to find an alternative way in order to evaluate psychological well-being (Neff, 2003).

In her *Self-Compassion* book (Neff, 2011b), she discusses the foundations of self-compassion by stating that although self-compassion is known as a new concept in psychology, it has always existed as a significant concept in Buddhism. She mentions that she first learned about self-compassion in learning about Buddhist meditation and according to Buddhist teachings, having self-compassion is necessary in order to be able to have compassion for others (Neff, 2011b). This means that self-compassion is a well-established and ancient concept.

Neff (2003) who first introduced self-compassion, states that self-compassion by its nature is similar to compassion. For this reason, if compassion is comprehended in

all its aspects, self-compassion would also be understood. According to Wispe (1991), showing compassion for others requires awareness of others' pain in the first place. After awareness of this pain, there should be a desire to alleviate the pain of others, as well as the formation of a non-judgmental attitude toward their failures. For instance, if a person is not aware of a beggar's pain on the side of the road, he cannot feel compassion toward that beggar. First, he must be aware of the beggar's pain, and then he would develop a desire to relieve the beggar's pain. In addition to that, he should not be judgmental about the beggar's behaviors or failures. Similarly, compassion directed toward the self also requires being aware of one's own pain, accompanied by a desire to alleviate that pain, that is free of judgement. However, many people do not realize their own pains and they persistently judge themselves because of their failures (Neff, 2011b).

2.1.1. Three Components of Self-Compassion

According to Neff (2003), self-compassion consists of three basic components: *self-kindness vs self-criticism*, *common humanity vs isolation*, and *mindfulness vs over-identification*. *Self-kindness* is a gentle approach to one's own inadequacies and pains, rather than a critical or rigid way. It is stopping self-humiliation and self-judgements during hard times and it refers not only to stopping self-criticism but also actively comforting oneself as one would do for a friend (Neff, 2011). It is about calming down the mind by asking "What do I need right now?" and supplying needs.

Self-compassion has a second component called *common humanity* which indicates relationality and community (Neff, 2011b). The common humanity component is the ability to perceive pain or inadequacies as shared experiences of humanity and not unique. In this way, an individual does not isolate themselves from society and humanity. Otherwise, a person may think that their mistakes and failures are exclusive to them, struggle with greater pain and shame, and experience a sense of isolation from society. It is important to note that self-compassion through 'common humanity' differs from self-pity. While self-pity is characteristic of thinking things like "poor me", the self-compassionate individual feels relief by thinking that human suffering is inevitable (Neff, 2011).

The mindfulness component is to hold one's experiences with balanced awareness (Neff, 2003). On one extreme, an individual may be overly focused on their failures such that they overly internalize pains and inadequacies. Thus, failures may be overgeneralized, and they can cause more inner pain for that person. On the other hand, an individual may attempt to ignore their pain entirely because humans inherently tend to avoid pain (Neff, 2011). When one ignores that pain, it becomes an inevitability for them to be adversely affected by its consequences. However, in order to soothe oneself, it is required to be moderately aware of one's pain. This entails being mindful and mindfulness has three components.

2.1.2. Misconceptions About Self-Compassion

According to Neff (2011b), self-compassion can be seen as an obstacle to self-enhancement. Misconceptions about this may be common in individualistic cultures. In these cultures, self-criticism is critical to enhancing the self (Neff, 2011b). Individuals should criticize themselves permanently and through self-criticism, they can fix their inadequacies. However, when they always tolerate their failures and forgive immediately themselves, they cannot improve themselves. Therefore, self-compassion can be falsely understood as self-pity (Neff, 2011b). However, self-compassion is not only about caring, calming, or nurturing, but also it is multifaceted.

The yin and yang of self-compassion are the opposite attributes of self-compassion which dispel the misconceptions above. *Yin* and *yang* refer to the dualities found in Chinese philosophy. The yin of self-compassion includes *soothing*, *comforting*, and *validating* self in a compassionate way (Neff & Germer, 2018). Comforting refers to supporting the emotional needs of the self in painful situations to make the self feel better. Soothing refers to calming the self in a physical manner to make the body feel more comfortable. Validating refers to making the self feel understood by validating one's feelings. The yin of self-compassion is the well-known side of self-compassion, and it may be seen as the internal compassionate mother.

On the other hand, the yang of self-compassion includes *protecting*, *providing*, and *motivating* more actively (Neff & Germer, 2018). Protecting refers to protecting self

from any kind of harm in order to feel safe by saying no to others. Providing refers to knowing needs, thinking that the self deserves them, and giving them to the self. Motivating refers to motivating the self about dreams and goals through a kind and supporting attitude. The yang of self-compassion is a generally unknown side of it. Considering this aspect, self-compassion cannot be an obstacle to self-improvement; on the contrary, it supports improvement. It is also different from self-pity because it is a constructive way of being kind to self.

2.1.3. Psychological Outcomes of Self-Compassion

Research demonstrates that individuals who have high levels of self-compassion have greater emotional resilience and stability (Neff, 2011a), more compliance with medical recommendations (Terry & Leary, 2011), perceive their social world as safer (A. Akin & Akin, 2015), and have more positive relationships with romantic partners (Neff & Beretvas, 2013). Self-compassion has also been found to be correlated positively with psychological well-being (Neff et al., 2007; Allen et al., 2012; Parente et al., 2018), happiness, optimism, and positive affect (Neff & Vonk, 2009), agreeableness, extroversion and conscientiousness (Neff, Rude, et al., 2007), and emotional intelligence (Heffernan et al., 2010).

Research also demonstrates the protective role of self-compassion for psychological functioning. Self-compassion is correlated negatively with automatic negative thoughts associated with depression (A. Akin, 2009), psychological vulnerability (U. Akin, 2014), self-rumination, social comparison, and anger (Neff & Vonk, 2009), and negative affect and neuroticism (Neff, Rude, et al., 2007). Moreover, individuals with lower levels of self-compassion experience less loneliness (Akin, 2010), less depressive and anxiety symptoms (Mahali et al., 2020), feel less negative feelings and cognitive evaluations of unpleasant life events (Leary et al., 2007; Muris et al., 2019), and have less internalizing symptoms (Lathren et al., 2019).

There are also a great number of meta-analysis studies about self-compassion and its impacts on individual well-being. Liao et al. (2021) examined 60 studies about the relationship between self-efficacy and self-compassion, and they found positive associations between them. Ewert et al. (2021) included 136 samples in their study in

order to find out the relationship between self-compassion and coping, and they found that there is a positive correlation between self-compassion and adaptive coping. Muris and Petrocchi (2017) examined 18 studies about the relationship between self-compassion and various types of psychopathology, and they found that self-compassion is associated negatively with psychopathology.

In addition to its contributions to psychological functions, there are also meta-analysis studies in which self-compassion contributes to physical health. Phillips and Hine (2021) analysed 94 peer-reviewed articles researching self-compassion, physical health, and health-promoting behavior, and they found that self-compassion predicted physical health, danger avoidance, health behavior, sleep, and functional immunity. Likewise, self-reported sleep quality is found associated with self-compassion in another meta-analysis study that included 15 articles (Brown et al., 2021). Suh ve Jeong (2021) examined 18 studies about self-compassion and suicide, and they found that self-compassion is associated negatively with suicidal thoughts and behaviors, and non-suicidal self-injury.

To sum up, the contributions of self-compassion to human beings are proven in many studies. For this reason, it was requested to examine the factors that can increase self-compassion.

2.1.4. Predictors of Self-Compassion

Some factors are predictors of self-compassion. Perfectionism is defined as intolerance to any imperfection in one's own behavior and it is a multidimensional construct with both maladaptive and adaptive perfectionism (Ulu et al., 2012). According to Linnett and Kibowski (2020), maladaptive perfectionism predicted lower levels of self-compassion. Likewise, Umandap & Teh (2020), found that individuals who have maladaptive perfectionism including high self-evaluation have less self-compassion. Other studies have proved that maladaptive perfectionism predicts depression (Wei et al., 2021) and less subjective well-being (Stoeber et al., 2020) because it is associated negatively with self-compassion.

Personality traits are generally examined whether they predict certain psychological functions because they are thought to be permanent. Neff et al. (2007) state that self-compassion is associated positively and significantly with extroversion, happiness, optimism, wisdom, curiosity and exploration, agreeableness, conscientiousness, positive affect, personal initiative, and associated negatively with negative affect and neuroticism. According to Pyszkowska (2020), self-compassion has a significant negative correlation with neuroticism and positive correlations with extraversion and agreeableness. Likewise, another study showed that self-compassion is positively correlated with agreeableness and conscientiousness, and negatively correlated with neuroticism (Tamcan, 2021). These studies demonstrate that there is a significant association between self-compassion and personality traits. Although these findings support that personality traits predict the level of self-compassion, studies that include regression analysis are required to determine their predictive role.

For the meta-analysis study focusing on gender differences in self-compassion, Yarnell et al. (2015) examined 71 journal articles, and they found that men have slightly more self-compassion levels than women. They also found that for ethnic minorities, this difference is higher (Yarnell et al., 2015). According to this comprehensive meta-analysis, gender can be considered as one of the predictive factors, and ethnic groups can be significant too.

Attachment style is another predictive factor for self-compassion. However, the relationship between self-compassion and attachment styles will be further discussed under the title of attachment since attachment is one of the variables of this study.

2.1.5. Attachment Theory

Before attachment theory, the psychoanalysis approach put forward ideas about the mother-infant bond which were based on *drive theory* and *object-relations theory* (Bowlby, 1969). According to drive theory, the mother meets the sexual needs of the baby by supplying a vehicle (breast) for the discharge of sexuality, and if the baby stays away from the mother's breast, the baby may feel anxiety (Holmes, 1993). According to object-relations theory, the baby wants proximity because it wants the mother to meet their biological needs like feeding (Holmes, 1993). According to

Holmes (1993), Bowlby believed that these theories cannot adequately explain the bond between mother and infant, and thus he emphasized an alternative need that needs to be fulfilled such as the psychological need to feel safe. The famous study of Harlow (1958) provides supporting evidence for the importance of psychological needs that was emphasized by Bowlby. In the study, Harlow put the baby monkeys next to two-wire mother monkeys they could go with. One of the mothers had a bottle to feed the baby monkeys. The other wire mother was wrapped in a soft towel. The baby monkeys clearly preferred the soft mother by clinging on to it and, only when they were hungry did they go to the bottle-fed mother and immediately returned back to the soft mother (Harlow, 1958). This experiment is a significant study showing that monkeys devote more attention and time to getting their psychological needs of feeling safe and warm, rather than the physical need of nourishment.

Attachment theory, which emphasized these psychological needs of the baby, was developed by John Bowlby as an alternative theory to psychoanalytic theories for the mother-infant bond (Bretherton, 1985). According to attachment theory, the relationship between the baby and the person they are attached to is critical. In order to feel warm, safe and comfortable, the baby seeks proximity by staying close to the caregiver and desiring skin to skin contact (Holmes, 1993).

Holmes (1993) explains three basic features of attachment in his book; which are proximity seeking, the “secure base” effect, and separation protest. Proximity seeking refers to the infants’ need for proximity and in order to get it, they try to stay close to their caregivers. Infants who crawl to follow their mothers need proximity less as they get older. As they get older, they gain more autonomy. Other factors besides age that determine the need for proximity are health status, temperament, mood, and developmental history (Holmes, 1993). For instance, proximity seeking can be greatly increased if the child is upset, frightened, or sick. “Secure base” term is first used by Ainsworth to define the ambiance, which the attachment figure plays a significant role in creating for infants (Bretherton, 1985). A secure base makes space for curiosity and exploration for securely attached infants (Holmes, 1993). When infants feel danger, they cling to their attachment figures; however, when there is no danger, they can explore the environment by knowing that the attachment

figure will be there. It is critical for the development of infants to explore their environments comfortably. Separation protest is when the reactions of infants who are separated from attachment figures display crying and screaming. These reactions, which aim to prevent further separation, may be a clear indicator of the infant's insecure relationship with the attachment figure (Holmes, 1993).

2.1.6. Attachment Styles

Holmes (1993) states that a distinction should be made between the concepts of *attachment*, *attachment behavior*, and *attachment behavioral systems*. Attachment refers to the general term including the quality and state of the individual's attachment, and attachment behavior refers to any behavior that is about the proximity with others (Holmes, 1993). Attachment can broadly be divided into two types of attachment: i) secure and ii) insecure, while there are different types of subattachment styles that are indicated by different attachment behaviors under each category. These attachment styles were first demonstrated experimentally by Mary Ainsworth, who is another significant name, which is often mentioned for attachment theory with John Bowlby. She is known through this lab experiment called the 'strange situation'. In the strange situation experiment, Mary Ainsworth et al. (1978) observed the attachment of 12-18-month-old children by examining their reactions when they were separated from their mothers and reunited. In the experiment, there is a baby and a mother in the experiment room at first. Then an experimenter enters the room as a stranger. Then, researchers ask the mother to come out. Then, the mother returns to the room a few minutes later. This time, the researchers ask the mother and the experimenter to leave the room and leave the baby alone. A few minutes later, the experimenter returns to the room first and the mother second, and the experiment ends. When the researchers analysed the infants' reactions, they found that there were 3 types of attachment styles: secure, anxious/ambivalent, and avoidant.

For securely attached infants, it has been observed that they become restless when their mothers left the room (Ainsworth et al., 1978). When their mother returned, they calmed down and interacted with their mother. Babies who have a secure relationship with their mothers have high feelings of trust and autonomy, even in a

separation situation. Moreover, securely attached infants explored the environment because they felt secure enough when their mothers are around. Although this discovery decreased when their mother left, they calmed down and continued their exploration after their mother returned. For babies to be securely attached, the caregiver must meet the baby's needs regularly, uninterruptedly and consistently (Bowlby, 1969). In this case, the baby will have a sense of security that his needs will be met. In addition, infants did not react negatively to the stranger in the experimenter room.

Anxious ambivalent infants did not seem comfortable even when their mothers were in the room (Ainsworth et al., 1978). When their mother left the room, they experienced intense anxiety and did not interact with the stranger in the room. They mostly cried and could not calm down even when their mother returned to the room. These infants both showed intense anger towards their mothers and intensely wanted to cling. These infants, who are reluctant to explore even when their mothers are with them, are completely away from discovery due to their post-separation anxiety. Anxious/ambivalent attachment occurs when the caregiver inconsistently meets the infant's needs (Bowlby, 1969). The infant, who has anxious/ambivalent attachment, does not have a sense of security that her needs will be met, so she always appears anxious and irritable. Even, they can be preoccupied with constant anxiety about being abandoned.

Infants with avoidant attachment did not respond when their mothers left the room. When the mother come back to the room, they did not try to interact with their mother as in the first group. They continued their play or exploration. These infants were also independent of the mother while exploring the environment. It was observed that these babies sometimes interacted with the stranger in the room more than their mothers. Infants have avoidant attachment when the caregiver does not meet the infant's needs and displays a negligent attitude. In other words, avoidantly attached infants are far from caregivers and do not seek proximity. They actually protect themselves from this negligence by staying away.

Main and Solomon (1986) added another attachment style to these three attachment styles: disorganized attachment. Disorganized attachment is the type of attachment

that occurs when the parent is extremely fearful or abuses the child (Sakman & Sümer, 2018). Anxious and avoidant attachment is seen as “organized” attachment because children who are attached in these ways have developed a strategy against their parents' behaviors and are protecting themselves in some way. However, children growing up in an abusive environment are disorganized, that is, they cannot organize and develop any strategy while trying to cope with this stress (Hébert et al., 2020). This small group of children generally freeze and behave confused when their parents come back (Holmes, 1993). These disorganized children may be vulnerable to all kinds of psychological problems because there is no system in their world, only intense fear.

2.1.7. Internal Working Models

Four types of attachment styles and the behaviors of these attachment styles are given above. The last term to be explained is attachment behavioral systems. Attachment behavioral systems refer to models within the behavioral system that determine relationships with others (Holmes, 1993). These systems are also called internal working models. Bowlby (1969) states that these models are mental representations that infants form according to the way they perceive themselves and the world and these mental representations are about self, relationships and attachment figures. It means the attitude and behaviors of caregivers shape the internal working models of infants. How the caregivers treat the infants affects the infants' behavior towards themselves (Sherman et al., 2015). If the child has secure attachment, he has a working model of the self as valued, worthy of love and care, and others as reliable and reachable (Bretherton, 1993). In this way, the child experiences the comfort of being at peace with himself, loving himself, and knowing that other significant others will care about him. If the child has insecure attachment, he has a working model of the self as unlovable, and unworthy of love and care (Bretherton, 1993). For instance, a child with an anxious attachment may constantly feel anxious, in the expectation that significant others will abandon him because he thinks he is not worthy of attention and love. As a result of this anxiety, there is a high probability that he will tend to cling to others. In a nutshell, internal working models shape the way an individual perceives himself, those around him, and the world, and determines his expectations, emotions, and behaviors.

Sherman et al. (2015) discussed whether these models are mutable in their review of internal working models. According to Bowlby (1969), these models are updated and revised based on new experiences. It is possible to interpret new experiences to adapt to the existing model or to change the model; however, the probability of changing the model is much more difficult (Sherman et al., 2015). According to Bowlby (Bowlby, 1969), the stability of internal working models increases over time and these models become stable as the person gets older. For this reason, it is necessary to acquire very sufficient and high-frequency new experiences for the model to change. Furthermore, Sherman et al. (2015) state that individual differences will also affect internal working models and claim that not every infant can interpret every input in the same way. Therefore, it cannot be said that the internal models shaped by the attachment styles work in the definite and same way, and have the same effect on the interpretation world of the person.

2.1.8. Adult Attachment

Bowlby (1969) states that the effects of attachment formed in the early periods of life will continue from the cradle to the grave. In other words, a person's perception of himself, his relationships and the world, which is shaped in the early stages, will continue in his adult life. This is made possible by the transfer of internal working models into adult life (Holmes, 1993). When these models are adapted to adult life, the person's attachment figure is now his romantic partner. As the internal working models are shaped, the relationship of the person with his partner is shaped accordingly.

Hazan and Shaver (1987) did a study that is one of the significant and first research that explains adult attachment. They utilized the classification of Ainsworth et al. (1978) about attachment including the types of attachment which are secure, anxious/ambivalent, and avoidant. They had 620 participants and asked them about their most important relationships, the duration, and frequency of their relationships, their attachment styles directly, childhood relationships with their parents, how they generally feel in romantic relationships, and their thoughts about what love is. More than half of the participants had secure, the remainder had an avoidant attachment, and the remaining group of relatively few participants had an anxious attachment.

They found that securely attached participants stated that their most important love experiences were those that were happy, friendly, and trusty, and their relationship duration was longer than the other two groups. On the other hand, those with avoidant attachment had fear of intimacy, jealousy, and emotional ups and downs. Obsessions, emotional difficulties, excessive sexual attraction, and jealousy were prevalent in those with anxious/ambivalent attachments. While those with secure attachment stated that romantic love sometimes can increase or decrease but can never end in some romantic relationships, those with avoidant attachment stated that romantic love will only be in movies and novels and it is very difficult to find the right person. Anxiously attached people stated that they fall in love easily, but that it is very difficult to find true love.

Considering their attachment histories, it was seen that the participants' perceptions of their childhood relationships with their parents were the most predictive factor. Securely attached participants reported that their relationships with parents are warmer in childhood. Considering the perceptions of self and others, it was observed that those with secure attachment found themselves easy to know and like, and others well-intentioned. Anxiously attached participants were found to find themselves misunderstood, self-doubt, and undervalued, and others less willing to commit themselves to the relationship. Those with avoidant attachments were in the middle of these two groups but were closer to those with anxious attachments.

Finally, when the loneliness levels were examined, it was observed that those with secure attachment had the lowest score and those with anxious attachment had the highest score. This research has demonstrated that people with insecure attachment to their parents in the past are more likely to have an insecure attachment to their romantic partners in adulthood. It can be inferred that people who are insecurely attached to their romantic partners have a negative perception of self and others, as in childhood attachment, and are always in a state of restlessness in their relationships.

Another significant theory about adult attachment is The Four-Category Model of Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991). Researchers stated that perceptions of one's self and others are dichotomous (high and low) and that when these two factors come together, four combinations will emerge, which are secure, preoccupied, dismissing,

and fearful. Secure attachment refers to perceiving oneself as valuable and lovable, and others as accepting and responsive. A preoccupied attachment refers to the person's feeling of worthlessness and positive perceptions of the other. People with this attachment style try to impose themselves on others. Fearful attachment refers to perceiving oneself as worthless, and others as rejecting and untrustworthy. People with this attachment style try to protect themselves by avoiding close relationships. Dismissing attachment refers to a perception of self as valuable and negative perceptions of others. People with this attachment style try to protect themselves from disappointment by avoiding close relationships. Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) analyzed the interview, self-report and friend-report data collected from the participants and concluded that four attachment styles were compatible with the model. According to the research results, while fearful participants complain more about interpersonal problems, dismissing participants mostly complain about the lack of warmth in their relationships. The contribution of researchers to a deeper understanding of attachment styles is very important, as the researchers discriminate in the group that avoids close relationships in this way.

2.1.9. Psychological Outcomes of Attachment Styles

A large body of research in the literature deals with the psychological outcomes of attachment styles. For this reason, these psychological outputs will be presented by considering meta-analysis studies more.

Significant studies show that insecure attachment styles bring about symptoms of psychological disorders. Hébert et al. (2020) found that disorganized attachment and emotion regulation mediated the relationship between exposure to sexual abuse and dissociation, by analyzing the data collected from 424 pre-schoolers. According to the results of the research, sexual abuse causes disorganized attachment, disorganized attachment reduces emotion regulation, and low emotion regulation causes dissociation symptoms. Madigan et al. (2013) analyzed 60 studies and found that insecure attachment styles are associated with internalizing problems which are the symptoms of depression and anxiety. By analysing 124 studies about depression and attachment styles, Spruit et al. (2020) also found that children and adolescents who have insecure attachment with caregivers have higher scores of depression. In a

study by (Ensink et al., 2021), sexually abused children ages 7 to 12 with insecure attachment had significantly more PTSD and trauma symptoms than those with secure attachment. Research investigating childhood attachment has also demonstrated that secure attachment is negatively correlated with perfectionism (Çelik et al., 2017) in children aged between 9-12, behavior problems (McCartney et al., 2004) in 15-36 months, and aggression (Marcus & Kramer, 2001) in children aged between 3-8.

Some studies have examined the impacts of attachment style on infants' and children's cognitive functions. Pallini et al. (2019) stated that secure attachment provides flexible attention according to attachment theory and they analysed 62 studies to examine the relationship between attachment styles and attention problems. They found that children (younger than 18) with insecure attachments have more attention problems. Cooke et al. (2016) stated that secure attachments allow open emotional communication with parents; for this reason, they analysed 10 studies to examine the relationship between emotional understanding and attachment styles. They found that attachment security is strongly associated with emotional understanding in children younger than 18. Bernier et al. (2015) found that securely attached children show better performance on executive function tasks during their kindergarten years. Roque et al. (2013) did a series of experiments in the setting of a laboratory and they found that infants (18-26 months) with secure attachment use more emotion regulation behavior strategies.

Some studies have proven that attachment styles affect the basic physiological needs of children and infants, such as eating and sleeping. Simard et al. (2017) analyzed 16 studies to detect the relationship between sleep and child attachment, and they found a significant association between sleep problems and resistant (anxious) attachment. According to the analysis of the data by Iwinski et al. (2021) from 110 families with 18-24 months old children, both through observation and self-report, it was observed that the secure attachment reduced the pick eating behavior. These studies revealed that two behaviors that are very important for health in a child's routine, namely eating and sleeping, are affected by attachment style.

According to research examining adult attachment, secure attachment style was correlated positively with psychological well-being (Marrero-Quevedo et al., 2019). Many studies have also been conducted to reveal the psychological outcomes of adult attachment. According to research, insecure attachment styles can bring about psychological disorders. Dagan et al. (2018) analysed 53 studies to find out the relationship between depression and attachment, and they found that insecurely attached individuals have higher levels of depression than others. Van Leeuwen et al. (2020) analysed 16 studies focusing on attachment and OCD to reveal developmental factors underlying OCD. They found that OCD is associated strongly with both attachment anxiety and avoidance. Woodhouse et al. (2015) aimed to investigate adult attachment and PTSD symptoms by analysing 46 studies, and they found a medium association between insecure attachment and higher PTSD symptoms. Bussel et al. (2021) did another meta-analysis with 28 studies focused on attachment and recovery from a psychotic disorder. They found that anxious and avoidant attachment is associated negatively with symptomatic recovery in adults diagnosed with a psychotic disorder. Likewise, Murphy et al. (2020) found a significant positive association between attachment insecurity and paranoia by analysing 26 studies. Smith and South (2020) also found a substantial correlation between attachment anxiety and attachment avoidance as a result of the meta-analysis. Fairbairn et al. (2018) analyzed data from 34 samples and found a longitudinal association between insecure attachment and substance use. Research also demonstrates that attachment anxiety positively predicts social media addiction (Liu & Ma, 2019) and social anxiety symptoms (Read et al., 2018). Literature includes many demonstrations that attachment insecurity can cause psychological disorders, including anxiety, mood disorders, psychosis, substance use, and personality disorders.

Some studies have stated that adult attachment impacts cognitive functions. Based on the claim that early experiences shape emotional intelligence, Walker et al. (2022) conducted a meta-analysis in which they analysed 26 studies. According to the results of this study, they found that low levels of anxious and avoidant attachment were significantly associated with high emotional intelligence levels. Analysing 33 studies to examine the relationship between attachment and mindfulness, which includes attention, Stevenson et al. (2017) found that people with insecure attachment had lower overall mindfulness scores.

In addition, it has been observed as a result of research that adult attachment style also affects the individual's relationships. Candell and Turliuc (2019) analyzed 132 studies and found a negative relationship between insecure attachment and relationship satisfaction. Kim and Miller (2020) analyzed 16 studies with the hypothesis that if people are insecurely attached, they can engage in risky sexual behaviors in order to please others. As a result of their analysis, they found that insecure attachment styles are related to risky sexual behaviors.

Several meta-analysis studies have shown a relationship between attachment and the process of psychotherapy sessions. Bernecker et al. (2014) analyzed 24 studies and found that people with anxious and avoidant attachment had lower levels of therapeutic alliance. Levy et al. (2018) analyzed 36 studies and found that securely attached people had better psychotherapy outcomes. In other words, the negative effects of insecure attachment on the therapeutic process can be mentioned.

Considering all these results, insecure attachment styles can cause different problems by negatively affecting many areas of life in children, adolescents, and adults.

2.1.10. The Prevalence of Insecure Attachment Styles

Sakman and Sümer (2018) reported the prevalence of attachment styles by examining studies conducted in different cultures. According to the research results, studies measuring early attachment have found that insecure attachment is 43% to 33% in Africa, 48% in Israel, 39% in Japan, 34% in Western Europe, and 33% in America. Insecure attachment in adulthood was found to be 70% in Africa, 65% in East and South/Southeast Asia, and 55% in Europe and America. Research results show that insecure attachment is seen in almost half of people in almost every culture.

Ein-Dor et al. (2010) also examined many studies about attachment prevalence and reported that insecure attachment of infants on average 65% secure, 20% avoidant, and 15% anxious, and the same goes for adolescent and adult attachment. They called this situation an attachment paradox because there are obvious benefits of

secure attachment and the obvious harms of insecure attachment. At this point, they stated that the possible benefits of insecure attachment should be investigated.

Simpson and Belsky (2016) argued about the potential benefits of insecure attachment. They stated that insecure attachment is a way for people to adapt to certain conditions. For instance, someone neglected by their caregivers may develop avoidant attachment and, when grown, choose to reproduce rather than parent, and they can have more than one spouse and children (Ein-Dor et al., 2010).

2.1.11. Attachment Styles and Self-Compassion

Üstündağ-Burak and Aktaran (2019) stated that parents' physical and mental accessibility in difficult situations predicts the development of self-compassion in babies. Also, Gilbert and Procter (2006) also said that children with insecure attachments perceive the environment as a threat and therefore focus on their failures and criticize themselves more. These findings indicate that there is a relationship between self-compassion and attachment. This section includes studies examining the relationship between self-compassion levels and attachment styles. Examining the relationship between these two variables is critical to understanding the formulation of the research design.

Pepping et al. (2015) suggested that self-compassion may have its roots in childhood and conducted two studies exploring the relationship between attachment and self-compassion. As a result of their correlational study, it was found that anxious attachment had a mediating role in the relationship between negative parenting behaviors and low self-compassion levels. In the second study, they designed an experiment in which the state attachment security of the participants was enhanced experimentally. As a result of the experiment, they observed that the participants in the experimental group had higher levels of state attachment security, which led to an increase in their levels of self-compassion. This research is one of the significant studies that prove the strong association between self-compassion levels and secure attachment style, as it was an experimental design that shows causation.

Correlational studies also revealed the relationship between self-compassion level and attachment style. In a study by Neff and McGehee (2010), participants with a secure attachment style reported higher levels of self-compassion. In another study conducted in Turkey, Başer Baykal et al. (2019) reported a negative relationship between anxious and avoidant attachment with self-compassion levels in university students. Likewise, Bayar and Tuzgöl Dost (2018) observed that anxious attachment style predicted self-compassion levels significantly.

Moreover, some research contains findings that support the possible relationship between self-compassion and attachment styles. In a correlational study, a negative relationship was found between early maladaptive schemas and self-compassion (Thimm, 2017; Yakın et al., 2019). Considering that the family may have a role in the formation of early maladaptive schemas, it can be expected that insecure attachment styles will also affect the level of self-compassion. Yakın et al. (2019) stated that the disconnection/rejection (D/R) domain, one of the early maladaptive schemas, is characterized by attachment stability problems. In another study examining the effects of attachment-based compassion therapy on the levels of self-compassion and attachment styles in healthy people, it was observed that the increase in self-compassion level has an important effect on the increase of secure attachment (Navarro-Gil et al., 2020).

These empirical and correlational studies reveal a strong association between levels of self-compassion and attachment styles. The social mentality theory, on which Pepping et al. (2015) base the attachment-self-compassion relationship, should also be addressed.

2.1.12. Social Mentality Theory

Social mentality theory is a theory put forward by Paul Gilbert (1989), who is known for his studies on compassion. Social mentality represents internal systems, and these systems create patterns of cognition, affect, and behavior. It is called the social mentality theory because when dealing with social difficulties, the person actually benefits from these internal systems. It is their social mentality that enables a person to decide on his or her role or to be able to interpret others' roles.

When the social mentality is activated, individuals expect appropriate answers from others, and these answers affect the development of their social mentality (Gilbert, 2009). For example, when a person asks for attention and compassion, and others respond appropriately, this social mentality of the person becomes stronger and continues to develop. On the contrary, if he receives negative responses from others, such as rejection, ignoring, and humiliation, his social mentality is blocked. This situation may also hinder the behavior and abilities of the person related to this social mentality. For this reason, the following interpretation can be made: If a person's search for attention and compassion is blocked by others continuously, a person may no longer recognize these needs. If this person cannot realize that he needs compassion, he cannot show compassion to himself because the first element of being able to show self-compassion is to realize that one needs compassion first.

Care-seeking and caring mentalities are likewise activated in our relationships with others and ourselves (Gilbert, 2005). In this sense, if we consider self-compassion, we can say that while the care-seeking mentality is activated and gives the message that attention is needed, the caregiving mentality creates a form of self-healing by responding with a compassionate feeling.

According to the social mentality theory, individuals use these evolving systems to relate to others while establishing relationships with themselves (Hermanto & Zuroff, 2016). Since the first experiences of care and compassion-seeking/giving are experienced in early childhood, the relationship between attachment and self-compassion can be based on social mentality theory (Pepping et al., 2015).

2.2. Volunteerism

Initially, research examining prosocial behaviors focused only on helping individuals in physical danger but now focused on sustained prosocial actions (Penner, 2002). Penner (2002) defines volunteerism as “long-term, planned, prosocial behaviors that benefit strangers and occur within an organizational setting.” According to Penner (2002), it has four characteristics: *longevity*, *planfulness*, *nonobligatory helping*, and being offered within an *organizational context*. Longevity refers to the long-term nature of volunteering activities. Most volunteering activities can last for years.

Planfulness refers to volunteer activities as planned actions. At this point, Penner states that individuals evaluate the pros and cons of volunteering and ultimately plan to volunteer (2002). In other words, volunteering is a thoughtful activity, not an activity that is decided at once spontaneously. Nonobligatory helping means individuals are not motivated by implicit or explicit obligations to help a certain person. While there is a personal obligation arising from the relationship, even when helping a friend, there is no obligation of any kind in volunteering activities. Finally, being in an organizational context means that volunteering activities usually occur in an organization's context. Most volunteers work for a charitable organization. For this reason, organizational variables are also important for volunteerism (Penner, 2002).

It would be appropriate to mention the difference between volunteerism, prosocial behaviour, and altruism. Batson (2012) defines prosocial behaviors as actions taken to benefit others (other than oneself), such as helping, sharing, comforting, or community service. Altruism, unlike prosocial behavior, is the motivation to increase the well-being of the other person (Batson, 2012). In other words, prosocial behavior is any behavior that benefits others within the scope of volunteering activities. But volunteering is the planned, long-term, and institutional context of prosocial behavior as defined. Altruism, on the other hand, can be a motivation that individuals have while doing volunteering activities. However, there is no direct obligatory relationship between volunteerism and altruism.

2.2.1. Predictors of Volunteerism

According to Penner and Finkelstein (1998), particular dispositional and organizational determinants of volunteerism, such as prosocial personality, affect satisfaction, altruistic values, organizational commitment, and volunteering role identity. According to them, prosocial personality, which is thought to significantly predict volunteer activities, has two dimensions: other-oriented empathy and helpfulness. They researched those factors and volunteerism to examine the determinants of it (Penner & Finkelstein, 1998). As a result of their study, they found that individuals who have high scores in other-oriented empathy and helpfulness engage in volunteer activities more. In addition, individuals with more altruistic

motivations also have high levels of volunteerism. Participants' positive feelings about volunteerism, satisfaction with both organization and activities, and organizational commitment were also associated positively with engaging in volunteer activities. Lastly, role identity (internalization of the role undertaken in voluntary activities) was found to be associated positively with volunteerism.

Penner (2002) conducted a correlational study with more than 1100 participants online to examine the variables later affecting volunteerism. He grouped the variables he wanted to examine into two groups dispositional and organizational. Because he stated that dispositional variables would predict permanent and long-term volunteering better, and organizational variables would be predictors because volunteering activities were carried out in the context of an organization. In this study, a test was applied to determine how prosocial the participants were. Also, participants are asked about some demographic information, religious beliefs, and whether they have volunteered in the last year. If they volunteered, the number of organizations they volunteered for, the quality of these institutions, and how much time they spent on volunteering were asked.

As a result of the research, Penner (2002) created the model of the causes of sustained volunteerism. Based on this model, prosocial personality is a strong predictor of volunteerism. Religious beliefs were also included in the model because the results showed that people with an organized religion volunteered more and had higher religiosity scores. Likewise, it has been observed that age, education, and income have a positive and significant relationship with volunteering activities. In addition to these, the researcher added motives to the model based on the literature and stated that the values "motives" was the motivation that predicted volunteerism the most. The literature on volunteer motivations will be given under the relevant title. Finally, the relationship with the organization and the practices and treatments of the organization were added to the model of the causes of sustained volunteerism.

Petrovic et al. (2021) conducted research by stating that religion leads to acts of kindness. In this study, they collected two types of data about religion from the participants: the importance of religion and participation in religious services. In addition, the time spent on volunteering activities was also collected. They found that

higher religious importance was associated with time spent volunteering, with participation in religious service being more likely to volunteer. Researchers have argued that religion promotes volunteerism by increasing prosocial values and beliefs by expanding social networks. Likewise, As a result of a survey Ozorak (1999) conducted years ago, she found that the strongest predictor of participation in volunteering activities was intrinsic motivation and that intrinsic motivation is associated with prayer styles. These findings show that religion can be a predictor for the voluntariness variable. Saroglou et al. (2005) found that people with high levels of religiosity also scored higher in altruistic behaviors and empathy at the end of their series of studies.

Niebuur et al. (2018) conducted a meta-analysis by examining 24 articles to identify the determinants of volunteering. As a result of the study, it was found that social network size, church attendance, previous volunteering experiences, being married, and socioeconomic status were associated with volunteering. As a result of Omoto and Packard's (2016) research, in which they aimed to determine the antecedents of volunteering, they found that unlike the above, a psychological sense of community (feeling connected to the community) can be one of the antecedents of volunteering.

2.2.2. Motivations of Volunteerism

One of the oldest and most important studies on volunteering motivation is Clary et al.'s (1998) functional approach. Researchers argue that volunteering activity by different people looks the same from the outside, but actually participating in these activities can serve very different functions. Based on literature research, they have identified six basic volunteering functions: values, understanding, social, career, protective, and enhancement. Values function refers that individuals engage volunteering activities because of their values related to humanistic and altruistic concerns for others. Understanding function refers that individuals engage volunteering activities to gain knowledge, skills, and abilities. Social functions refer to volunteering activities for a relationship with others (friends or important others). Career function refers to engaging in volunteering activities to gain career-related benefits like acquiring career-related skills. Protective function refers that individuals

engage volunteering activities to protect their ego from negativity, like reducing guilt toward less fortunate people. Finally, the enhancement function refers to engaging in volunteering activities to develop and grow egos, such as self-esteem or positive affect.

2.2.3. Psychological Outcomes of Volunteering Activities

Various studies have demonstrated that volunteering activities benefit the volunteer and others. In a comprehensive study conducted with older adults, it was observed that volunteers had higher scores in self-esteem, social participation, self-efficacy, happiness, social support, life satisfaction, and perceived health compared to non-volunteers (Hidalgo et al., 2013). In a scoping review examining the benefits of volunteering and volunteering activities on the healthy development of adolescents, 15 separate articles were examined (Hernantes et al., 2020). In this study, it was observed that volunteering promotes an increase in conflict resolution capacity, leadership, and personal agency, enhanced prosocial attitudes and relationships with adults and peers, and academic, social, cognitive, and vocational competence in adolescents. In another relational study conducted with the elderly, it was found that long volunteering time was positively correlated with life satisfaction (Jiang et al., 2018). According to the results of longitudinal research conducted with about 1500 married participants, it was found that there is a significant decrease in the mortality rates of individuals who support their surroundings and their spouses (S. L. Brown et al., 2003). On the other hand, it was observed that getting support did not affect the mortality rate. Considering all these findings, it can be concluded that volunteering activities contribute to the psychological well-being of the individual.

2.2.4. Volunteerism and Self-Compassion

This section includes various research on the relationship between self-compassion and volunteerism. Breines and Chen (2013) stated that “one way to increase compassion for yourself is to give it to others” as a result of 4 experimental studies. Their experiments aimed to activate the support-giving schemes by reminding the participants of their memories of supporting others and actually supporting others.

As a result of the experiments, it was observed that both types of support-giving schemes activation increased state self-compassion levels. This research has significance, including the first experiments, which demonstrate the causal relationship between supporting others and supporting self.

In another experimental study, self-affirmation manipulation was applied to the participants in the experimental group (Lindsay & Creswell, 2014). Afterward, the participants' helping behavior was scored through the actual helping experiment in the lab environment. As a result of the study, it was observed that the self-compassion levels of the participants with increased self-affirmation also increased, and the increased self-compassion levels predicted more helping behavior. Furthermore, brain imaging studies also indirectly support this relationship. In an fMRI study, it was observed that the neural activity that self-compassion generates in the brain and the neural activity that occurs when empathy towards others is similar (Longe et al., 2010). Based on this finding, Neff and Pommier (2013) stated that self-compassion and other focused attention go hand in hand.

In many correlational studies, strong positive correlations were found between factors thought to be directly related to volunteerism and self-compassion. In a study conducted with high school adolescents in China, self-compassion was found to be positively associated with adolescents' prosocial behavior (Yang et al., 2019). In a study by Neff and Pommier (2013), higher levels of self-compassion were found to be associated with more other-focused concerns, including perspective-taking, forgiveness, empathic concern, altruism, and compassion for humanity among adults. In another study, it was found that self-compassion level is associated with greater helping intentions among adults (Welp & Brown, 2014), peer-rated prosocial behavior among adolescents (Marshall et al., 2019), and compassionate goals (Crocker & Canevello, 2008). Considering that the factors mentioned above are related to volunteering, it can be inferred that there is a positive correlation between self-compassion and volunteerism. Moreover, according to the experimental studies mentioned, it can be expected that volunteering activities can predict self-compassion levels.

2.2.5. Volunteerism and Attachment

This section includes studies examining the relationship between volunteerism and attachment styles. Mikulincer and Gillath have done a lot of research on attachment and volunteerism. One of the important research studies they have done is research in which they observed whether the attachment security of individuals increased in the lab environment, increased compassion, and altruistic behavior (Mikulincer et al., 2005). Mikulincer et al. conducted five experiments for this research and observed whether individuals help a distressed woman perform aversive tasks. It was observed that individuals in the experimental group with increased secure attachment helped women more. In other words, secure attachment priming predicts greater compassion and willingness to help a distressed person.

Research by Gillath et al. (2005) is critical in understanding the relationship between volunteering activities and attachment styles and is one of the building blocks of this research. In a correlational study they conducted, the relationship between attachment insecurity and real-world altruistic volunteering was examined. In this research, two scores are created for the volunteerism variable: the number of volunteering activities and time devoted to volunteering activities. In addition to the attachment styles of the participants and their participation in volunteering activities, their volunteering motivation was also measured. At the end of this study, it was observed that avoidantly attached individuals engage in fewer volunteer activities, and anxious attachment is not associated with volunteering activities. At this point, it has been determined that the difference between anxiously attached and securely attached individuals is that volunteer motivation of anxiously attached individuals is self-enhancing motives. Later, in the second part of the research, Gillath et al. (2005) investigated whether anxiously attached individuals who participated in volunteering activities benefited from these activities. This time, the scores of the participants on loneliness and interpersonal problems were also taken. As a result of the second study, it was observed that individuals with anxious attachment benefit from their activities even though they do their volunteering activities for less altruistic reasons. Anxiously attached individuals engaged in volunteering had less loneliness and interpersonal problems than those who did not. This research has demonstrated that

frequent participation in volunteering activities has a moderating role in the relationship between anxious attachment and loneliness, and interpersonal problems.

Likewise, in a study conducted by Erez et al. (2008), which examined the relationship between volunteering activities and attachment, it was observed that volunteering motivations had no effect on avoidant attachment while assuming a mediating role for anxious attachment.

Other correlational studies have also demonstrated that avoidantly attached individuals exhibit less helping behavior (Richman et al., 2015), secure attachment is associated with prosocial behavior (Shi et al., 2020), positive parenting styles increase prosocial behavior and reduce aggression (Malonda et al., 2019), and insecure attachment in preschool children is associated with deficiencies in perspective taking (Ştefan & Avram, 2019).

2.2.6. Self-Compassion, Attachment, and Volunteerism

Volunteering activities can also be based on social mentality theory in terms of providing care and compassion to others while participating in volunteering activities. In other words, when anxious individuals engage in volunteering activities, their level of self-compassion can be expected to increase since their social mentality toward compassion will be affected (Hermanto et al., 2017).

2.3. The Purpose of the Current Study

This research aims to examine the relationship between volunteerism, self-compassion levels, and attachment styles. Particularly, individuals with anxious attachment are expected to have higher self-compassion levels when they participate in volunteering activities than those who do not participate. In other words, detecting the moderating role of volunteerism is the main goal of this study.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

3.1. Participants

In this research, a total of 415 participants were reached through the internet survey method through social media groups. Participants aged 18-30 who speak Turkish and can answer the questionnaire electronically were included in the study. As 47 participants were diagnosed with a psychiatric diagnosis, 19 participants were over 35 years old, and 1 participant was under 18 years old, they were not included in the study. In the last case, the study sample consisted of 348 participants. It was observed that 79.3% (n=276) of the participants were women, 20.7% (n=72) were men, and the age range of the study was between 18-30.

3.2. Measures

In this research, the Demographic Information Form, Self-compassion Scale (SCS), Adult Scale of Parental Attachment (ASPA), Volunteerism Questionnaire, and Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI) were used to collect data. Turkish versions of scales were used to apply the scales in the Turkish population.

3.2.1. Demographic Information Form

The Demographic Information Form includes questions about gender, age, city of residence, education level, economic situation, employment, the person who gives care at ages 1-14, and whether a psychiatric diagnosis was made. The researcher developed the Demographic form.

3.2.2. Self-Compassion Scale (SCS)

Self-compassion Scale was used to measure self-compassion levels. The original form of the scale was developed by Neff (2003). The translation, validity, and reliability studies of the scale were conducted by Akın et al. (2007). The internal consistency coefficients of the scale were between .72 and .80, and test-retest reliability coefficients were between .56 and .69. The researchers concluded that the scale is a valid and reliable measurement tool (Akın et al., 2007). The scale consists of 26 items. Participants' responses are scored in a 5-point Likert type (1 = never, 5 = always). The scale has six subscales: self-kindness, self-criticism, common humanity, isolation, mindfulness, and over-identification. Scoring of the scale can be done separately for each subscale. To obtain the self-compassion average, negative subscales are coded reverse, and the means of six subscales added. Scores between 1-2.5 indicate low, scores between 2.5-3.5 show moderate, and scores between 3.5-5 indicate a high level of self-compassion (Ü. Akın et al., 2007).

3.2.3. Adult Scale of Parental Attachment - Short Form (ASPA-SF)

Adult Scale of Parental Attachment - Short Form was utilized to measure the parental attachment style of adult participants. The original form of the scale was developed by Michael (2014), and the scale consists of 84 items. Forty-two items of the scale are for the mother, and 42 items are for the father. Participants' responses are scored in a 5-point Likert type (1 = never, 5 = constantly). This scale has five subscales for both mother and father, which are safe, fearful, dependent, distant, and parentified. This scale was used to investigate the effects of the types of volunteer motivations of the participants in volunteering activities on the moderator role of volunteering.

Michael and Snow (2019) also developed the short form because the scale was too long and conducted validity and reliability studies of the scale. ASPA-SF consists of 40 items; half are related to the mother and the other half to the father. Cronbach's alpha value is between .68-.88 for the mother scale and .69-.90 for the father scale. The researchers concluded that the scale is a valid and reliable measurement tool (T. Michael & Snow, 2019).

There is no Turkish version of this scale. The researcher translated the scale, and face validity and translation-back translation methods were used for the validity and reliability of the scale. The parentified subscale was excluded from the scale because only secure, anxious, and avoidant attachment styles were aimed to be measured in the study. Safe subscale score is referred to a secure attachment style, and distant subscale is referred to an avoidant attachment style. The anxious attachment style was measured through both fearful and dependent subscales. In the last case, there are 32 items to be asked of the participants.

3.2.4. Volunteerism Scale

The volunteerism Scale was used to measure the volunteering behaviors of participants. It was developed by Gillath et al. (2005) for their research. It consists of 26 items which are different types of volunteering activities such as community services, volunteers civil service, and volunteering in religious activities. Participants are asked to indicate whether they participate in each type of volunteering. If there are any activities they participated in, they are asked how much time they spent in the last year. The amount of time they spend is scored with an 8-point Likert-type scale (1=never, 8=almost every day). In other words, two total scores are calculated for volunteering: the number of volunteering activities participants participated in and the time spent on volunteering activities (Gillath et al., 2005). There is no Turkish version of this scale. The principal investigator translated the scale into Turkish and revised the volunteering activities in the list to make them compatible with Turkish culture.

3.2.5. Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI)

Volunteer Functions Inventory was used to measure the motivations of a participant who engages in volunteering activities. It was developed by Clary et al. (1998) and had 30 items. Participants' responses are scored in a 7-point Likert type (1 = not at all important/accurate; 7 = extremely important/accurate). The scale has 6 sets of motivational functions, which are *values*, *understanding*, *social*, *career*, *protective*, and *enhancement*. *Values* indicate motivations related to altruism and other related

concerns. The *Understanding* function indicates motivations related to new learning experiences and a chance to get knowledge, skills, and abilities. The *Social* function indicates motivations related to concerning relationships with others. *Career* function is about career-related benefits like preparation for a job. *Protective* function is related to protecting the ego, such as reducing guilt or escaping negative feelings. *Enhancement* function indicates motivations related to ego growth, such as increasing self-esteem or positive affect. Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each VFI each set of motivational functions: values, .80; understanding, .81; social, .83; career, .89; protective, .81; enhancement, .84 and the researchers concluded that the scale is a valid and reliable measurement tool (Clary et al., 1998).

In addition, since Muslims constitute the majority of the population of Turkey, it is thought that religious motivations may also affect participation in volunteering activities. For this reason, 2 items measuring religious functions were added to the Volunteer Functions Inventory: "I am a volunteer because I think I can get Allah's approval this way" and "I am a volunteer because I think I will be rewarded in paradise thanks to this."

3.3. Procedure

Ethics committee approval for this study was obtained from the Social and Human Sciences Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee of Ibn Haldun University. The data collection process was completed between January and March 2021. The convenience sampling method was used in this study. The online questionnaire created through Google Forms was sent to the participants by sending them to the researcher's network and the people around them via e-mail groups and social media. Data collection was completely done through the online platform. Participants were informed about the research through the Informed Consent Form. People who read the form and agreed to participate in the research filled out the scales on Google Forms. Participants who enrolled in the study took about 15 minutes to fill out the survey.

3.4. Data Analysis

Data analysis part comprised data pre-processing, explanation of descriptive statistics, correlation analyses, regression analyses, and independent samples t-test. The data obtained from the participants were pre-processed and analysed through five libraries written for Python language that are *numpy*, *pandas*, *statsmodels*, *scipy*, and *matplotlib*. Python is a very popular and easy-to-use programming language that is widely utilized in scientific studies. The libraries used in this study are embedded in the programming language and are compatible with each of them in the same ecosystem. The libraries *numpy* and *pandas* are utilized to load the raw data in the comma-separated values (csv) file format into the Python environment and apply all sorts of data transformations and operations such as merging, grouping, filtering, conditional selection, dummy variable encoding, label encoding, handling missing values and so forth. The library *statsmodels* are used to apply regression analyses. The library *scipy* is used to apply correlation analyses and independent t-test samples. Lastly, all graphs in this part are plotted via *matplotlib* library.

3.4.1. Data Pre-processing

- i. *Data merging*: The responses from the participants were in csv file format. These files were loaded into Python environment and merged to form a complete and structured data frame.
- ii. *Data cleaning*: The main data frame had missing values due to incomplete answers. These samples were removed from the data frame. Besides, the typos in the responses were corrected.
- iii. *Mapping*: Along with the demographic features, the data frame includes the answers corresponding to the questions of scales. The scale questions are answered in Likert type, such as between never and always. Each answer is mapped into a score between 0-7.
- iv. *Encoding*: Categorical columns are encoded in a way that each unique value in a category will return a vector containing either 0 or 1 for each sample. Dummy variable encoding allows categorical values to be taken into mathematical calculations.
- v. *Filtering*: The samples that meet the exclusion criteria were filtered out.

- vi. *Calculating scale scores:* The participants' total scores for each scale were calculated as described in the paper in which the scale was introduced.
- vii. *Grouping participants:* In this study, the participants are separated according to their attachment types: securely attached participants and insecurely attached participants because this study proposes that volunteering activities will play a moderator role in an insecurely attached group.

3.4.2. Grouping Participants into Securely Attached and Insecurely Attached

The scale, which evaluates the attachment type and level between the participants and their mothers, produces three scores representing secure, anxious, and avoidant attachment levels. Additionally, the scale, which evaluated the attachment type and level between participants and their fathers, produced three scores for the same representation. Briefly, there were six scores named *Secure_{mother}*, *Anxious_{mother}*, *Avoidant_{mother}*, *Secure_{father}*, *Anxious_{father}*, and *Avoidant_{father}*. The participants were separated into securely attached and insecurely attached groups named *SecurelyAttached* and *InsecurelyAttached* according to their *Secure*, *Anxious*, and *Avoidant* scores. Since the *Secure* score represents a secure attachment, and *Anxious* and *Avoidant* scores represent an insecure attachment, the following procedure is used for the separation:

According to the statement above, the participants with a secure attachment score greater than the mean, an anxious attachment score less than the mean, and an avoidant attachment score less than the mean is included in the *SecurelyAttached* group.

Similar to the previous procedure, the participants with a secure attachment score less than the mean, an anxious attachment score greater than the mean, and an avoidant attachment greater than the mean are included in the *InsecurelyAttached* group. The participants included in neither of these groups are considered ambiguous. As the result of the grouping operation applied both for mother and

father attachment, there are four groups relevant to this study: *SecurelyAttached_{mother}*, *InsecurelyAttached_{mother}*, *SecurelyAttached_{father}*, *Insecurely Attached_{father}*.

3.4.3. Insecure_{mother} and Insecure_{father} Scores

Since *Anxious* and *Avoidant* scores represent the insecure attachment level, a single score referring to the insecure attachment, in general, is calculated by taking the average of *Anxious* and *Avoidant* scores. The *Insecure* score is brought into the analyses along with the *Secure*, *Anxious*, and *Avoidant* scores.

$$Insecure_{mother} = \frac{Anxious_{mother} + Avoidant_{mother}}{2}$$

$$Insecure_{father} = \frac{Anxious_{father} + Avoidant_{father}}{2}$$

3.4.4. Correlation Analyses Between Mother Attachment Scores – Self-Compassion Levels and Mother Attachment Scores – Volunteering Activity

To validate that the collected data is reliable, by referring to the ground truths that are already known in the literature, the correlation between attachment and self-compassion levels and the correlation between attachment and volunteering activity were examined. The facts that have already been demonstrated are attempted to be achieved by using the collected data as well. According to the literature, there is a negative association between insecure attachment level and self-compassion level. Besides, there is also a negative association between insecure attachment level and the amount of time spent on volunteering activities.

3.4.5. Moderator Effect Analyses Based on Mother Attachment Scores in Insecurely Attached Participants: Multiple Linear Regression Models

This study examined whether the relationship between insecure attachment levels and self-compassion levels is affected by a third variable, the amount of time spent on volunteering in insecurely attached individuals. A moderator variable changes the effect of insecure attachment on self-compassion. Three different models are created where $Anxious_{mother}$, $Avoidant_{mother}$, and $Insecure_{mother}$ are used as independent variables. The amount of time spent on volunteering activities is taken as a moderator variable. Lastly, the self-compassion level is predicted in the model as a dependent variable. The figures and mathematical expressions below demonstrate three regression models. See Figures 3.1., 3.2., and 3.3.

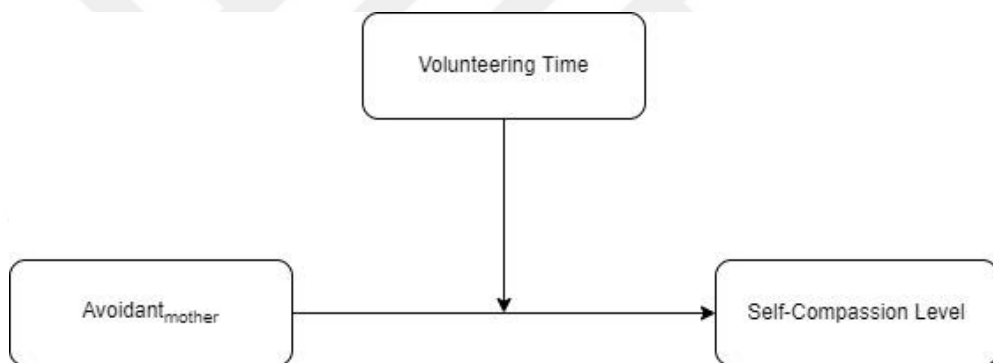


Figure 3.1. The Model of Moderation Effect with $Avoidant_{mother}$ as Predictor Variable

$$SelfCompassionLevel = \beta_1 Anxious_{mother} + \beta_2 VolunteeringTime + \beta_3 Anxious_{mother} \times VolunteeringTime$$

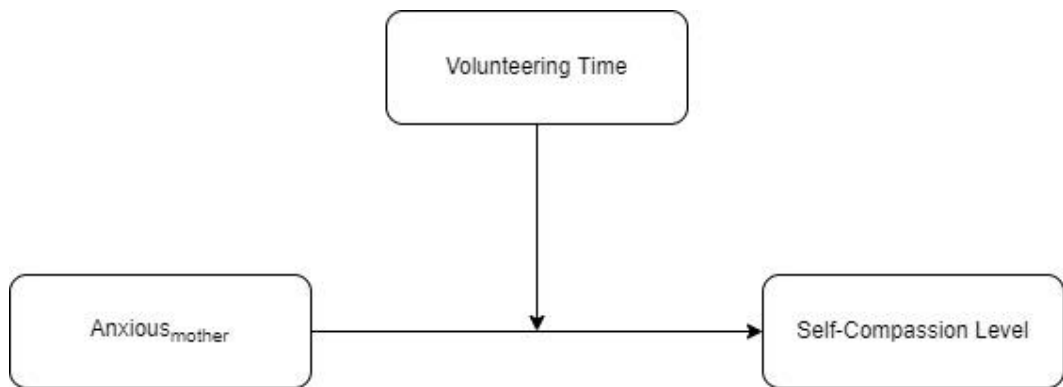


Figure 3.2. The Model of Moderation Effect with Anxious_{mother} as Predictor Variable

$$SelfCompassionLevel = \beta_1 Anxious_{mother} + \beta_2 VolunteeringTime + \beta_3 Anxious_{mother} \times VolunteeringTime$$

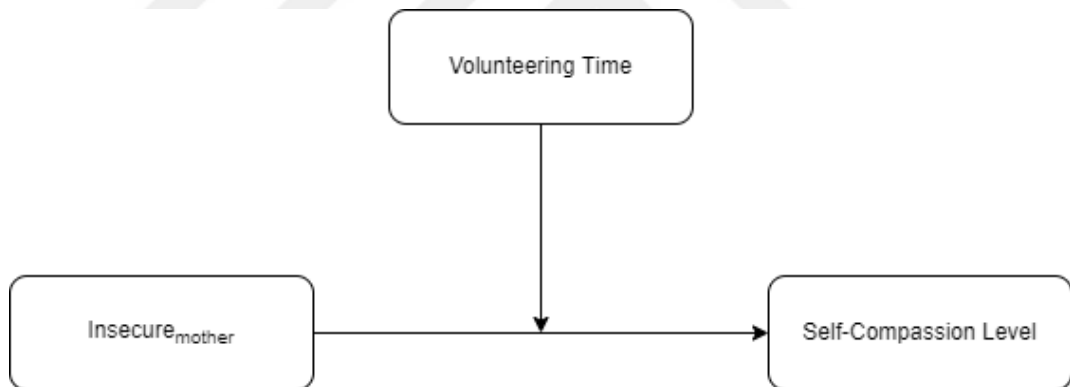


Figure 3.3. The Model of Moderation Analysis with Insecure_{mother} as Predictor Variable

$$SelfCompassionLevel = \beta_1 Insecure_{mother} + \beta_2 VolunteeringTime + \beta_3 Insecure_{mother} \times VolunteeringTime$$

3.4.6. Effect of Potential Covariate Variables

There may be some cases where the amount of time spent on volunteering activities does not change the size or direction of the relationship between insecure attachment levels and self-compassion levels, but some other factors are correlated to the volunteering activities. The Stepwise Multiple Regression method is designed to check if such factors -called covariates- exist. Age, sex, residential area, education status, financial status, and employment status are added into the model as predictor variables, and it is checked if a variable changes the significance of the interaction term (moderator effect). Forward Selection and Backward Elimination, which are the two most widely utilized approaches for Stepwise Multiple Regression, are used to create the regression model. Among the insecure attachment scores ($Anxious_{mother}$, $Avoidant_{mother}$, and $Insecure_{mother}$), not all of them, but the one with the greatest significance (lowest p-value) is chosen as a predictor variable in this model.

3.4.7. Rescaling the Time Spent on the Volunteering Activities

Since the scale measuring the time spent on the volunteering activities is a 7-point Likert type scale, a score between 0 and 7 is assigned to each of the volunteering activities. There is a 7-point difference between performing a volunteering activity every day (7 points) and never doing it (0 points). Therefore, it is considered that the frequency scale between 0-7 points does not appropriately represent the difference between performing a volunteering activity every day (365 days) and never (0 days) in a mathematical manner. The actual frequency of performing an activity and 7-point representation is given below. See Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Transformation of Volunteering Activity Scores

| Frequency | Days in real life | 7-point representation |
|----------------------|-------------------|------------------------|
| Never | 0 | 0 |
| Once a year | 1 | 1 |
| Several times a year | 3 | 2 |
| Once a month | 12 | 3 |

Table 3.1. (cont.)

| | | |
|-----------------------|-----|---|
| Several times a month | 36 | 4 |
| Once a week | 52 | 5 |
| Several times a week | 156 | 6 |
| Everyday | 365 | 7 |

As it is seen, as the frequency in real life increases, 7-point representation follows this increase logarithmically. This situation may misrepresent the frequency of performing volunteering activities when there are more than 20 volunteering activities. For example, the difference between a person performing only one volunteering activity every day (7-point representation = 1×7 ; days in real life = 1×365) and another person performing three activities that s/he performs only several times in a year (7-point representation = 3×2 ; days in real life 3×3) is 1 point, but indeed 356 days. For this reason, the frequency of participating in volunteering activities was recalculated by rescaling the 7-point scores in such a way that they represent the number of days in real life. The analyses were performed once again with new volunteering frequencies. (See Figure 3.4.) Rescaling is done by converting each frequency to the number of days it falls on: {Never: 0, Annually: 1, Several times a year: 3, Once a month: 12, Several times a month: 36, Once a week: 52, Several times a week: 156, Every day: 365}.

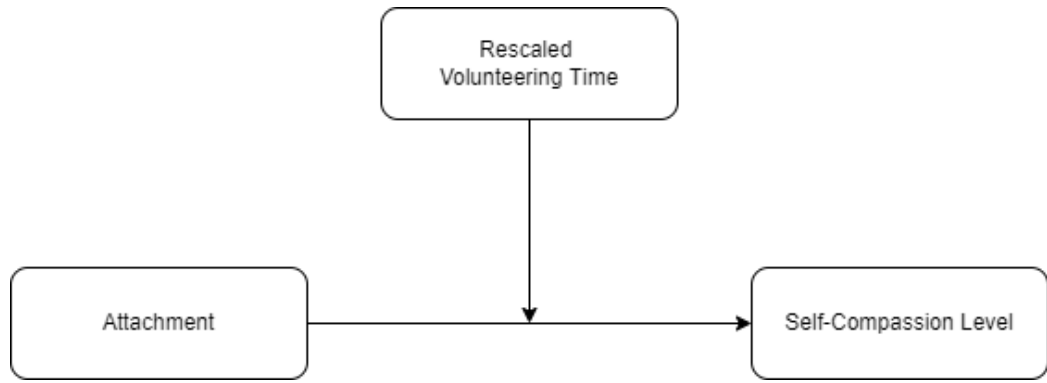


Figure 3.2. The Model of Moderation Effect with Rescaled Volunteering Time

$$SelfCompassionLevel = \beta_1 Anxious_{mother} + \beta_2 RescaledVolunteeringTime + \beta_3 Anxious_{mother} \times RescaledVolunteeringTime$$

$$SelfCompassionLevel = \beta_1 Avoidant_{mother} + \beta_2 RescaledVolunteeringTime + \beta_3 Avoidant_{mother} \times RescaledVolunteeringTime$$

$$SelfCompassionLevel = \beta_1 Insecure_{mother} + \beta_2 RescaledVolunteeringTime + \beta_3 Insecure_{mother} \times RescaledVolunteeringTime$$

3.4.8. The Role of Volunteering Motivation on the Moderator Effect

The effect of performing volunteering activities with different motivations on the relationship between insecure attachment levels and self-compassion levels is examined through Stepwise Multiple Regression. To analyze this effect, the following model is designed:

$$SelfCompassionLevel = \beta_1 Insecure_{mother} + \beta_2 VolunteeringActivity + \beta_3 Insecure_{mother} \times VolunteeringActivity + \beta_4 Insecure_{mother} \times VolunteeringActivity \times Motivation_{protective}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
& +\beta_5 Insecure_{mother} \times VolunteeringActivity \times Motivation_{values} \\
& +\beta_4 Insecure_{mother} \times VolunteeringActivity \times Motivation_{career} \\
& +\beta_4 Insecure_{mother} \times VolunteeringActivity \times Motivation_{social} \\
& +\beta_4 Insecure_{mother} \times VolunteeringActivity \times Motivation_{understanding} \\
& +\beta_4 Insecure_{mother} \times VolunteeringActivity \times Motivation_{enhancement} \\
& +\beta_4 Insecure_{mother} \times VolunteeringActivity \times Motivation_{religious}
\end{aligned}$$

The model above expresses how *Insecure_{mother}* affects the self-compassion level for different motivations beneath the volunteering activity.

3.4.9. The Difference in Motivations Beneath Performing Volunteering Activities Between Securely Attached Individuals and Insecurely Attached Individuals

Independent Samples t-Test was conducted to understand whether the motivations of individuals to participate in volunteering activities differ according to whether they are in the Securely or Insecurely attached group. After deciding if the variances are equal or not for each motivation type by Levene's Test for Equality of Variances, a 2-tailed significance score is produced by the t-test for Equality of Means.

3.4.10. Moderator Effect Analyses Based on Father Attachment Scores in Insecurely Attached Participants: Multiple Linear Regression Models

In this part, the participants are separated into two groups: *SecurelyAttached_{father}* and *InsecurelyAttached_{father}*. The same regression models are designed for father attachment scores among the individuals in the *InsecurelyAttached_{father}* group. As predictor variables, *Anxious_{father}*, *Avoidant_{father}*, and *Insecure_{father}* scores are used. Furthermore, the differences between the results produced by the models based on mother attachment scores and father attachment scores are discussed.

3.4.11. Moderator Effect Analyses in Securely Attached Participants: Multiple Linear Regression Models

The same moderator effect analyses are applied with the same predictor variables in the *SecurelyAttached_{father}* group. As predictor variables, *Anxious_{mother}*, *Avoidant_{mother}*, and *Insecure_{mother}* scores are used. Furthermore, the differences between the results produced by the models applied to securely attached individuals and insecurely attached individuals are discussed.



CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

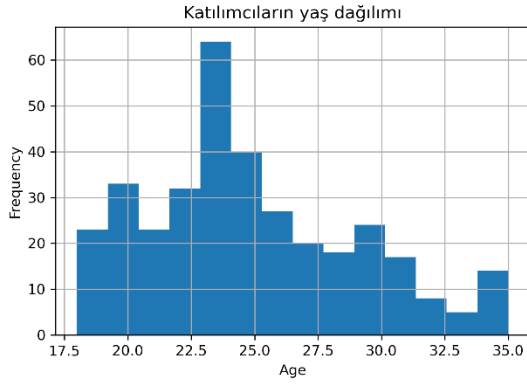
4.1. Description of Data

4.1.1. Distributions

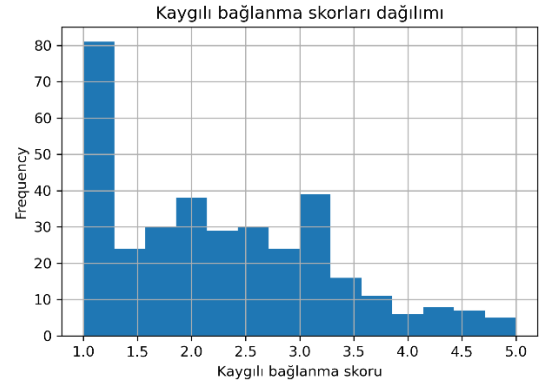
The data for this study was collected from 415 individuals in total. After removing participants on account of applying the exclusion criteria as a filter, i.e., those that were not between 18-35 years old, having been diagnosed with a psychiatric problem, and not completing the questionnaire, statistical analyses were applied to 348 remaining participants. Table 4.1. and Figure 4.1. below is how the data is distributed across demographic variables.

Table 4.1. Data Distribution for Demographical Categories

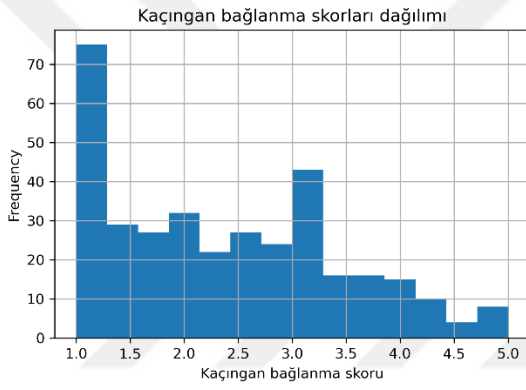
| Feature | Category | Frequency |
|--------------------------|-----------------------|-----------|
| <i>Sex</i> | <i>Female</i> | 276 |
| | <i>Male</i> | 72 |
| <i>Residential Area</i> | <i>Metropolis</i> | 277 |
| | <i>City</i> | 50 |
| | <i>Town/Village</i> | 21 |
| <i>Education Status</i> | <i>Graduate</i> | 39 |
| | <i>Undergraduate</i> | 186 |
| | <i>High school</i> | 119 |
| | <i>Primary school</i> | 4 |
| <i>Financial Status</i> | <i>Very good</i> | 14 |
| | <i>Good</i> | 116 |
| | <i>Middle</i> | 185 |
| | <i>Bad</i> | 33 |
| <i>Employment Status</i> | <i>Working</i> | 120 |
| | <i>Not working</i> | 228 |



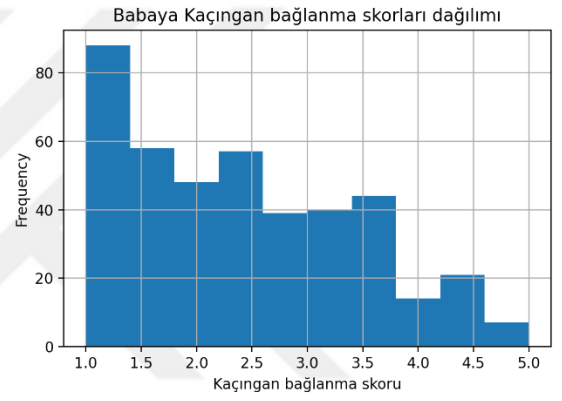
a



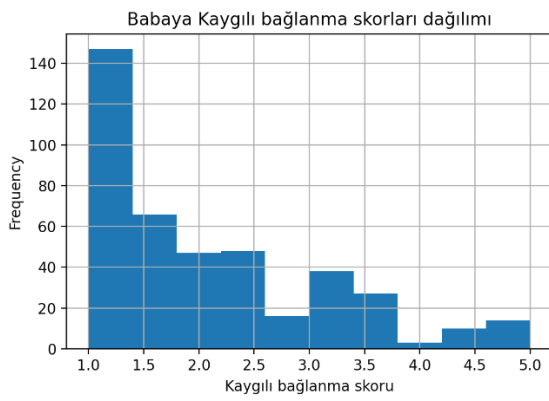
b



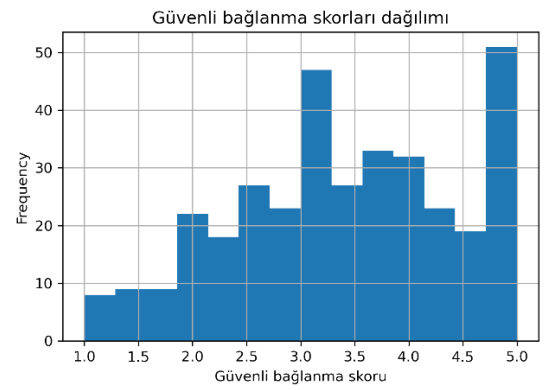
c



d

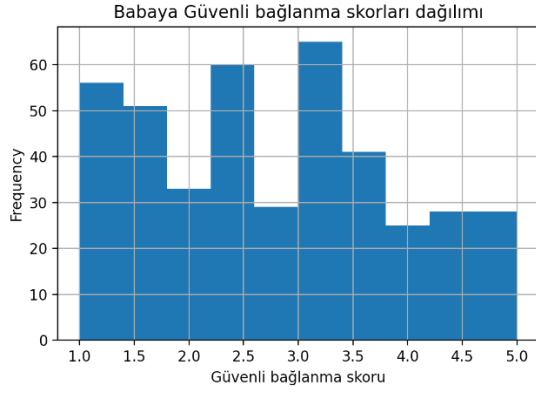


e

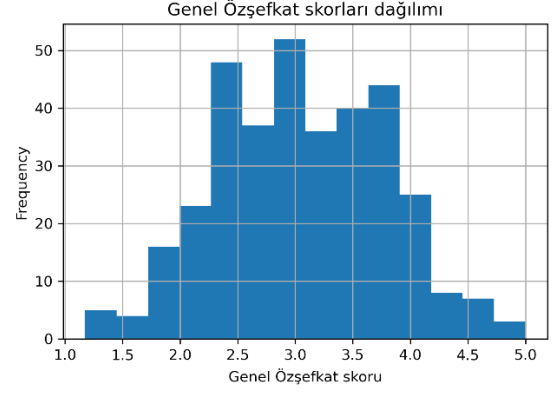


f

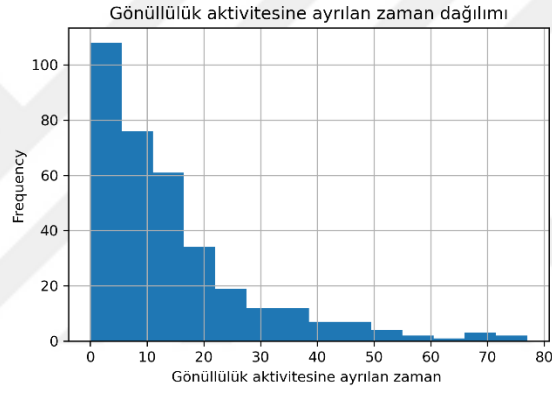
Figure 4.1. Histograms of Data Distribution



g



h



i

Figure 4.1. (cont.)

4.1.2. Descriptive Statistics

The descriptive statistics of the data that is included in the analyses and comprises 348 participants are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Descriptive Statistics of Participants

| Data Type | Count | Mean | Std.Dev. | Min | 25% | 50% | 75% | Max |
|----------------------------------|-------|--------|----------|------|------|-------|--------|------|
| <i>Secure_{mother}</i> | 348 | 2.2822 | 0.9818 | 1.00 | 1.50 | 2.25 | 3.00 | 5.00 |
| <i>Anxious_{mother}</i> | 348 | 2.3789 | 1.0522 | 1.00 | 1.50 | 2.25 | 3.00 | 5.00 |
| <i>Avoidant_{mother}</i> | 348 | 3.3925 | 1.0366 | 1.00 | 2.50 | 3.50 | 4.25 | 5.00 |
| <i>Secure_{father}</i> | 348 | 2.0093 | 1.0130 | 1.00 | 1.00 | 1.75 | 2.50 | 5.00 |
| <i>Anxious_{father}</i> | 348 | 2.3481 | 0.9923 | 1.00 | 1.50 | 2.25 | 3.00 | 5.00 |
| <i>Avoidant_{father}</i> | 348 | 2.8073 | 1.1299 | 1.00 | 2.00 | 2.75 | 3.75 | 5.00 |
| <i>SelfCompassionLevel</i> | 348 | 3.0561 | 0.7334 | 1.17 | 2.46 | 3.05 | 3.625 | 5.00 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 348 | 13.785 | 14.502 | 0.00 | 4.00 | 9.00 | 19.000 | 77.0 |
| <i>Age</i> | 348 | 24.876 | 4.1687 | 17.0 | 22.0 | 24.00 | 27.000 | 35.0 |

The distribution of the attachment mother scores over all participants in a boxplot representation is below (See Figure 4.2.). It can clearly be observed that the participants have greater *Secure_{mother}* scores and lower *Anxious_{mother}* and *Avoidant_{mother}* scores on average.

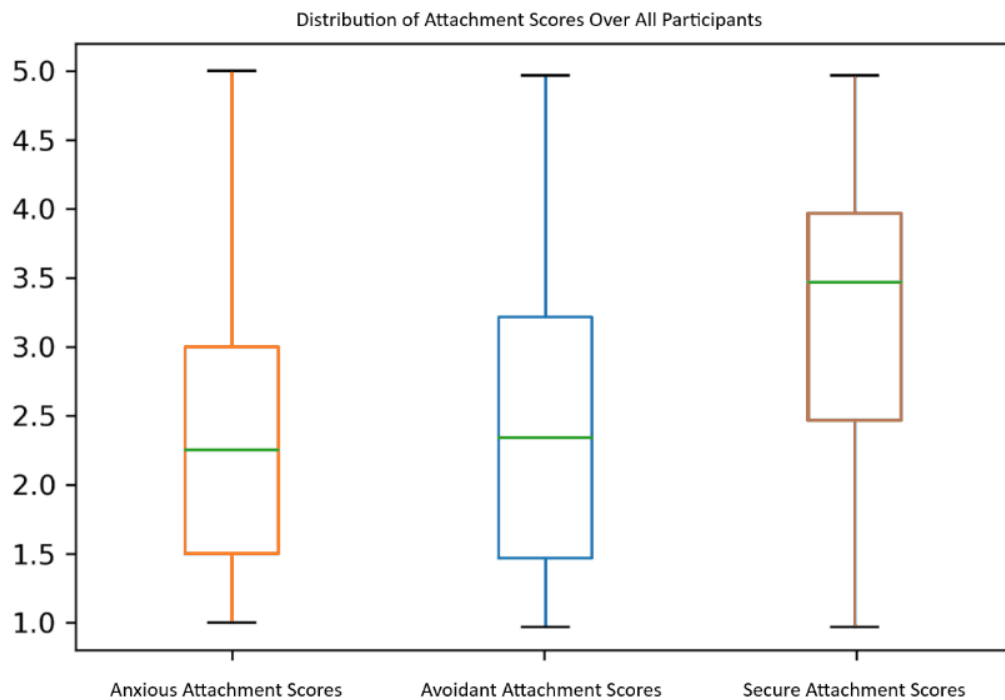


Figure 4.2. The Mother Attachment Scores of All Participants

The results of the correlation analyses among the mother attachment scores of participants are given in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3. Correlations Between Attachment Styles (Mother)

| Correlation | ρ | p-value |
|---|--------|---------|
| <i>Secure_{mother} - Anxious_{mother}</i> | 0.06 | 0.19 |
| <i>Secure_{mother} - Avoidant_{mother}</i> | -0.36 | <0.0005 |
| <i>Anxious_{mother} - Avoidant_{mother}</i> | 0.52 | <0.0005 |

There is a significant, moderate, and negative correlation between *Secure_{mother}* and *Avoidant_{mother}* scores. Moreover, *Anxious_{mother}* and *Avoidant_{mother}* scores are determined to be significantly and moderately correlated in a positive direction.

4.1.3. Grouping the Participants

The participants are separated into *SecurelyAttached* and *InsecurelyAttached* according to their attachment scores. The distribution of the participants over the groups based on mother attachment is given in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. The Distribution of Participants for Their Attachment Styles (Mother)

| Group | Number of Participants |
|--|------------------------|
| <i>SecurelyAttached_{mother}</i> | 115 |
| <i>InsecurelyAttached_{mother}</i> | 77 |
| <i>Ambiguous (neither groups)</i> | 156 |

4.2. Correlation Analyses Between Mother Attachment Scores – Self-Compassion Levels and Mother Attachment Scores – Volunteering Activity

The analyses in this part were applied to the participant groups that are *SecurelyAttached_{mother}*, *InsecurelyAttached_{mother}*, and all participants. The Pearson correlation coefficients and significance values of the relationships between the mother attachment scores and self-compassion levels, between the mother attachment scores and volunteering time, and also between self-compassion levels and volunteering time for each group are given in Tables 4.5., 4.6, and 4.7.

Table 4.5. Correlation Analyses Results in *SecurelyAttached_{mother}* Group

| 1. Variable | 2. Variable | ρ | p-value |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------|-------------------|
| <i>Secure_{mother}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | 0.07 | 0.47 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.07 | 0.44 |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | 0.00 | 0.99 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.05 | 0.67 |
| <i>Anxious_{mother}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | 0.01 | 0.90 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.03 | 0.69 |
| <i>Avoidant_{mother}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.01 | 0.89 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.02 | 0.78 |
| <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.46 | <0.0005 |

Table 4.6. Correlation Analyses Results in *Insecurely Attached_{mother}* Group

| 1. Variable | 2. Variable | ρ | p-value |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------|-------------------|
| <i>Secure_{mother}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | 0.04 | 0.70 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | -0.04 | 0.70 |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.47 | <0.0005 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | -0.18 | 0.18 |
| <i>Anxious_{mother}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.34 | 0.002 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | -0.15 | 0.18 |
| <i>Avoidant_{mother}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.31 | 0.005 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | -0.1 | 0.37 |
| <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.33 | 0.004 |

Table 4.7. Correlation Analyses Results in All Participants

| Variable 1 | Variable 2 | ρ | p-value |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------------|-------------------|
| <i>Secure_{mother}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | 0.12 | 0.01 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.06 | 0.20 |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.31 | <0.0005 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.04 | 0.44 |
| <i>Anxious_{mother}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.20 | <0.0005 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.06 | 0.18 |
| <i>Avoidant_{mother}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.27 | <0.0005 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.00 | 0.99 |
| <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.16 | 0.001 |

According to the tables above, there is no significant correlation between the mother attachment scores and self-compassion levels and no significant correlation between the mother attachment scores and volunteering time of the participants in the *SecurelyAttached_{mother}* group. There is a significant, moderate, and positive correlation between self-compassion levels and the volunteering time of participants in this group.

A significant, moderate, and negative correlation is determined between the scores representing the insecure mother attachment (*Insecure_{mother}*, *Anxious_{mother}*, and *Avoidant_{mother}*) and self-compassion levels of the participants in the *InsecurelyAttached_{mother}* group. There is no significant correlation between *Secure_{mother}* scores and self-compassion levels of the participants in the *InsecurelyAttached_{mother}* group. There is a significant correlation between self-compassion levels and volunteering time in this group.

Considering the results in which all participants were included in the analysis, it was seen that there was a significant correlation between all mother attachment scores and self-compassion levels. Among all mother attachment scores, the *Secure_{mother}* score, which expresses secure mother attachment, shows a positive but low correlation with the level of self-compassion. On the other hand, negative and close to moderate correlations are observed between the scores expressing insecure mother

attachment (*Insecure_{mother}*, *Anxious_{mother}*, and *Avoidant_{mother}*) and self-compassion levels. There is also a positive but low correlation between self-compassion levels and volunteering time in all participants.

4.3. Correlation Analyses Between Father Attachment Scores – Self-Compassion Levels and Father Attachment Scores – Volunteering Activity

The analyses in this part are applied to the participant groups that are *SecurelyAttached_{father}*, *InsecurelyAttached_{father}*, and all participants. The Pearson correlation coefficients and significance values of the relationships between the father attachment scores and self-compassion levels, between the father attachment scores and volunteering time, and also between self-compassion levels and volunteering time for each group are given in Tables 4.5., 4.6, and 4.7.

Table 4.8. Correlation Analyses Results in SecurelyAttached_{father} Group

| 1. Variable | 2. Variable | ρ | p-value |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------|---------|
| <i>Secure_{father}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | 0.05 | 0.64 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.12 | 0.28 |
| <i>Insecure_{father}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.18 | 0.18 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | -0.07 | 0.58 |
| <i>Anxious_{father}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.13 | 0.21 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | -0.02 | 0.82 |
| <i>Avoidant_{father}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.11 | 0.31 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | -0.08 | 0.48 |
| <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.51 | <0.0005 |

Table 4.9. Correlation Analyses Results in InsecurelyAttached_{father} Group

| 1. Variable | 2. Variable | ρ | p-value |
|----------------------------------|-----------------------------|--------|---------|
| <i>Secure_{father}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | 0.17 | 0.22 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.26 | 0.06 |
| <i>Insecure_{father}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.04 | 0.79 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | -0.04 | 0.82 |
| <i>Anxious_{father}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | 0.04 | 0.77 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.16 | 0.24 |
| <i>Avoidant_{father}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.10 | 0.48 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | -0.21 | 0.13 |
| <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.07 | 0.62 |

Table 4.10. Correlation Analyses Results in All Participants

| 1. Variable | 2. Variable | ρ | p-value |
|---|------------------------------------|--------------|-------------------|
| <i>Secure_{father}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | 0.20 | <0.0005 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.15 | 0.002 |
| <i>Insecure_{father}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.22 | <0.0005 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.10 | 0.07 |
| <i>Anxious_{father}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.10 | 0.038 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.11 | 0.02 |
| <i>Avoidant_{father}</i> | <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | -0.21 | <0.0005 |
| | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.04 | 0.46 |
| <i>Self-CompassionLevel</i> | <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.16 | 0.001 |

According to the tables above, there is no significant correlation between the father attachment scores and self-compassion levels and no significant correlation between the father attachment scores and volunteering time of the participants in the *SecurelyAttached_{father}* group. There is a significant, moderate, and positive correlation between self-compassion levels and the volunteering time of participants in this group.

There are no significant correlations between the scores representing the insecure father attachment ($Insecure_{mother}$, $Anxious_{mother}$, and $Avoidant_{mother}$) and self-compassion levels of the participants in the $InsecurelyAttached_{father}$ group. There is also no significant correlation between $Secure_{father}$ scores and self-compassion levels of the participants and between self-compassion levels and volunteering time in the $InsecurelyAttached_{father}$ group.

Considering the results in which all participants were included in the analysis, it was seen that there was a significant correlation between all father attachment scores and self-compassion levels. Among all father attachment scores, the $Secure_{father}$ score, which expresses secure father attachment, shows a positive but poor correlation with the level of self-compassion. On the other hand, negative and close to moderate correlations are observed between the scores expressing insecure father attachment ($Insecure_{father}$, $Anxious_{father}$, and $Avoidant_{father}$) and self-compassion levels. There is also a positive but low level of correlation between self-compassion levels and volunteering time in all participants.

4.4. Moderator Effect Analyses Based on Mother Attachment Scores in Insecurely Attached Participants: Multiple Linear Regression Models

The results of Multiple Stepwise Regression models designed and stated in the methodology part of this study are given below. See Table 4.11., 4.12, and 4.13.

Table 4.11. The Model that Uses $Anxious_{mother}$ Score as Predictor Variable

| | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------------|
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.199 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.0002 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| | (β) | | | | |
| <i>$Anxious_{mother}$</i> | -0.26 | 0.015 | -0.474 | -0.052 | 0.106 |
| <i>$VolunteeringTime$</i> | 0.41 | 0.002 | 0.158 | 0.666 | 0.127 |
| <i>$Interaction Term$</i> | 0.21* | 0.082 | -0.028 | 0.457 | 0.122 |

Table 4.12. The Model that Uses Avoidant_{mother} Score as Predictor Variable

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.199 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.0002 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Avoidant_{mother}</i> | -0.3 | 0.004 | -0.509 | -0.099 | 0.103 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.39 | 0.001 | 0.172 | 0.628 | 0.114 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.21** | 0.048 | 0.002 | 0.428 | 0.107 |

Table 4.13. The Model that Uses Insecure_{mother} Score as Predictor Variable

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.251 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | <0.0001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.41 | 0.001 | -0.655 | -0.178 | 0.12 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.42 | 0.001 | 0.181 | 0.657 | 0.119 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.27** | 0.028 | 0.03 | 0.513 | 0.121 |

Results show that volunteering activities moderate the impact of insecure attachment on self-compassion levels. See Figure 4.3. Although the Interaction Term was statistically significant in the 90% confidence interval in the model where the *Anxious_{mother}* score is the predictor variable, it is seen that the Interaction Term is statistically significant in the 95% confidence interval in the other two models. Since it is suggested in the hypothetical model that volunteering time has a moderator role in insecurely attached individuals, the *Insecure_{mother}* score was considered as the score best expressing insecure mother attachment. In addition, since the *Insecure_{mother}* score was derived by taking the average of *Anxious_{mother}* and *Avoidant_{mother}* scores, it was also reflected in the regression analysis results that the *Insecure_{mother}* score could better express the insecure mother attachment. For this reason, it is examined if any of the data types collected from the participants is a

covariate variable by utilizing the model using $Insecure_{mother}$ as the predictor variable.

4.5. Effect of Potential Covariate Variables and Confounding Variables

The Stepwise Multiple Regression model is designed using age, sex, residential area, education status, financial status, and employment status, which are considered potential covariates. In this analysis, the two2 most widely used approaches to Stepwise Multiple Regression are used. Both approaches resulted in the same variables being statistically significant in the final case.

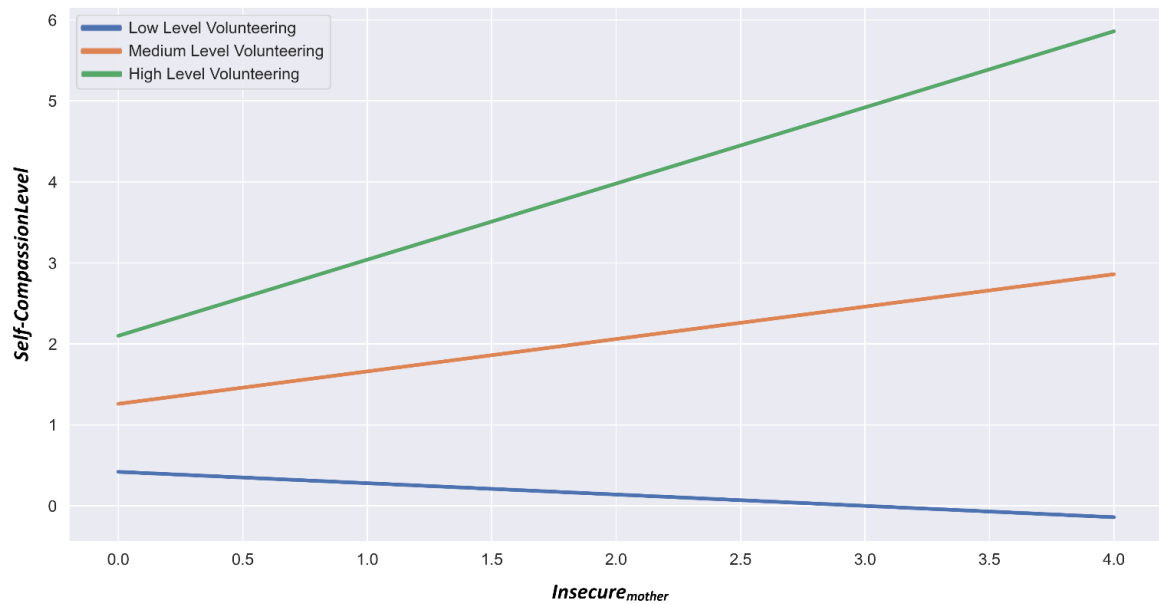


Figure 4.3. Moderation Effect of Volunteerism

The results of the Backward Elimination approach are given below. See Table 4.14. (An asterisk (*) sign is placed next to the most statistically insignificant variable in each step).

Table 4.14. Stepwise Analysis for Potential Covariates

| STEP 1 | | | | | |
|--------------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.267 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.0002 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.41 | 0.003 | -0.689 | -0.142 | 0.137 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.42 | 0.001 | 0.178 | 0.666 | 0.122 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.3 | 0.017 | 0.056 | 0.545 | 0.122 |
| <i>Age</i> | 0.008 | 0.95 | -0.246 | 0.262 | 0.127 |
| <i>Sex (Being Female)</i> | -0.09 | 0.456 | -0.346 | 0.157 | 0.126 |
| <i>Living in a Bigger City</i> | 0.09 | 0.374 | -0.115 | 0.302 | 0.104 |
| <i>Higher Education</i> | -0.02 | 0.836 | -0.258 | 0.209 | 0.117 |
| <i>Better Economical Status*</i> | 0.002 | 0.982 | -0.215 | 0.22 | 0.109 |
| <i>Being Employed</i> | 0.22 | 0.071 | -0.02 | 0.46 | 0.12 |
| STEP 2 | | | | | |
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.278 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.0001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.4154 | 0.003 | -0.686 | -0.145 | 0.136 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.422 | 0.001 | 0.181 | 0.663 | 0.121 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.3003 | 0.016 | 0.059 | 0.542 | 0.121 |
| <i>Age*</i> | 0.0088 | 0.942 | -0.234 | 0.251 | 0.122 |
| <i>Sex (Being Female)</i> | -0.0941 | 0.449 | -0.341 | 0.152 | 0.124 |
| <i>Living in a Bigger City</i> | 0.094 | 0.355 | -0.107 | 0.295 | 0.101 |
| <i>Higher Education</i> | -0.0248 | 0.829 | -0.253 | 0.203 | 0.114 |
| <i>Being Employed</i> | 0.2209 | 0.064 | -0.013 | 0.455 | 0.117 |

Table 4.14. (cont.)

| STEP 3 | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.288 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | <0.0001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.4157 | 0.003 | -0.684 | -0.147 | 0.135 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.423 | 0.001 | 0.185 | 0.661 | 0.119 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.3005 | 0.015 | 0.061 | 0.54 | 0.12 |
| <i>Sex (Being Female)</i> | -0.0976 | 0.391 | -0.323 | 0.128 | 0.113 |
| <i>Living in a Bigger City</i> | 0.0938 | 0.352 | -0.106 | 0.293 | 0.1 |
| <i>Higher Education*</i> | -0.0228 | 0.837 | -0.242 | 0.197 | 0.11 |
| <i>Being Employed</i> | 0.2227 | 0.055 | -0.005 | 0.45 | 0.114 |
| STEP 4 | | | | | |
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.298 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | <0.0001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.4192 | 0.002 | -0.684 | -0.155 | 0.133 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.4181 | 0.001 | 0.187 | 0.649 | 0.116 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.2999 | 0.014 | 0.062 | 0.538 | 0.119 |
| <i>Sex (Being Female)*</i> | -0.097 | 0.39 | -0.321 | 0.127 | 0.112 |
| <i>Living in a Bigger City</i> | 0.097 | 0.327 | -0.099 | 0.293 | 0.098 |
| <i>Being Employed</i> | 0.214 | 0.046 | 0.004 | 0.424 | 0.105 |
| STEP 5 | | | | | |
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.3 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | <0.0001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.4708 | <0.001 | -0.706 | -0.235 | 0.118 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.4095 | 0.001 | 0.18 | 0.639 | 0.115 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.3117 | 0.01 | 0.076 | 0.548 | 0.118 |

Table 4.14. (cont.)

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------------|
| <i>Living in a Bigger City*</i> | 0.082 | 0.398 | -0.11 | 0.274 | 0.096 |
| <i>Being Employed</i> | 0.2467 | 0.014 | 0.051 | 0.442 | 0.098 |
| STEP 6 | | | | | |
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.303 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | <0.0001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.4765 | <0.001 | -0.711 | -0.242 | 0.118 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.4099 | 0.001 | 0.18 | 0.639 | 0.115 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.3008 | 0.013 | 0.067 | 0.535 | 0.118 |
| <i>Being Employed</i> | 0.2501 | 0.013 | 0.055 | 0.445 | 0.098 |

According to the Stepwise Multiple Regression model, the results of which were given above, employment status is in a positive and significant relationship with the self-compassion levels of the individuals in the *InsecurelyAttached_{mother}* group. However, since this variable does not negatively affect the significance level of the Interaction Term, the *Being Employed* variable is thought to be only a covariate variable that does not have a moderator effect. In other words, employment status is not a variable that moderates the relationship between insecure attachment and self-compassion level. In order to better express this situation statistically, the following model was established. See Figure 4.4.

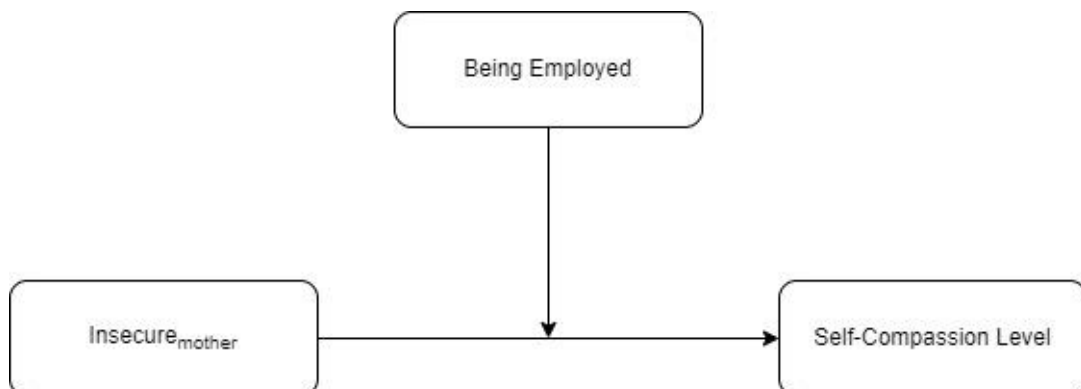


Figure 4.4. The Model of Moderation Effect of Being Employed

$$SelfCompassionLevel = \beta_1 Insecure_{mother} + \beta_2 BeingEmployed + \beta_3 Insecure_{mother} \times BeingEmployed$$

The following results were obtained by establishing the above model and examining the moderator effect of working in a job of the individuals in the *InsecurelyAttached_{mother}* group. See Table 4.15.

Table 4.15. The Moderation Analysis for Being Employed

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.251 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | <0.0001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.5598 | <0.001 | -0.819 | -0.301 | 0.13 |
| <i>Being Employed</i> | 0.2412 | 0.025 | 0.032 | 0.451 | 0.105 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.0804 | 0.47 | -0.14 | 0.301 | 0.111 |

According to the results above, the *BeingEmployed* variable does not have any moderator effect on the relationship between the level of insecure mother attachment and the level of self-compassion.

Moreover, it was checked whether the *BeingEmployed* variable was a confounding factor because only the *BeingEmployed* was associated with self-compassion. In order for the *BeingEmployed* to be confounding, it must also be associated with volunteering. According to the result of the correlation analysis between *BeingEmployed* and *VolunteeringTime*, no significant correlation was found between the two variables (p-value=0.55, correlation coefficient=0.07). Therefore, the *BeingEmployed* variable is not a confounding factor.

4.6. Rescaling the Time Spent on the Volunteering Activities

Moderator analysis was performed again using the rescaled volunteering frequencies described in the Methodology section. Likewise, the diagram and results of 3 different Multiple Linear Regression models using *Anxious_{mother}*, *Avoidant_{mother}*, and *Insecure_{mother}* scores as predictor variables are given below. See Figure 4.5. for the diagram and Tables 4.16, 4.17, and 4.18 for results.

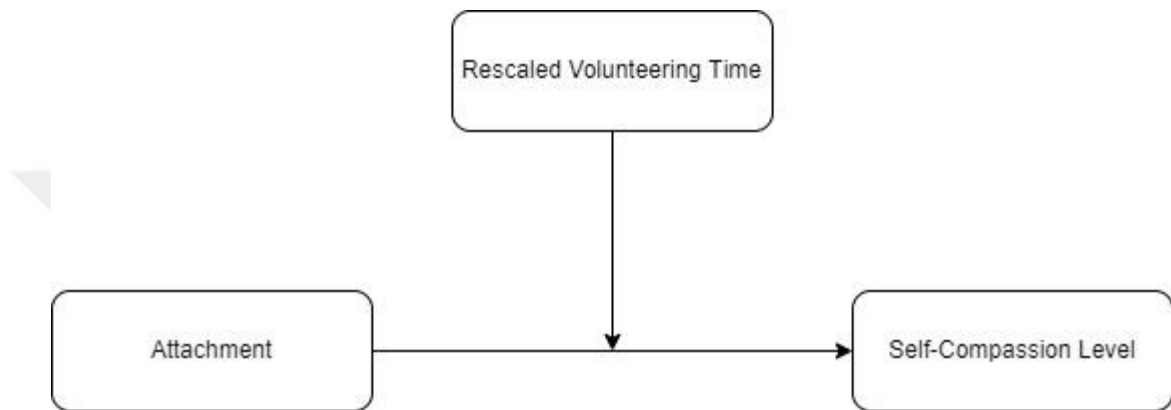


Figure 4.5. The Moderation Analysis for Rescaled Volunteering Time

Table 4.16. The Model that Uses *Anxious_{mother}* Score as Predictor Variable

| | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.184 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.0004 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Anxious_{mother}</i> | -0.21 | 0.064 | -0.437 | 0.013 | 0.113 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime_{rescaled}</i> | 0.6 | 0.004 | 0.2 | 1.019 | 0.206 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.44 | 0.02 | 0.071 | 0.818 | 0.187 |

Table 4.17. The Model that Uses Avoidant_{mother} Score as Predictor Variable

| | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.169 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.0007 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Avoidant_{mother}</i> | -0.26 | 0.01 | -0.48 | -0.06 | 0.105 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime_{rescaled}</i> | 0.45 | 0.003 | 0.16 | 0.756 | 0.15 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.27 | 0.02 | 0.04 | 0.504 | 0.116 |

Table 4.18. The Model that Uses Insecure_{mother} Score as Predictor Variable

| | | | | | |
|--|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 77 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.251 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | <0.0001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.37 | 0.003 | -0.626 | -0.131 | 0.124 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime_{rescaled}</i> | 0.55 | 0.002 | 0.206 | 0.897 | 0.173 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.4 | 0.009 | 0.104 | 0.706 | 0.151 |

Re-scaling the frequency levels of volunteering activity to fall on the actual number of days revealed the moderator effect more significantly and stronger in all three models.

4.7. The Role of Volunteering Motivation on the Moderator Effect

The effect of performing volunteering activities with different motivations was examined. Since 18 people in the *InsecurelyAttached_{mother}* group did not do any volunteering activity, there was no motivation to volunteer. Therefore, this model was created with 59 samples, and the results are below. See Table 4.19.

Table 4.19. Stepwise Analysis for the Effect of Volunteering Motivations

| STEP 1 | | | | | |
|---|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 59 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.248 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.005 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.5216 | 0.003 | -0.854 | -0.189 | 0.166 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.3795 | 0.024 | 0.052 | 0.707 | 0.163 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.1782 | 0.451 | -0.293 | 0.649 | 0.234 |
| <i>Interaction_{protective}</i> | -0.6888 | 0.118 | -1.558 | 0.181 | 0.433 |
| <i>Interaction_{career}</i> | -0.3563 | 0.49 | -1.385 | 0.673 | 0.512 |
| <i>Interaction_{values}</i> | 0.6195 | 0.219 | -0.381 | 1.62 | 0.498 |
| <i>Interaction_{social}</i> | 0.5842 | 0.202 | -0.323 | 1.491 | 0.451 |
| <i>Interaction_{understanding}*</i> | -0.0419 | 0.943 | -1.204 | 1.12 | 0.578 |
| <i>Interaction_{religious}</i> | -0.1972 | 0.528 | -0.82 | 0.426 | 0.31 |
| <i>Interaction_{enhancement}</i> | 0.2058 | 0.563 | -0.505 | 0.916 | 0.354 |
| STEP 2 | | | | | |
| # of Observations | 59 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.263 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.002 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.5235 | 0.002 | -0.849 | -0.198 | 0.162 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.3768 | 0.02 | 0.061 | 0.692 | 0.157 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.1734 | 0.439 | -0.273 | 0.62 | 0.222 |
| <i>Interaction_{protective}</i> | -0.6936 | 0.108 | -1.544 | 0.157 | 0.423 |
| <i>Interaction_{career}</i> | -0.353 | 0.488 | -1.367 | 0.661 | 0.505 |
| <i>Interaction_{values}</i> | 0.5937 | 0.092 | -0.101 | 1.288 | 0.346 |
| <i>Interaction_{social}</i> | 0.5797 | 0.196 | -0.309 | 1.469 | 0.443 |
| <i>Interaction_{religious}</i> | -0.2001 | 0.514 | -0.811 | 0.411 | 0.304 |
| <i>Interaction_{enhancement}*</i> | 0.2017 | 0.562 | -0.492 | 0.896 | 0.345 |

Table 4.19. (cont.)

STEP 3

| # of Observations | 59 | | | | |
|---|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.272 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.5246 | 0.002 | -0.848 | -0.202 | 0.161 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.3877 | 0.016 | 0.077 | 0.699 | 0.155 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.1006 | 0.585 | -0.267 | 0.468 | 0.183 |
| <i>Interaction_{protective}</i> | -0.6333 | 0.127 | -1.452 | 0.185 | 0.408 |
| <i>Interaction_{career}*</i> | -0.1967 | 0.646 | -1.051 | 0.657 | 0.425 |
| <i>Interaction_{values}</i> | 0.6031 | 0.085 | -0.086 | 1.292 | 0.343 |
| <i>Interaction_{social}</i> | 0.522 | 0.229 | -0.339 | 1.383 | 0.429 |
| <i>Interaction_{religious}</i> | -0.1509 | 0.606 | -0.734 | 0.432 | 0.29 |

STEP 4

| # of Observations | 59 | | | | |
|---|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.283 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.0007 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.5384 | 0.001 | -0.853 | -0.224 | 0.157 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.3811 | 0.016 | 0.074 | 0.688 | 0.153 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.1413 | 0.379 | -0.179 | 0.461 | 0.159 |
| <i>Interaction_{protective}</i> | -0.7721 | 0.007 | -1.322 | -0.222 | 0.274 |
| <i>Interaction_{values}</i> | 0.6745 | 0.031 | 0.064 | 1.285 | 0.304 |
| <i>Interaction_{social}</i> | 0.3411 | 0.055 | -0.008 | 0.69 | 0.174 |
| <i>Interaction_{religious}*</i> | -0.0999 | 0.709 | -0.635 | 0.435 | 0.267 |

STEP 5

| | | | | | |
|---------------------------|--------|--|--|--|--|
| # of Observations | 59 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.295 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.0003 | | | | |

Table 4.19. (cont.)

| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
|---|----------------------------|---------|---------|---------|----------------|
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.5208 | 0.001 | -0.819 | -0.223 | 0.148 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.3978 | 0.008 | 0.106 | 0.689 | 0.145 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.1651 | 0.26 | -0.126 | 0.456 | 0.145 |
| <i>Interaction_{protective}</i> | -0.8039 | 0.003 | -1.323 | -0.285 | 0.259 |
| <i>Interaction_{values}</i> | 0.6348 | 0.029 | 0.067 | 1.202 | 0.283 |
| <i>Interaction_{social}</i> | 0.3558 | 0.039 | 0.018 | 0.693 | 0.168 |

Insignificant parameters were removed from the model until all motivation-based Interaction Terms were statistically significant. According to the results obtained, performing the volunteering activity with protective motivation increases the negative effect of the *Insecure_{mother}* score significantly on the self-compassion level. On the other hand, performing the volunteering activity with values and social motivation significantly reduces the negative effect of the *Insecure_{mother}* score on the self-compassion level.

4.8. The Difference in Motivations Beneath Performing Volunteering Activities Between Securely Attached Individuals and Insecurely Attached Individuals

Independent Samples t-Test was conducted to understand whether the motivations of individuals to participate in volunteering activity differ according to whether they are in the *SecurelyAttached_{mother}* or *InsecurelyAttached_{mother}* group. Table 4.20. shows the obtained results.

Table 4.20. The Analysis for Motivational Difference Between Both Attachment Groups

| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
|---------------|------------------------------------|---|-------|------------------------------|-----|-----------------|------------|-----------------|--------|------|
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Diff. | Std. Err. Diff. | 95% CI | |
| | | | | | | | | | Low | Upp |
| Protective | Equal variances assumed | 1.264 | 0.263 | -1.32 | 136 | 0.188 | -0.22 | 0.17 | -0.56 | 0.11 |
| | Equal variances <i>not</i> assumed | | | -1.34 | 132 | 0.181 | -0.22 | 0.16 | -0.56 | 0.10 |
| Values | Equal variances assumed | 0.418 | 0.519 | 1.23 | 136 | 0.219 | 0.21 | 0.17 | -0.12 | 0.55 |
| | Equal variances <i>not</i> assumed | | | 1.21 | 115 | 0.228 | 0.21 | 0.17 | -0.13 | 0.55 |
| Career | Equal variances assumed | 2.446 | 0.120 | -0.41 | 136 | 0.680 | -0.07 | 0.17 | -0.41 | 0.26 |
| | Equal variances <i>not</i> assumed | | | -0.42 | 133 | 0.673 | -0.07 | 0.16 | -0.40 | 0.26 |
| Social | Equal variances assumed | 0.000 | 0.998 | 1.39 | 136 | 0.165 | 0.23 | 0.17 | -0.09 | 0.57 |
| | Equal variances <i>not</i> assumed | | | 1.40 | 127 | 0.164 | 0.23 | 0.17 | -0.09 | 0.57 |
| Understanding | Equal variances assumed | 1.828 | 0.179 | -0.70 | 136 | 0.484 | -0.12 | 0.17 | -0.46 | 0.21 |
| | Equal variances <i>not</i> assumed | | | -0.72 | 134 | 0.472 | -0.12 | 0.16 | -0.45 | 0.21 |
| Enhancement | Equal variances assumed | 2.498 | 0.116 | 0.24 | 136 | 0.805 | 0.04 | 0.17 | -0.29 | 0.38 |
| | Equal variances <i>not</i> assumed | | | 0.24 | 115 | 0.809 | 0.04 | 0.17 | -0.30 | 0.39 |
| Religious | Equal variances assumed | 0.122 | 0.727 | -0.46 | 136 | 0.642 | -0.08 | 0.17 | -0.42 | 0.26 |
| | Equal variances <i>not</i> assumed | | | -0.47 | 128 | 0.639 | -0.08 | 0.17 | -0.41 | 0.25 |

According to the result of Levene's test, all variables have equal variance distribution in both groups. When the 2-tailed significance score is examined, it is seen that no volunteering motivation differs significantly between *SecurelyAttached_{mother}* and *InsecurelyAttached_{mother}* groups.

4.9. Moderator Effect Analyses in Securely Attached Participants: Multiple Linear Regression Models

The Multiple Linear Regression model described below was used to determine whether the volunteering activity frequencies moderated the relationship between the *Insecure_{mother}* score and self-compassion level in *SecurelyAttached_{mother}* individuals. The results obtained are shown in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21. The Model that Uses Insecure_{mother} Score as Predictor Variable for Securely Attached Participants

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 102 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.188 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | <0.0001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{mother}</i> | -0.0273 | 0.815 | -0.258 | 0.203 | 0.116 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.46 | <0.001 | 0.283 | 0.637 | 0.089 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | -0.0148 | 0.911 | -0.278 | 0.249 | 0.133 |

According to the model's result in the Insecure_{mother} score, volunteering time does not have a significant moderator role in *SecurelyAttached_{mother}* individuals.

The model created with the *Secure_{mother}* score, whose results are below (Table 4.22.), also shows that the duration of participation in the volunteering activity does not have a significant moderator effect on individuals in the *SecurelyAttached_{mother}* group.

Table 4.22. The Model that Uses Secure_{mother} Score as Predictor Variable for Securely Attached Participants

| | | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 102 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.193 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | <0.0001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Secure_{mother}</i> | 0.0499 | 0.585 | -0.131 | 0.231 | 0.091 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.4368 | 0 | 0.253 | 0.621 | 0.093 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.0804 | 0.444 | -0.127 | 0.288 | 0.105 |

4.10. Moderator Effect Analyses Based on Father Attachment Scores in Insecurely Attached Participants: Multiple Linear Regression Models

The participants are grouped according to their father's attachment levels, as described in the methodology section. After the grouping operation, the number of participants in each group is given below. See Table 4.23.

Table 4.23. The Distribution of Participants for Their Attachment Styles (Father)

| Group | <i>Number of participants</i> |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| <i>SecurelyAttached_{father}</i> | 80 |
| <i>InsecurelyAttached_{father}</i> | 49 |
| <i>Ambiguous (neither group)</i> | 219 |

In order to examine the moderator effect of the time allocated to volunteering activity on the relationship between *Insecure_{father}* score and self-compassion level in individuals in *InsecurelyAttached_{father}* group, 3 Multiple Linear Regression models using different attachment scores were created. See Table 4.24., Table 4.25 and Table 4.26.

Table 4.24. The Model that Uses *Anxious_{father}* Score as Predictor Variable

| | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 49 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | -0.027 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.64 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Anxious_{father}</i> | -0.1746 | 0.24 | -0.47 | 0.12 | 0.147 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.0955 | 0.522 | -0.202 | 0.393 | 0.148 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.0314 | 0.839 | -0.278 | 0.341 | 0.154 |

Table 4.25. The Model that Uses *Avoidant_{father}* Score as Predictor Variable

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 49 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.004 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.371 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Avoidant_{father}</i> | -0.2452 | 0.112 | -0.549 | 0.059 | 0.151 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.0748 | 0.603 | -0.212 | 0.362 | 0.143 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.0011 | 0.993 | -0.253 | 0.255 | 0.126 |

Table 4.26. The Model that Uses *Insecure_{father}* Score as Predictor Variable

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 49 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.006 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | 0.356 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{father}</i> | -0.3045 | 0.091 | -0.659 | 0.05 | 0.176 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.0949 | 0.511 | -0.194 | 0.383 | 0.143 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.0304 | 0.841 | -0.272 | 0.333 | 0.15 |

The moderator analysis results above show that volunteering activity did not have a significant moderator role for individuals in the *InsecurelyAttached_{father}* group. Not

only the interaction terms expressing the moderator role, but also the scores expressing the participation time in the volunteering activity and insecure attachment do not seem to be statistically significant. The prob(f-statistics) value, which expresses the general significance of the regression models, indicates that all three models are insignificant.

It was also examined whether the duration of participation in volunteering activities had a moderator effect on the relationship between the *Insecure_{father}* score and the level of self-compassion in individuals in the *SecurelyAttached_{father}* group.

According to the results obtained below (See Table 4.27.), there is a significant and negative relationship between the *Insecure_{father}* score, which expresses insecure father attachment, and the self-compassion level. Also, there is a significant and positive relationship between the time devoted to volunteering activities and the level of self-compassion. However, there was no significant moderator effect on the time devoted to volunteering activities.

Table 4.27. The Model that Uses *Insecure_{father}* Score as Predictor Variable for Securely Attached Participants

| | | | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| # of Observations | 80 | | | | |
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.339 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | <0.0001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Insecure_{father}</i> | -0.3721 | 0.001 | -0.59 | -0.154 | 0.109 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.5098 | <0.001 | 0.324 | 0.696 | 0.093 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | -0.1288 | 0.335 | -0.393 | 0.136 | 0.133 |

According to the model created with the *Secure_{father}* score, the results of which are below (Table 4.28.), the duration of participation in the volunteering activity does not have a significant moderator effect on individuals in *SecurelyAttached_{father}* group.

Table 4.28. The Model that Uses $Secure_{father}$ Score as Predictor Variable for Securely Attached Participants

| # of Observations | 102 | | | | |
|--------------------------------|---|----------------|----------------|----------------|---------------------------|
| Adjusted R-Squared | 0.193 | | | | |
| Prob(F-Statistics) | <0.0001 | | | | |
| Variables | Coefficient (β) | p-value | [0.025] | [0.975] | Standard Error |
| <i>Secure_{father}</i> | 0.0499 | 0.585 | -0.131 | 0.231 | 0.091 |
| <i>VolunteeringTime</i> | 0.4368 | 0 | 0.253 | 0.621 | 0.093 |
| <i>Interaction Term</i> | 0.0804 | 0.444 | -0.127 | 0.288 | 0.105 |



CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In this section, the research findings are discussed in light of the existing literature. In addition to this, the research contributions and limitations will be discussed, and suggestions for future research are offered.

5.1. Examining Correlations Between Attachment Style, Self-compassion, and Volunteerism

5.1.1. Relationship Between Attachment Style and Self-compassion

As a result of the research, most of the expected correlational relationships were observed for the scores of insecure attachment to the mother. First of all, when the scores of all participants were evaluated, a significant negative moderate correlation was found between insecure attachment styles to the mother and the level of self-compassion. In addition to that, a significant but weak positive correlation was found between secure attachment to the mother and self-compassion. These findings are consistent with the results of other correlational studies on the attachment-self-compassion relationship (K. D. Neff & McGehee, 2010; Başer Baykal et al., 2019; Bayar & Tuzgöl Dost, 2018). Likewise, when considered on a group basis, a significant negative relationship was found between insecure attachment styles and self-compassion levels in the group of participants with insecure attachment to their mothers.

These findings are in line with Pepping et al.'s (2015) significant experimental research on the attachment-self-compassion relationship. Based on the social mentality theory, Pepping et al. (2015) stated that self-compassion skill develops in early childhood depending on relationships with parents. They stated that attachment styles are shaped according to relationships with caregivers in early childhood, too;

for this reason, the relationship between attachment styles and self-compassion is inevitable.

Moreover, Gilbert and Procter (2006) stated that when children are insecurely attached, they stop exploring the environment, excessively focus on their own mistakes, and criticize themselves. Children with insecure attachment do not feel safe and constantly review their own behavior and try not to make mistakes in order to survive from an evolutionary point of view (Gilbert & Procter, 2006) because a mistake they make can cause them to be alone and risk their lives. The evolutionary perspective states that insecure attachment can also be adaptive for the child depending on the environmental condition (Sakman & Sümer, 2018). In an insecure environment, the child can survive thanks to insecure attachment styles; however, this requires the child to be always on alert and cannot deny the negative consequences of insecure attachment. As a result, insecurely attached children's excessive focus on their mistakes can increase self-criticism and decrease their level of self-compassion.

On the other hand, no significant correlations were found regarding the relationship between attachment and self-compassion levels in the group with secure attachment to the mother. At this point, the reason why this finding is not consistent with the hypothesis may be due to the adaptation of the attachment scale. In particular, it should be taken into account that the adaptation of the attachment scale translated by the researcher into Turkish has not been adapted to the Turkish population. Another possible reason could be that the method adopted by the researcher when grouping the participants into securely attached and insecurely attached groups may not have been sufficiently precise. Finally, the low level of participants in the study may also be contributing to the inability to demonstrate this relationship.

Furthermore, when the father attachment scores were examined, no significant correlation was found in the securely attached group, as was the case with the mother attachment scores. However, no significant relationship was found between attachment and self-compassion levels in the group with insecure attachment to the father, unlike the mother. These findings can be explained by the fact that most of the participants stated their mothers as their primary caregivers during their childhood

(0-14) in the demographic information form. It can be said that in families where the mother serves as the primary caretaker, the relationship with the mother will have a stronger relationship with the internal psychological factors for individuals. When the father attachment scores of all participants were examined, a positive relationship was found between secure attachment and self-compassion and a negative relationship between insecure attachment styles and self-compassion levels.

5.1.2. Relationship Between Attachment Style and Volunteerism

According to the hypotheses, secure attachment has a positive relationship with time devoted to volunteering, avoidant attachment has a negative relationship, while anxious attachment does not have a significant relationship. However, in this study, no significant relationship was found between secure attachment types (to both mother and father) and the time devoted to volunteering.

These findings are also inconsistent with the literature. Gillath et al. (2005) experimentally proved the positive effect of secure attachment on volunteerism. Mikulincer and Gillath (2002), on the other hand, found that individuals' secure attachment promoted their empathic response to others. Likewise, based on their previous research, Mikulincer and Shaver (2005) claimed that secure attachment, which is both dispositional and induced in lab environments, promotes altruistic behaviors. Similarly, other studies have revealed that secure attachment supports some factors such as prosocial behaviors, empathy, and perspective-taking, which are thought to increase voluntariness (Malonda et al., 2019; Shi et al., 2020; Richman et al., 2015; Ştefan & Avram, 2019).

There are several potential reasons why there is no significant relationship between attachment styles and the time devoted to volunteering activities. Firstly, the volunteering questionnaire includes many activities not commonly performed among the Turkish population. Therefore, the majority of the participants attend virtually no volunteering activity, and these participants may manipulate the data in such a way that the relationship stays latent. Secondly, the ASPA may not represent the attachment styles of the Turkish population perfectly due to cultural differences. Besides, the group representing the securely attached individuals could not be

formed perfectly. Thus, noisy data may produce misleading results. Lastly, although the amount of data in this study is enough to infer the associations on a broader scale, the number of the participants included specifically in this correlational analysis (70 out of 418) may not be sufficient to reveal the association between attachment styles and volunteering.

5.1.3. Relationship Between Self-compassion and Volunteerism

Considering the relationship between volunteering and self-compassion, a significant positive relationship was found between the time devoted to volunteering and self-compassion levels, as was predicted by the hypothesis.

The literature supports this finding. Breines and Chen (2013) observed that as a result of their experimental studies, by increasing the support-giving schemes of the participants, the situational self-compassion levels of the participants who activated the schemes also increased. Based on these findings, they concluded that the way to show self-compassion is to show compassion to others. Again, as a result of Lindsay and Creswell's (2014) experimental studies, they observed that individuals with high self-compassion helped others in the lab environment. In many relational studies, it was found that the level of self-compassion was positively associated with prosocial behavior (Yang et al., 2019; Marshall et al., 2019), other focused concerns (K. D. Neff & Pommier, 2013), helping intention (Welp & Brown, 2014), and compassionate goals (Crocker & Canevello, 2008).

5.2. Examining the Moderator Effect of Volunteerism on the Relationship Between Attachment and Self-compassion

In order to examine the moderator role of volunteering activities, the insecurely attached (to mother) group was included in the moderator analysis, and the anxious attachment score, avoidant attachment score, and total insecure attachment score of the participants in this group were analyzed separately. Consistent with the predictions, it was found that the time devoted to volunteering activities played a moderator role in the effect of insecure attachment styles to the mother on the level of self-compassion. In other words, insecurely attached individuals had higher levels

of self-compassion when they volunteered than those who did not. This finding shows that volunteering activities compensate for their effects on insecure attachment styles and self-compassion levels, and is in line with the last and main hypothesis of this study. Based on this result, therapists working with individuals who criticize themselves harshly and feel disconnected from society may suggest volunteering activities to increase the level of self-compassion. This finding may also indicate that volunteering activities can also positively affect the other psychological factors of the individual, despite various disadvantages.

Social mentality theory (Gilbert, 1989) can be helpful in explaining the moderator role of volunteering. According to the social mentality theory, an individual establishes a relationship with him/herself through their relationships with others. If an individual can establish a healthy care-seeking and care-giving relationship with others, he/she can establish a healthy and secure caring relationship with himself. When we evaluate self-compassion in the context of this theory, the fact that an individual receives compassion from others when he/she needs compassion enables him/her the ability to display self-compassion when he/she needs it. This may be attributed to a healthy internalization of their early attachment to their caregiver that has given them the capacity to do this for themselves in their adulthood. As explained earlier, it was concluded that securely attached participants received more consistent and continuous care from their caregivers. Therefore, insecurely attached individuals are expected to have low levels of self-compassion as was demonstrated by our research. However, when volunteerism is considered for such individuals that regularly display acts of compassion through volunteerism for others, it is seen that they are then able to extend this compassion toward themselves as a corrective experience.

These findings are also consistent with the results of Gillath et al.'s (2005) research in which they examined the moderator role of volunteering. According to their results, anxiously attached participants who reported fewer volunteering activities experienced more loneliness. In other words, it was found that volunteering significantly moderated the relationship between anxious attachment and loneliness. At this point, less loneliness is an outcome of volunteering activities, and although individuals have an anxious attachment style, they have been able to benefit from

this outcome of volunteering when they engage in volunteering activities. Likewise, in this study, individuals benefited from possible psychological outcomes of volunteering activities despite their insecure attachment. Unlike in this study, it was observed that the level of self-compassion increased when volunteering activities were performed despite insecure attachment styles. In this way, this research has been one of the studies showing that volunteering activities are effective in protecting the psychological factors exposed to the negative effects of insecure attachment. Another difference and contribution of this research are that parental attachment was measured. Most research by Gillath et al. (2005) on the relationship between volunteering and attachment is based on adult attachment. This research has shown that parental attachment can still affect psychological factors in adult life. This may be because, as Fraley (2002) found in his meta-analysis to determine the stability of attachment style, people's parental attachment style highly shapes their attachment styles for the rest of their lives.

In this study, for the first time, the relationship between volunteering, self-compassion, and attachment types was examined, and a moderator analysis was performed. Thus, the research opened a new window on the contribution of volunteering to human well-being. This research also supports the few studies in the literature showing that an individual's relationship with others can also affect his relationship with himself.

In addition to all these, it was concluded that the moderator effect of volunteering was even stronger when the volunteer scale was rescaled. It was considered more reasonable to calculate the time devoted to volunteering activities as 365 (almost every day) - 1 (once a year) rather than 1 (once a year) - 7 (almost every day). Because in the original scaling, the person who volunteered every day in one activity and the person who participated in the seven volunteer activities only once a year had the same score. When the scoring was done on the actual number of days, it was observed that volunteering actually reduced the negative effect of insecure attachment on self-compassion much more.

On the other hand, when looking at father attachment, no moderator effect of volunteer activities was found in both securely attached and insecurely attached

groups. This may be because, as stated before, very few of the participants mostly receive care from fathers in the 0-14 age range. When the primary caregiver is not the father, attachment to the father may not be effective on psychological factors. In addition, there are more participants who are eliminated from groups with secure and insecure attachments because there are more ambiguous answers when grouping father attachments. For this reason, since there were few participants in the group with insecure father attachment (n: 77), no significant results could be found in the moderator model, which was established with father attachment scores.

5.3. The Role of Volunteer Motivations in the Moderator Effect of Volunteerism

In this study, volunteer motivation types were also investigated in order to see the difference between the volunteer motivations of those with secure and insecure attachments and to examine whether the moderator effect of volunteering changes according to the type of motivation.

First of all, there is no significant difference in motivation between securely attached and insecurely attached participants in volunteering activities. In this context, all of the analyzes were made with attachment to the mother because the moderator effect of volunteering was not found in the model in which attachment to the father was included. Gillath et al. (2005) revealed that people with secure attachments are more engaged in volunteering activities with values and understanding functions, while people with insecure attachments are more engaged in volunteering activities with other self-serving functions (protective, social, enhancement, and career). In other words, they concluded that securely attached people volunteer with more altruistic motivations, while insecurely attached people volunteer with more self-serving motivations. The reason such a difference was not found in this study may be due to the low number of volunteers. When the participants were grouped as securely attached and insecurely attached, and the participants who did not volunteer at all were excluded, the remaining number of participants may be too small to detect the difference based on the six types of motivation.

Furthermore, it is seen that values and social functions, which are volunteering motivation types, increase the moderator effect of volunteering. In other words, volunteering for humanistic/altruistic values and strengthening social ties strengthens the moderator role of volunteering in the relationship between self-compassion and attachment styles. Therefore, the self-compassion levels of those who volunteer with these motivations are much less affected by the negative effects of insecure attachment styles. At this point, this effect of values motivation can be expected because values refer to volunteering by prioritizing the motivation of others. Prioritizing the well-being of other people may indicate a greater willingness to give care to them. The development of self-compassion skills of individuals, who work without profit for their welfare and care for other people, can also be expected based on the social mentality theory. It is not an expected result that social motivation strengthens the role of moderator because social motivation means that an individual does volunteering to strengthen their ties with the people they know and like. At this point, people who volunteer to strengthen ties also seem to be better at giving themselves compassion.

5.4. Examining Potential Covariate and Confounding Variables

This study examined potential covariate variables to see if there was another factor that significantly affected self-compassion. Age, sex, residential area, education status, financial status, and employment status variables were included in the analysis in this sense. And as a result, it has been seen that only working has a positive and significant relationship with self-compassion. Being working can be considered a covariate variable at this point.

When looking at whether working is a confounding factor, it has been seen that it is not related to volunteering and therefore is not a confounding factor. Because of the fundamental difference between volunteering and being employed, working may not be confounding. That difference is that volunteering is done for the benefit of someone and is gratuitous, while working is related to survival and is strictly self-interest (income).

5.5. Conclusion

In this study, the moderator role of volunteering activities in the relationship between attachment styles and self-compassion levels in individuals aged 18-35 was examined. Research results have shown that spending time on volunteering activities reduces the negative effect of insecure attachment on self-compassion levels in insecurely attached individuals. These results revealed the moderator role of volunteering in line with the main hypothesis of the research. In addition, when considering the impacts of volunteer motivations on this role, it has been seen that this role becomes stronger when volunteering is done with values and social motivations. In a nutshell, considering these volunteering activities even reduce the effect of insecure attachment, it can be said that engaging in voluntary activities is a protective factor for the individual's psychological well-being.

5.6. Limitations of the Study

Naturally, this research has some limitations. One of these limitations is the insufficient number of participants in the study. Although the number of participants seems sufficient at first the number of people does not reach the sufficient number for analysis when grouping according to the variables. Although the required number of participants was calculated at the beginning, it was insufficient because the attachment style of approximately 150 people was unclear when grouping according to attachment types, and they could not be included in any group. This may be due to the attachment scale used.

The attachment scale is another limitation of the study at this point. A version of the attachment scale used in the study that was adapted to Turkish and validity and reliability studies were not found. Therefore, the scale was translated into Turkish by the researcher using the translation-back translation method. The fact that a large number of participants could not be grouped according to their attachment styles suggests that the scale may not be understood by the participants (the avoidant and anxious attachment questions are not sufficiently separated and clearly expressed) or that it may not adapt to Turkish culture.

Another limitation of the study is that it is a correlational study, and data is collected only as a self-report. The use of other methods, such as observation or experimentation, in calculating participants' scores for variables could have made these scores more realistic.

Reaching the participants with the convenience sampling method can also be considered among the limitations of the research. Although it was tried to reach participants from many parts of society, it was generally possible to reach people with university degrees and high socioeconomic status living in metropolitan cities. This situation may reduce the generalizability of the research results.

5.7. Suggestions for Future Research

Conducting this research using experimental methods will further strengthen the research results. For example, in order to provide the direct effect of volunteering on self-compassion, a group of participants who are not involved in volunteering activities can be made to participate in volunteering activities for a certain period. At the end of the period, the direct effect of participation in volunteering activities can be seen with pre-post test analysis.

In addition, long-term studies may be useful in determining the effects of volunteering. Scores of volunteers and non-volunteers on certain variables can be monitored for many years, and more realistic results can be obtained.

In future studies, it would be appropriate to measure adult attachment while measuring attachment. In this way, it can be seen how a person's relationship with their family in the past contributes to their feeling of security in close relationships in their current life. At the same time, it can be seen how the attachment styles in their current close relationships have an effect.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

ETHICS COMMITTEE PERMISSION

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 26.03.2021-2265



T.C.
İBN HALDUN ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği
Kurulu Başkanlığı

Sayı : E-71395021-020-2265
Konu : Şeyma Nur ERDOĞAN-Etik Kurul
Kararı

İLGİLİ MAKAMA

Kurulumuza başvuran Şeyma Nur ERDOĞAN'ın "The Role of Volunteerism as a Moderator in the Relationship between Attachment Style and Self-Compassion" isimli projesi; amaç, araştırma türü, veri toplama araçları, süreç ve işlemler, veri analizleri dikkate alınmak suretiyle 22.02.2021 tarihinde değerlendirilerek 2021/02-3 karar numarası ile etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi arz/rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Ali YEŞİLIRMAK
Başkan

Bu belge, güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

Belge Doğrulama Kodu :BE5U6F4C

Adres: Başak Mah. Ordu Cad. No:3 P.K. 34480 Beşiktaş / İstanbul
Telefon: 0212 692 0212 Faks: 0212 551 6464
Kep: ihu@ihu01.ksp.tr e-Posta: info@ihu.edu.tr Elektronik Ağ: www.ihu.edu.tr

http://belge.ibnhaldun.edu.tr/en/Vison/Validite_Doc.aspx

Belge Doğrulama Adresi:

Bilgi için: Nevilhan Pala
Unvanı: Sekreter



Bu belge, güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

APPENDIX B
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Değerli katılımcı,

Bu çalışma, Psikolog Şeyma Nur Erdoğan tarafından ve Dr. Hooman Keshavarzi danışmanlığında, İbn Haldun Üniversitesi Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı kapsamında tez çalışması olarak yürütülmektedir. Bu amaçla online olarak doldurabileceğiniz bazı anketler hazırlanmıştır. Araştırmaya 18-35 yaş arasındaki tüm bireyler katılabilir.

Araştırmaya gönüllü olarak katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz takdirde, sizlerden kendinizle ilgili bir dizi soruya cevap vermeniz beklenmektedir. Araştırmadaki soruları yanıtlama süreniz yaklaşık 15 dakikanızı alacaktır. Lütfen soruların hepsini, dikkatle okuyarak ve kendinize en uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyerek cevaplayınız. Soruları cevaplamayı bırakmanız durumunda, yanıtlarınız araştırmaya dahil edilmeyecektir.

Araştırmada yanıtlarınız anonim olarak toplanacaktır. Vermiş olduğunuz yanıtlar kesinlikle gizli tutulacak, yalnızca araştırmacı tarafından görülecektir. Bu araştırmadan elde edilen bulgular yalnızca bilimsel amaçlı yayınlarda kullanılacaktır.

Araştırmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülüğe dayalıdır. Araştırmaya katılmayı reddedebilir veya istediğiniz an araştırmadan çekilebilirsiniz. Araştırmadan çekilmeniz durumunda herhangi bir kayıp veya cezai işlem söz konusu değildir.

Araştırmaya katılarak bilime katkıda bulunmuş olacaksınız. Vereceğiniz yanıtlar sayesinde gönüllülüğün bireyin psikolojisine etkisi görülebilecektir. Bu araştırmanın beklenen herhangi bir riski yoktur.

Bu araştırmayla ilgili daha ayrıntılı bilgi almak istediğiniz takdirde veya herhangi bir şikayetiniz varsa aşağıdaki iletişim bilgilerinden araştırmacıya ulaşabilirsiniz:

Araştırmacı: Şeyma Nur Erdoğan

Gönüllü olarak bu araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ediyorum. Bilgilendirilmiş onamı okudum ve anladım. İstedğim zaman araştırmaya katılmaktan vazgeçebileceğimi ve onayımı geri çekebileceğimi anladım.

Evet



APPENDIX C
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

1. Cinsiyetini: Kadın Erkek

2. Yaşınız:
3. Yaşadığınız bölge: Büyükşehir Şehir Belde / Köy
4. Eğitim durumu (En son mezun olduğunuz dereceyi işaretleyiniz):
 İlköğretim Lise Üniversite Lisansüstü
5. Eğitim durumu (Şu anda öğrenci olduğunuz dereceyi işaretleyiniz):
 Şu anda öğrenci değilim. Üniversite Lisansüstü
6. Ekonomik durumunuzu nasıl değerlendiriyorsunuz?
 Kötü Orta İyi Çok iyi
7. Çalışma durumu: Çalışıyorum Çalışmıyorum
8. 1-14 yaş aralığında bakımınızla çoğunlukla kim ilgileniyordu?
 Anne Baba Bakıcı Akraba Diğer
9. Almış olduğunuz psikiyatrik bir tanı varsa lütfen aşağıya yazınız:

APPENDIX D
SELF-COMPASSION SCALE

Bu ankette toplam 26 madde bulunmaktadır ve anketten elde edilen sonuçlar bilimsel bir çalışmada kullanılacaktır. Sizden istenilen bu ifadeleri okuduktan sonra kendinizi değerlendirmeniz ve sizin için en uygun seçeneği işaretlemenizdir. Her sorunun

karşısında bulunan; (1) Hiç bir zaman (2) Nadiren (3) Sık sık (4) Genellikle ve (5) Her zaman anlamına gelmektedir. Lütfen her ifadeye mutlaka TEK yanıt veriniz ve kesinlikle BOŞ bırakmayınız.

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Bir yetersizlik hissettiğimde, kendime bu yetersizlik duygusunun insanların birçoğu tarafından paylaşıldığını hatırlatmaya çalışırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | Kişiliğimin beğenmediğim yönlerine ilişkin anlayışlı ve sabırlı olmaya çalışırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | Bir şey beni üzdüğünde, duygularıma kapılıp giderim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | Hoşlanmadığım yönlerimi fark ettiğimde kendimi suçlarım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | Benim için önemli olan bir şeyde başarısız olduğumda, kendimi bu başarısızlıkta yalnız hissederim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6 | Zor zamanlarımda ihtiyaç duyduğum özen ve şefkati kendime gösteririm. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7 | Gerçekten güç durumlarla karşılaştığımda kendime kaba davranırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8 | Başarısızlıklarımı insanlık halinin bir parçası olarak görmeye çalışırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9 | Bir şey beni üzdüğünde duygularımı dengede tutmaya çalışırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10 | Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde kötü olan her şeye kafamı takar ve onunla meşgul olurum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11 | Yetersizliklerim hakkında düşündüğümde, bu kendimi yalnız hissetmeme ve dünyayla bağlantımı koparmama neden olur. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12 | Kendimi çok kötü hissettiğim durumlarda, dünyadaki birçok insanın benzer duygular yaşadığını hatırlamaya çalışırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13 | Acı veren olaylar yaşadığımda kendime kibar davranırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14 | Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde duygularıma ilgi ve açıklıkla yaklaşmaya çalışırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15 | Sıkıntı çektiğim durumlarda kendime karşı biraz acımasız olabilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16 | Sıkıntı veren bir olay olduğunda olayı mantıksız biçimde abartırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17 | Hata ve yetersizliklerimi anlayışla karşılarım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18 | Acı veren bir şeyler yaşadığımda bu duruma dengeli bir bakış açısıyla yaklaşmaya çalışırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19 | Kendimi üzgün hissettiğimde, diğer insanların çoğunun belki de benden daha mutlu olduklarını düşünürüm. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20 | Hata ve yetersizliklerime karşı kınayıcı ve yargılayıcı bir tavır takınırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21 | Duygusal anlamda acı çektiğim durumlarda kendime sevgiyle yaklaşırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22 | Benim için bir şeyler kötüye gittiğinde, bu durumun herkesin yaşayabileceğini ve yaşamın bir parçası olduğunu düşünürüm. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 23 | Bir şeyde başarısızlık yaşadığımda objektif bir bakış açısı takınmaya çalışırım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24 | Benim için önemli olan bir şeyde başarısız olduğumda, yetersizlik duygularıyla kendimi harap ederim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25 | Zor durumlarla mücadele ettiğimde, diğer insanların daha rahat bir durumda olduklarını düşünürüm. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26 | Kişiliğimin beğenmediğim yönlerine karşı sabırlı ve hoşgörülü değilimdir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |



APPENDIX E

ADULT SCALE OF PARENTAL ATTACHMENT – SHORT FORM (ASPA -SF)

Bu ankette toplam 40 madde bulunmaktadır. Sizden istenilen çocukluk döneminizi (0-14 yaş) düşünerek bu ifadeleri okuduktan sonra kendinizi değerlendirmeniz ve sizin için en uygun seçeneği işaretlemenizdir. Soruların ilk yarısı anne için diğer yarısı baba için sorulmuştur. Her sorunun karşısında bulunan; (1) Hiç bir zaman (2)

Nadiren (3) Sık sık (4) Genellikle ve (5) Her zaman anlamına gelmektedir. Lütfen boş bırakmayınız.

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Üzgün olduğum zamanlarda annem yanımdaydı. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | Annemin benden uzakta vakit geçirmesine kızardım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | Annem yanımda olmadığı zaman çaresiz hissederdim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | Annemden duygusal anlamda uzak hissettiğim için, bende bir sorun olduğunu düşünürdüm. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | Annemin ihtiyaçlarını, kendi ihtiyaçlarımın önüne koyardım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6 | Annem birkaç günlüğüne yanımda olmadığında kendimi terkedilmiş hissederdim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7 | Rahat ve güvende hissetmek için anneme sığırdım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8 | Keşke annemle ilişkimde daha az öfke olsaydı. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9 | Annemle ilgilenmekten keyif alırdım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10 | Annem beni yalnız bıraktığında hayal kırıklığına uğradım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11 | Annemle konuşana kadar ne yapmam gerektiğinden asla emin olmazdım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12 | Nedenini bilmeden sık sık anneme kızardım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13 | Annemle bazı şeyleri konuşurdum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14 | Annemin bir sorunu olduğunda, kendi işime devam etmekte zorlanırdım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15 | Anneme bağımlı olmanın en iyisi olduğunu hissederdim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16 | Annemle ilişkimin biteceğine dair berbat bir korku içindeydim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17 | Annem için bir şeyler yapabilmek kendimi önemli hissettirirdi. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18 | Annemin bana bakmasına ihtiyacım vardı. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19 | Anneme yakın olmak isterdim ama geri durmaya devam ederdim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20 | Genellikle sorunlarımı ve endişelerimi annemle tartışırdım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21 | Rahat ve güvende hissetmek için babama sığırdım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22 | Babam birkaç günlüğüne yanımda olmadığında kendimi terkedilmiş hissederdim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23 | Babamın ihtiyaçlarını, kendi ihtiyaçlarımın önüne koyardım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24 | Babamın beni hayal kırıklığına uğratacağından endişelenirdim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 25 | Çoğu kez babama fazla bağımlı hissederdim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26 | Babamın benden uzakta vakit geçirmesine kızardım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27 | Babama karşı şefkatli olmak benim için kolaydı. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28 | Keşke babamla ilişkimde daha az öfke olsaydı. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29 | Babamın yararı için kendi ihtiyaçlarımı feda ettim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30 | Babama bağımlı olmanın en iyisi olduğunu hissederdim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31 | Babam beni yalnız bıraktığında hayal kırıklığına uğurdum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32 | Babamın bir sorunu olduğunda, kendi işime devam etmekte zorlanırdım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 33 | Babamla bazı şeyleri konuşurdum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 34 | Nedenini bilmeden sık sık babama kızardım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 35 | Babamın bana bakmasına ihtiyacım vardı. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 36 | Babamla ilişkimin biteceğine dair berbat bir korku içindeydim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 37 | Genellikle sorunlarımı ve endişelerimi babamla tartışırdım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 38 | Babamla ilgilenmekten keyif alırdım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 39 | Babamdan duygusal anlamda uzak hissettiğim için, bende bir sorun olduğunu düşünürdüm. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 40 | Babamla konuşana kadar ne yapmam gerektiğinden asla emin olmazdım. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

APPENDIX F

VOLUNTEER QUESTIONNAIRE

Aşağıdaki numaralandırılmış ifadeler, insanların katılabileceği gönüllü faaliyetleri tanımlamaktadır. Lütfen her bir ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyun ve geçen yıl bu faaliyete ne sıklıkta katıldığınızı belirtin. Lütfen her ifadeyi dikkatlice okuyun ve aşağıdaki ölçekte her bir aktiviteyi ne ölçüde yaptığınızı belirtin: Hiç, Yılda bir kez, Yılda

birkaç kez, Ayda bir kez, Ayda birkaç kez, Haftada bir kez, Haftada birkaç kez, Neredeyse her gün.

| | Hiç | Yılda bir kez | Yılda birkaç kez | Ayda bir kez | Ayda birkaç kez | Haftada bir kez | Haftada birkaç kez | Neredeyse her gün |
|--|-----|---------------|------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| 1. Toplum hizmetleri (ör. Yol kenarı temizliği, sahil temizliği, ağaç veya çiçek dikme vb.) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 2. Gönüllü kamu hizmeti (ör. Arama kurtarma, Kızılay) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 3. Ölümcül hastalığa sahip insanlarla çalışmak (ör. Darülaceze, hastane ziyaretleri) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 4. Engellilere yardım etmek | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 5. Bir hastanede gönüllülük | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 6. Bir danışma merkezinde, danışma "yardım hattında" veya psikiyatrik tedavi tesisinde gönüllü olmak | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 7. Talihsiz insanlara yardım etme (örneğin, aşevlerinde, kadın sığınma evlerinde) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 8. Dini faaliyetlerde gönüllülük (ör. Dini gençlik grupları, kurban faaliyetleri,) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 9. Sosyal ve sportif gençlik grupları (ör. izciler) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 10. Hayvanlarla çalışmak (ör. Hayvanları Koruma Derneği) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 11. Geleneksel siyasi faaliyetler (ör. kampanya yürütme, | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |

| | Hiç | Yılda bir kez | Yılda birkaç kez | Ayda bir kez | Ayda birkaç kez | Haftada bir kez | Haftada birkaç kez | Neredeyse her gün |
|--|-----|---------------|------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| zarf doldurma, telefonlara cevap verme) | | | | | | | | |
| 12. Siyasi aktivizm (ör. Gösterilere katılmak, gösteriler için afişler asmak) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 13. Öğrenci organizasyonlarında veya derneklerinde aktif olmak | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 14. Özel ders (üniversite / kolej / lise / ilkokul öğrencileri) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 15. Özel ihtiyaçları olan çocuklarla çalışmak (ör. Engelli, otistik, öksüzler, yeni göçmenler) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 16. Antrenörlük, hakemlik sporları | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 17. Mentorluk programları (ör. Üniversitelerin gönüllü mentorluk programları) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 18. Gönüllü hukuk, muhasebe, tıbbi veya diğer profesyonel işler | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 19. Araştırma projesine kredisiz / ücretsiz araştırma görevlisi olarak katılma | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 20. Ücretsiz stajlar | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 21. Başkalarına yardım etmek için destek gruplarına katılmak | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 22. Yaşlı insanlara yardım etme (ör. yemekler, huzurevleri, ev yardımı) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |
| 23. Bilgi ve yönlendirme | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |

| | Hiç | Yılda bir kez | Yılda birkaç kez | Ayda bir kez | Ayda birkaç kez | Haftada bir kez | Haftada birkaç kez | Neredeyse her gün |
|---|-----|---------------|------------------|--------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| hizmetleri sağlayıcısı olarak gönüllülük (ör. turizm elçiliği veya bir müzede, bir kütüphanede gönüllü olmak) | | | | | | | | |
| 24. Silahlı kuvvetlerin üyelerine yardım etme (örneğin Mehmetçik Vakfı) | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 |



APPENDIX G

VOLUNTEER FUNCTIONS INVENTORY

Araştırmanın bu bölümü, gönüllü olarak gerçekleştirdiğiniz deneyimleriniz hakkındaki ifadelerin bir listesini içeriyor. Lütfen aşağıdaki tabloyu kullanarak 1'den 5'e kadar olan seçeneklerden size en yakın olanı işaretleyiniz. Anketi doldururken gönüllülük faaliyetlerinde bulunma sebebinizi düşündüğünüzde aklınıza ilk gelen sebebi göz önünde bulundurunuz. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. (Yaptığımız

gönüllülük faaliyeti pandemi sebebiyle kesintiye uğramışsa pandemiden önceki dönemi baz alarak işaretleyiniz.)

| | | | | | | |
|----|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | Gönüllülük, çalışmak istediğim bir yere ilk adımı atmama yardımcı olabilir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü arkadaşlarım da gönüllü. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü kendimden daha az şanslı insanları da düşünüyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülere yakın hissediyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük kendimi önemli hissetmemi sağlıyor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü tanıdığım insanlar toplum hizmetine ilgi duyuyorlar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü kendimi ne kadar kötü hissedersen hissedeyim gönüllülük bunu unutmamı sağlıyor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gerçekten çalışmış olduğum toplulukla yakından ilgiliyim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük sayesinde kendimi daha az yalnız hissediyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük aracılığıyla önemli iş bağlantıları sağlayabileceğimi düşünüyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11 | Gönüllüyüm çünkü gönüllü çalışmalarım sayesinde zor durumda olan insanlara karşı vicdanımı daha rahat hissediyorum, onlara karşı sorumluluklarımı yerine getirdiğimi düşünüyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllü olarak neden çalıştığım hakkında daha fazla şey öğrenebiliyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllü olarak çalışmak öz saygıyı artırır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük dünya hakkında yeni bakış açıları kazanmamı sağlıyor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük iş fırsatları bulmama yardım eder. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü yardıma muhtaç olan insanlara şefkat duyuyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü yakın olduğum diğer kişiler toplum hizmetine değer veriyorlar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

| | | | | | | |
|----|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük doğrudan deneyimlerle, yaşayarak öğrenmemi sağlıyor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü başka insanlara yardım etmenin önemli olduğuna inanıyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük kendi kişisel problemlerimi çözmeme yardımcı oluyor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük iş becerilerimi geliştirmeme olanak sağlıyor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü benim için önemli olan bir amaç uğruna bir şeyler yapabilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük çevremde iyi tanıdığım insanlar için önemli bir etkinliktir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülüğün kişisel sıkıntılarımdan kaçmak için iyi bir yol olduğunu düşünüyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü bu sayede farklı insanlarla nasıl ilgilenebileceğimi öğrenebilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük kendimi faydalı hissetmemi sağlıyor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük bana, kendimi daha iyi hissettirir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük tecrübesi, CV'mde iyi duracaktır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 29 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü gönüllülük yeni arkadaşlıklar kurmamı sağlıyor. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 30 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü bu sayede güçlü yanlarımı keşfedebilirim. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 31 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü bu yolla Allah'ın rızasını kazanabileceğimi düşünüyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 32 | Gönüllüyüm, çünkü bu sayede cennette mükafatlandırılacağımı düşünüyorum. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information:

Name - Surname:

Şeyma Nur Erdoğan

Education:

2013-2018 BA in Psychology, Istanbul Şehir University, Turkey

2019-Present MA in Clinical Psychology, Ibn Haldun University, Turkey

Experience:

2020 Ibn Haldun University, Istanbul, Turkey.

Clinical Psychology Internship, Psychotherapy and Research Center of Ibn Haldun University

2016-2017 Istanbul Şehir University, Istanbul, Turkey.

Undergraduate Research Assistant, Cognitive and Developmental Psychology Laboratory.

Principle Investigator: Reyhan Bilge, PhD. & Fatıma Tuba Yaylacı, PhD.

2015-2016 Istanbul Şehir University, Istanbul, Turkey.

Undergraduate Research Assistant, Cognitive Psychology Laboratory

Principle Investigator: Reyhan Bilge, PhD.