

FAMILIAL AND PSYCHODYNAMIC FACTORS IN THE FORMATION AND
TRANSMISSION OF PERSONALITY DISORDER BELIEFS IN
YOUNG ADULTS

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YOUNG ADULTS**

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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.

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ABSTRACT

FAMILIAL AND PSYCHODYNAMIC FACTORS IN THE FORMATION AND TRANSMISSION OF PERSONALITY DISORDER BELIEFS IN YOUNG ADULTS

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The main goal of this study is to investigate the psychodynamic factors (i.e., separation-individuation difficulties, proneness to shame and anger) and related familial dynamics (i.e., perceived parenting practices, role reversal experiences with parents, parental personality disorder beliefs) that contribute to the formation of distorted personality beliefs (i.e., "deprecating", "inflated", and "ambivalent") in young adults. In the first study, the psychometric characteristics of "Relationship with Parents Scale" (RPS) retrospectively measuring the role reversal experiences of individuals with their parents were tested on a sample consisting of 319 participants aged between 18 and 63 ($M = 32.75$, $SD = 10.68$). The reliability and validity of the Turkish RPS were satisfactory. In the second study, the relations among the measures of the study and the mediating role of early parental experiences of the offspring in the transmission of personality disorder beliefs from parents to the

offspring were investigated. The sample of this study composed of 535 young adults (381 females, 154 males) with the ages of 18 and 25 ($M = 20.51$, $SD = 1.75$) and their mothers and fathers. Personality belief categories showed both distinctive and similar features concerning early rearing styles, role reversion, emotions, and separation-individuation difficulties in young adults. Moreover, the poor parental experiences had a mediating role in the transmission of personality disorder beliefs from mothers to daughters and from fathers to sons. The findings were discussed under the consideration of existing literature as well as strengths and limitations of the study and directions for future studies.

Keywords: Personality Disorder Beliefs, Early Rearing Experiences, Role Reversion with Parents, Separation-Individuation Difficulties, Emotions

ÖZ

GENÇ YETİŞKİNLERDE KİŞİLİK BOZUKLUĞU İNANÇLARININ OLUŞUMU VE AKTARIMINDA AİLESEL VE PSİKODİNAMİK FAKTÖRLER

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Bu çalışmanın temel amacı genç yetişkinlerde çarpıtılmış kişilik inançlarının oluşmasına katkıda bulunan psikodinamik (ayrışma-bireyleşme güçlükleri, utanç ve öfke yatkınlığı) ve ilişkili ailesel faktörleri (erken dönem algılanan ebeveynlik biçimleri, ebeveynler ile rol değişim deneyimleri, ebeveynlerdeki kişilik bozukluğu inançları) araştırmaktır. Bu kapsamda, ilk çalışmada, bireylerin çocukluk ve ergenlik döneminde anne ve babaları ile rol değiştirme deneyimlerini ölçen Ebeveynlerle İlişki Ölçeğinin (EBÖ) psikometrik özellikleri, 18-63 yaş arası ($O = 32.75$, $SS = 10.68$) 319 katılımcıdan oluşan bir örneklem üzerinde test edilmiştir. Türkçe ölçeğin güvenirlik ve geçerlik değerleri tatmin edici düzeyde bulunmuştur. İkinci çalışmada ise araştırmanın değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkiler ve çocuğun ebeveynleri ile olan erken dönem yaşantılarının kişilik bozukluğu inançlarının ebeveynlerden çocuğa aktarılmasındaki aracı rolü araştırılmıştır. Bu çalışmanın örneklemini, 18 ve 25 yaşlarındaki ($O = 20.51$, $SS = 1.75$) 535 genç yetişkin (381 kadın, 154 erkek) ve

onların anne ve babaları oluřturmuřtur. Arařtırmanın sonuları, farklı kiřilik bozukluęu inan biimlerinin, erken dnem yetiřtirilme tarzları, ebeveynler ile rol deęiřim yks, duygusal yatkınlıklar ve de ayrıřma-bireyleřme glkleri bakımından hem benzer hem farklılařan zellikler sergiledięini gstermiřtir. Bunun yanı sıra anne ve babalardaki kiřilik bozukluęu inanlarının, ocuklarının erken dnem ebeveynlik yařantıları ile cinsiyete zg bir Őekilde iliřkilendięi grlmřtir. Olumsuz erken dnem ebeveynlik yařantılarının kiřilik bozukluęu inanlarının annelerden kızlarına, babalardan oęullarına aktarılmasında aracılık rol oynadıęı bulunmuřtur. alıřmanın bulguları, mevcut literatrn yanı sıra alıřmanın gl ynleri ve sınırlılıkları ve gelecekteki alıřmalar iin neriler dikkate alınarak tartıřılmıřtır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Kiřilik Bozukluęu İnanları, Erken Dnem Yetiřtirilme Deneyimleri, Ebeveynlerle Rol Deęiřimi, Ayrıřma-Bireyleřme Glkleri, Duygular

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Conceptualization of Personality Disorder Features

Personality represents one's idiosyncratic ways of thinking, feeling, and acting which mostly does not change over time and from one situation to another (Emmelkamp & Meyerbröker, 2020). It can be considered as a structure that organizes different aspects of individuals' functioning (i.e., cognitive, interactional, and biological) (Millon, Grossman, Millon, Meagher, & Ramnath, 2004). In this regard, personality consists of more than one unit which continuously interacts with each other and thus, enables individuals to function in certain ways. Personality disorders (PDs) encompass the dysfunctions in these interacting parts of the personality (Millon et al., 2004). Being adopted, naturalized, and internalized (i.e., ego-syntonic) these impairments in the functioning mostly reflect inflexible, rigid, and repetitive ways of thinking, acting, and feeling which are resistant to change (Emmelkamp & Meyerbröker, 2020). Since personality is composed of a wide array of different components, the conceptualization of personality pathology has always been a complex matter.

From ancient times to today, personality disturbances have been the study subject of different fields such as philosophy, psychology, and psychiatry (Crocq, 2013). Based on its own perspective, each area has tried to describe and explain the phenomenon in systematic and coherent ways (Crocq, 2013). In the second half of the twentieth century, the medical model proposed by the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) has become dominant in the description of PDs

in both scientific studies and clinical settings (Millon, 2012). Distinct PD types were defined and they were placed under a different axis for the first time in the third edition of DSM (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 1980). This understanding has been maintained in the subsequent editions of DSM with changing names and the number of PDs (Millon, 2012). Each PD category includes a certain number of defining criteria consisting of features, acts, and attitudes relevant to the given PD. A person needs to meet some number of criteria defined as a threshold for the diagnosis of PD (Millon et al., 2004). Even though the use of DSM PD categories offers a common language between different fields, it concomitantly brings many theoretical, practical, and empirical problems (Krueger, Hopwood, Wright, & Markon, 2014). First, the approach of this medical model to PDs was criticized due to its solely descriptive nature and its absence of a theoretical basis (Farmer, 2000). The critiques pointed out that DSM lacks a theoretical framework that binds the descriptive features of a PD together (Farmer, 2000). Moreover, studies indicated that categorical system in DSM, which is supposed to distinguish different PDs, was not able to achieve this goal (Krueger et al., 2014). Individuals can meet the diagnostic criteria for three to five PDs at the same time (Krueger et al., 2014). Similarly, individuals diagnosed with the same PD may display notably distinct profiles since they meet different combinations of diagnostic criteria (Krueger et al., 2014). All of these limitations pertaining to DSM complicate the treatment or intervention choices, case conceptualizations, and prognostic predictions for clinicians in practice (Farmer, 2000; Krueger et al., 2014).

To solve these problems, a dimensional understanding of personality pathology in addition to the categorical approach was integrated into the DSM structure in DSM-5 (APA, 2013). This model focused on commonalities shared by all PDs as well as traits that distinguish their appearances (Pincus, Cain, & Halberstadt, 2020). The functioning of the person in relation to one's self and others was identified as two main domains of personality structure based on previous theoretical accounts and empirical findings (Krueger et al., 2014). Impaired functioning in these areas was accepted as the common concern of all PDs. The

model also allows the evaluation of the severity of the impairment in these two personality dimensions (Krueger et al., 2014). These novelties presented in the alternative model are regarded as significant in terms of providing a relatively integrated perspective of "normal" and "abnormal" personality rather than referring them as distinct entities (Krueger et al., 2014). Initial experiences of clinicians also supported the utility of this approach such that it provides a better way of communicating the problematic areas with patients and a broader understanding of personality functioning encouraging the dimensional formulations of personality pathology by considering self-processes and interactional domains (Morey, Benson, & Skodol, 2016; Morey, Skodol, & Oldham, 2014).

Even though the conceptualization of personality disturbances regarding problems in identity formation and interactional areas was recently incorporated into the DSM system, it has already been emphasized by different theoretical models (e.g., cognitive, psychodynamic, interpersonal) (Clarkin, 2006). According to Livesley (2003), personality disturbances occur when individuals have difficulty in sustaining stable and integrated representations of the self and others; forming intimate, reciprocal, and affectionate relationships with others; and behaving in an appropriate and cooperative manner in society. Cognitive perspective on personality has emphasized the importance of schemas in personality functioning, which are mostly developed in early years of life as a result of the interaction between biological tendencies and environmental conditions and serve as a pattern of perceiving and responding to surrounding stimuli (Beck, 2015). Core beliefs form the building blocks of schemas (Beck, 2015). They encompass attitudes, presumptions, and anticipations of individuals about themselves, others, and the outer world (Beck, 2015). Individuals develop both adaptive and maladaptive core beliefs and these core beliefs may activate in an alternating manner depending on the situation (Bienenfeld, 2007). However, in the case of personality problems and disorders, these core beliefs become more restricted in content and structured firmly with rigid borders, which do not leave much space for the movement of individuals (Beck, 1998). Certain maladaptive core beliefs become overly dominant in the lives of individuals such that

they do not allow the emergence of more adaptive ones (Beck, 1998). These beliefs also spread over many parts of their lives (Beck, 1998). In other words, they are easily and repeatedly activated across different situations. They do not remain only in cognition but also govern the functioning of individuals in different aspects (i.e., behavioral, emotional, motivational). Individuals with personality dysfunctions attribute particular meaning to the events they encounter in line with the content of their core beliefs and this attribution is transformed into a command which impels them to act, feel, or interact in strict ways (Beck, 2015). In this way, their beliefs are confirmed and sustained (Beck, 1998).

According to cognitive theory, different PDs are characterized by distinctive core beliefs that identify the unique and observable features of these personality types (Beck, 2015). These basic beliefs or in general terms "self-concepts" of individuals, which have developed and relied on beginning from early years, nourish a specific set of maladaptive behavioral and interactional patterns while hindering the growth of more adaptive ones (Bienenfeld, 2007). Beck (2015) described prominent beliefs and highly invested behavioral patterns of individuals displaying features of PDs. According to these descriptions, people showing avoidant personality features perceive themselves as socially incapable, emotionally fragile, and susceptible to rejection (i.e., "I am awkward") while they see others as highly qualified, condemning, and degrading (i.e., "They are powerful and will be critical of me") (p. 44). The response to these beliefs is usually to keep away from the notice of their surrounding, to repress their emotional reactions, and to act passively (p. 44). Similarly people displaying dependent characteristics adopted the view of a needy self who are always in need of others' help (i.e., "I am helpless") while others are considered ideal who are competent in every aspect (i.e., "They are strong and can help me") (p. 44). They commit themselves to seek assistance, remain close to others, and try to satisfy the needs of others to escape from rejection. Individuals with borderline personality features hold the view of a flawed self, deserving maltreatment of others (i.e., "I am weak and overwhelmed") (p. 47). Others were assessed as unpredictable, kind but unreliable at the same time (i.e., "They are strong

and caring but might turn and use, hurt, or abandon me") (p. 47). They mostly vacillate between submissiveness and impulsive outbursts. In antisocial personality, people perceive themselves as smart, self-sufficient, and incapable of being hurt (i.e., "I make my own rules") while they see others as unprotected, impotent, and exploitable (i.e., "Only fools follow the rules") (p. 46). As a response to these beliefs, they mostly invest in deceiving and manipulating others. Similarly, people with narcissistic features have a grandiose and entitled view of themselves (i.e., "I am better than others") while they perceive others as passive and obedient followers (i.e., "They wish they could be me") (p. 46). Their behavioral pattern includes competition, aggression toward others threatening to their grandiose self, and tendency to violate rules constraining them. Individuals with histrionic features evaluate themselves as charming, enjoyable, deserving the attention and interest of others, and emotionally sensitive (i.e., "I need attention and approval") (p. 46). They expect adoration from others and perceive them as obedient and easily persuaded individuals (i.e., "Make them meet your needs") (p. 47). They usually act in exaggerated ways (e.g., displaying dramatic reactions or emotions) to be the center of attention. Individuals having obsessive-compulsive personality features identify themselves as rigorous, competent, and attentive (i.e., "I am an example") while they perceive others as careless and permissive (i.e., "They are irresponsible") (p. 45). They mostly show intolerance to mistakes, try to control their drives, and strictly comply with rules. In the case of passive-aggressive personality, individuals seem self-confident; however, they also perceive themselves as susceptible to others' interference (i.e., "I am trapped") (p. 44). Since others are perceived intrusive and domineering, they mostly display passive resistance toward others. People with paranoid personalities believe that they are genuinely good, moral, and smart but at the same time, they are vulnerable to be damaged by others (i.e., "I am a target") (p.45). Others are viewed as being offensive and untrustworthy and having malevolent intentions. Thus, they feel obligated to behave overly suspicious and alerted ways and mostly prefer to be alone. People characterized by schizoid personality features perceive themselves as being sufficiently capable of sustaining

life alone without standing anyone, but they also regard themselves as socially peculiar and unguarded toward the demands of social life (i.e., "I need space") (p.45). They see others as antagonistic, burdensome, difficult, and asking for too much. Thus, they usually escape from social contact, occupy with solitary pursuits, show indifference to others, and suppress their feelings. Portraying of personality disturbances in terms of deeply rooted beliefs highlights the distinguishing features of each one but it also indicates commonalities among them.

As previously indicated, PDs are rarely observed in purified forms in reality. Some of them contain rather similar beliefs and behaviors. It has been proposed that more parsimonious approach of personality disturbances can be elicited by focusing on individuals' stance toward the "self" and "others" (Beck, 2015). For instance, Horney (1945) proposed that individuals take a characteristic stance on their associations with others as a way of coping with early encounters creating intense anxiety and this stance characterizes the personality type with which they are more strongly identified (i.e., "moving toward others", "moving away from others", and "moving against others"). The cognitive theory also provides a coherent framework for conceptualizing PDs regarding one's position with self and others. The above-mentioned descriptions of core beliefs representing PDs indicate that there are some similarities among them regarding the perception of self and others. Consistent with cognitive theory, Akyunus and Gençöz (2017) suggested three PD configurations under which PD beliefs including similar representations of self and others were bunched together, namely "deprecating", "inflated", and "unspecified or ambivalent" personality beliefs. "Deprecating" personality contained beliefs pertaining to avoidant, dependent, and borderline PDs in which self is considered from a relatively negative perspective while others are seen as more powerful, capable, and qualified. "Inflated" personality configuration consisted of beliefs related to antisocial, narcissistic, obsessive-compulsive, and histrionic PDs in which self is regarded as glorified while others are considered advocators who can be criticized, degraded, and exploited. Ambivalent personality is composed of beliefs regarding passive-aggressive, paranoid, and schizoid PDs in which a contradictory view of self and

domineering, hostile, dangerous, and the interfering sight of others are adopted. The self is perceived as competent, but it becomes fragile and threatened in the face of others' acts regarded as malicious. The validity of these three personality belief categories was supported by their ability to differentiate individuals in the high and low positive-negative affect groups (Akyunus & Gençöz, 2017). They also showed divergences in predicting positive and negative emotional state of individuals. Specifically, after controlling for general psychological symptomatology, only deprecating personality was associated with increased negative emotionality. Deprecating personality beliefs were also related to a decreased level of positive affect while the inflated personality beliefs were related to increased positive affect. Moreover, these three groups of personality beliefs showed different associations with the domains of interpersonal difficulties (Akyunus & Gençöz, 2020). Specifically, as individuals adopted more deprecating beliefs, they drew a needy, quiet, passive, and submissive interpersonal portrait. People having inflated personality beliefs, on the other hand, showed assertive, controlling, and dominant styles in interpersonal relations. Interpersonal features of individuals high in ambivalent personality beliefs were characterized by aloof and dominant interactional styles. To sum up, these three higher-order branches of maladaptive personality beliefs with its sound theoretical basis and initial empirical support seem to be promising for the further understanding of personality disturbances. Thus, this conceptualization is adopted in the current study.

The notion of self and others evolves from the early ages as the child's capacities develop and as he/she recurrently interacts with close others (Clarkin, 2006). In the case of a disturbed relational pattern encountered repeatedly during infancy and childhood, the representations of self and others are constructed in a way to cope with distressing emotions (Bienenfeld, 2007; Clarkin, 2006). However, these representations become the usual way of perceiving self and others and relating with others at later stages of life. Since beliefs pertaining to PDs are deeply rooted and they are not alien to the person, working with individuals having features of personality dysfunctions in psychotherapy have always become challenging

(Bienenfeld, 2007). In fact, therapy conducted with these patients is characterized by early termination, the unwillingness of patients to cooperate with the therapists, and a considerable number of therapy sessions (Bienenfeld, 2007). It is highly recommended by different therapy approaches that developmental dynamics and early family context must be taken into consideration to better understand and intervene in these deeply rooted beliefs and behaviors of such patients (Clarkin, 2006; Weertman & Arntz, 2007). In the following part, possible psychodynamic mechanisms lying under maladaptive personality beliefs will be summarized.

1.2 The Theory of Separation-Individuation

Separation-individuation theory, focusing on the early years of human development and the role of primary caregivers on this development, may provide a comprehensive understanding of how individuals construct the self and others and relate with their environments. The theory, developed by Mahler, Pine, and Bergman (1975) proposed that individuals must gain an understanding of separateness from primary caregivers and partly individualized sense of self in early years of life to maintain an autonomous life by staying in contact with other individuals in later phases of life (Mahler, 1983). Separation refers to a child's developing apprehension of oneself as a distinct being from the primary caregiver with his/her own characteristics. Individuation includes the acceptance of this separateness and the achievements in which the child starts to take over his/her own distinctive features (Mahler et al., 1975). Passing through critical developmental stages from infancy to toddlerhood, the child is expected to gain an autonomous sense of being through the stage appropriate parenting of caregivers (Mahler et al., 1975).

Mahler (1974) stated that the psychological birth of the infant comes after his/her physical birth. That is, they do not come into existence at the same time. The first few months after the birth defined as pre-separation stages are named as "Normal Autism" and "Normal Symbiosis" (Mahler et al., 1975, p. 8). The normal autism stage corresponds to the first few weeks of the newborn in which the physiological needs (e.g., hunger, sleep) of the infant are dominant (Mahler et al.,

1975). In this stage, the state of the infant is similar to prenatal condition so that growth can be facilitated (Mahler et al., 1975). That is, the newborn spends most of the time by sleeping in an indifferent state to external stimuli and assumes that all the needs coming from inside are satisfied by means of his/her omnipotence (Mahler et al., 1975). From the second month onward, the infant moves to symbiotic phase established with the mother or primary caregiver (Mahler et al., 1975). In this phase, as the infant feels more pleasant and unpleasant states arising from satisfied and unsatisfied needs, he/she begins to understand slightly the existence of an "other" providing satisfaction of his/her needs (Mahler & La Perriere, 1965). However, this vague awareness emerges mostly in the existence of unpleasant moments of hunger and disappears when his/her needs are satisfied (Mahler & La Perriere, 1965). At this stage, the boundary between the self and the other is not clear and these two are thought as the parts of one unit having a mutual border with the outside (Mahler et al., 1975). The mother or caregiver responds to the infant's unique signals and the infant attunes to the mother's responses (Kramer & Akhtar, 1988). Mothers' appropriate responses do have an importance for the infant to orient his/her attention and vigor toward the outer world (Mahler et al., 1975). Moreover, it was emphasized that a good-natured symbiotic phase including balanced exchanges of frustration-gratification through mothering forms the basis for the development of positive feelings toward the self and basic trust toward others (Mahler, 1963; Mahler et al., 1975).

The separation-individuation journey of an infant starts from the fifth month onward (Mahler & La Perriere, 1965). The infant enters into the differentiation phase between the five and nine months (Mahler & La Perriere, 1965). In this phase, the attention of the infant toward the mother and environment progressively increases through the increasing duration of wakefulness (Mahler et al., 1975). The mother is scrutinized closely through the developing capabilities of the infant (e.g., eyes, hands, or legs). The face and body of the mother are discovered as the infant touches her nose, ears, or hair (Kramer & Akhtar, 1988). It facilitates the infant to distinguish his/her mother from others and enhances the infant's understanding of differentiation

(Mahler et al., 1975). As the infant is acquainted with the face of the mother and her reactions, he/she starts to inquire about the environment and strangers (Mahler et al., 1975). The infant tries to develop a distant stance toward the mother by moving his/her body back to better observe the mother and outer world (Mahler et al., 1975). Responses toward strangers were observed for the first time at approximately eight months of age (Mahler et al., 1975). It was indicated that these responses were characterized by curiosity and astonishment in some infants and by fear and anxiety in some others (Mahler et al., 1975). Mahler et al. (1975) signified that infants whose expectancies from their mothers having a secure basis approached strangers with more interest and curiosity. On the other hand, infants whose security feelings were under average showed anxious reactions toward strangers (Mahler et al., 1975). Based on their observations, Mahler et al. (1975) revealed that the infants of mothers displaying depressive symptoms or unpredictable behaviors experienced either delayed or early signs of differentiation. For instance, infants tightly enmeshed by their mothers had difficulty in distinguishing their mothers from others. Mahler et al. (1975) highlighted that it is important for mothers to adjust their behaviors according to developing independent capabilities of their infants.

The practicing stage follows the differentiation and it is observed between the tenth and fifteenth months of the infant (Mahler & La Perriere, 1965). At this stage, the infant's mobility progressively increases as he/she becomes more advanced in crawling and eventually starts to walk (Mahler et al., 1975). The toddler is fascinated by his/her physical abilities and excited by his/her exploration of the physical world (Mahler & La Perriere, 1965). One of the main features of this stage is the toddler's great investment of his/her time, effort, and energy in his/her developing capacities and expanding world of objects (Mahler & La Perriere, 1965). He/she greatly focuses on his/her occupations and sometimes becomes unaware of what his/her mother is doing or where she is (Mahler & La Perriere, 1965). However, the emotional support of the mother is important so that the child can fully engage in his/her activities (Mahler et al., 1975). When the toddler gets tired of with his/her activities, he/she needs physical contact with the mother and gets it by touching her, embracing her

legs, or relying on her legs (Mahler & La Perriere, 1965). Through this way, the child regains his/her energy to turn back to the pursuits of the outer world. However, if the mother does not provide optimal attention and support to the child, the child spends most of his/her energy to get the attention of the mother and could not show an interest his/her developing abilities and could not practice with the other "objects" in the outer world (Mahler et al., 1975). Moreover, at this stage fathers show more vigorous reactions toward their child's developing physical capabilities by engaging in physically fostering activities with him/her (Applegate, 1987). Thus, it is proposed that fathers may function as a secure ground for the child to invest in practicing with outer world (Applegate, 1987). Through the end of the practicing phase, the toddler increasingly realizes the physical separateness of the mother and gets into short-winded mourning states in which he/she turns to inward, and his interest to the environment decreases (Mahler et al., 1975). It is the precursor of the forthcoming compelling stage of separation-individuation.

The third stage of separation of individuation is named "rapprochement" which covers the fourteen to twenty-two months of age (Mahler & La Perriere, 1965). At the beginning of this stage, the child turns his/her attention back to the mother and wants her to share his/her explorations (Mahler et al., 1975). As the cognitive abilities of the child develop, he/she begins to better understand the discordance between him/her and the mother (Mahler et al., 1975). The more he/she practices with the reality and the more he/she sees that the mother is not always capable of relieving his/her pain in the face of disappointments of the outer world, his/her omnipotent beliefs about himself/herself, about the mother, and their duality are deeply shaken (Mahler & La Perriere, 1965). It initiates a "rapprochement crisis" in which the child feels weak, helpless, restless, angry, and discontented (Mahler et al., 1975). He/she seems to feel ambiguity between regressively closing to the mother and distancing himself/herself from her such that he/she follows the mother like her shadow and at the same time runs away from her (Mahler et al., 1975). The child fears losing the love of his/her primary object and copes with increasing absences of the mother by splitting the parts of the self and mother as "good" and "bad" (Mahler

et al., 1975). On some occasions, the child disowns the disrupted unity with the mother and treats her as an extension of the self by using his/her jests or gestures rather than using language (Mahler et al., 1975). As the stage progresses, the child is expected to relinquish his/her omnipotent beliefs, to handle his/her wishes and fantasies through symbolic plays, and to express his demands by using words (Mahler et al., 1975). At this time point, mothers need to recognize the conflicts of their children, approach them with patience, and support their autonomous characteristics which help them tolerate their anger, aggression, or vulnerabilities (McDevitt, 1979). Moreover, the role of fathers in this period becomes more salient as less disputed figures of reality that help children dissolve the confusion (Applegate, 1987).

The last phase of the separation-individuation process is called "object constancy" which mostly maintains between the twentieth and thirty sixth months, but its development sustains as the children faces different developmental tasks (Mahler et al., 1975). In this phase, the children who can overcome rapprochement crisis experience more tolerance to absence of primary objects, greet their mothers more peacefully during the returns, have more cohesive representations of both themselves and their mothers which promotes their autonomous functioning in the absence of their mothers (Mahler et al., 1975). Through the help of gradually developing imitations, internalizations, and identifications with the positive features of primary caregivers, children achieve to construct and internalize a favorable and reliable image of the mothers that help them to soothe themselves in distressing times (McDevitt, 1979). However, the children having difficulty in dissolving the conflicts of rapprochement phase could not join the "good" and "bad" sides of the object (i.e., the mother) together and hence could not find a balance between their libidinal and aggressive drives (Mahler et al., 1975). They may absorb a "bad" image of the mother and they may identify with this "bad" introject which carries the risk of destroying "good" aspects of the self and others (Mahler et al., 1975). In these children the last phase of the separation-individuation process is characterized by the dominance of splitting defense, a burst of anger, and frustrated reactions to the

absence of mother (Mahler et al., 1975). This unresolved rapprochement crisis is shown as the underlying dynamics in the personality disturbances faced later in life (McDevitt, 1979).

1.2.1 Separation-Individuation Related Difficulties and Personality Disorders

According to Mahler (1971), when the inner conflicts about phases of separation-individuation, especially the rapprochement stage could not be construed, these conflicts remain unresolved by complicating the later developmental stages and dominate one's personality functioning in adulthood. The prominent separation-individuation struggles manifested in adulthood are described as heightened uneasiness to psychological separation due to the lack of reliable and stable internalized representation of the other; perceiving self and others in a fragmented style as "all good" or "all bad" (i.e., splitting); difficulties in distinguishing the boundaries between self and others, and relationship problems arisen from difficulties in relating trustfully to others and controlling others' behaviors in relationships to keep them close to oneself or to prevent oneself from being harmed by them (Christenson & Wilson, 1985; Mahler, 1971). These characteristic features of separation-individuation difficulties were mostly identified through clinical works conducted with patients having personality disorders (Kramer & Akhtar, 1988; Mahler, 1971).

In subsequent empirical studies, separation-individuation struggles were mostly studied in relation to borderline personality disorder (BPD) (Beeney, Hallquist, Ellison, & Levy, 2016). Specifically, patients with BPD features displayed more problems in distinguishing themselves from others; they present difficulties in sustaining their unique features in the presence of others, emotionally distancing their self from others, or preoccupying with the impression they would have on others (Beeney et al., 2016). Moreover, differentiation-related difficulties were also found in the Rorschach test of patients having BPD (Coonerty, 1986). Another separation-individuation related difficulty prominent in individuals with borderline personality features was a split understanding of themselves and others, and

difficulty in unifying the opposing or discrepant features of both parties (Bender & Skodol, 2007). It was underlined that splitting serves as a defense to prevent one's aggressive drives from destroying "good" sides of the other in BPD (Kernberg, 1966 as cited in Grala 1980). The "bad" features of the other are undertaken as parts of oneself at the expense of sustaining attachment with others, which, however, leaves one's self vulnerable and helpless and maintains constant dependency to others (Bender & Skodol, 2007; Greene, Rosenkrantz, & Muth, 1985). The separation-individuation dynamics related to dependent and avoidant personality disorders, in which the self is similarly devalued while others are dignified, were not much empirically researched in the literature; however, some studies showed that marked separation anxiety emerged early in life seems to be common in both disorders (Loas et al., 2002; Silove, Marnane, Wagner, & Manicavasagar, 2010). Beeney et al. (2015) also showed that people with avoidant personality characteristics had difficulty in distinguishing their emotions and thoughts from those of others. The researchers attributed these differentiation problems to the rejection sensitivity of avoidant individuals which makes them overly alert to others' emotional states while hindering awareness and expression of their internal states. These studies, therefore, indicate that separation-individuation struggles may be critical in sustaining worthless sense of self and overvalued images of others in these PDs.

At first look, separation-individuation related struggles may not seem like an issue of concern for PDs in which the self is viewed as more self-sufficient while others were discredited (e.g., narcissistic personality disorder). However, theoretical considerations, clinical observations, and some limited empirical research indicate that individuals with such PDs experience difficulties in forming an integrated sense of self and relating with others reciprocally and flexibly (Akhtar, 1987; Larochelle et al., 2010; Perry, Presniak, & Olson, 2013). Regarding PDs in which the self is glorified, the common separation-individuation theme was intolerance to negative aspects of the self (Bornstein, 1998; Perry et al., 2013). Splitting was found as a common defense mechanism in patients with narcissistic and antisocial personality disorder (Perry et al., 2013). The researchers suggested that splitting served these

individuals to sustain a purified positive self-image along with the help of other defenses such as devaluation or omnipotence. That is, they are inclined to keep undesirable characteristics about themselves away from awareness of self and others. Individuals having obsessive-compulsive personality features were also overly sensitive to their displeasing parts, which they compulsively try to distance from the self (Guidano & Liotti, 1983). Regarding boundary problems experienced by individuals having these personality disturbances, however, there are conflicting findings in the literature. A study conducted with adolescents showing antisocial behaviors indicated that they have difficulty in distinguishing borders between self and others in their drawings (Miller, Atlas, & Arsenio, 1993), while people having antisocial personality disorder did not experience problems in asserting themselves and distinguishing their emotions in the existence of others (Beeney et al., 2015). However, clinical works conducted with individuals having narcissistic and antisocial characteristics pointed out the self-regulatory function of the "other" for these individuals. In other words, they generally think that they have the power to control or manipulate others' thoughts and behaviors in a way to maintain the image of an all-powerful self indicating that they are likely to ignore the boundaries between themselves and others (Hofer, 1989; Luchner, 2013).

Separation-individuation difficulties were also observed in individuals constructing self-other representations rather ambivalently (e.g., individuals with schizoid and paranoid personality tendencies) (Akhtar, 1987; Akhtar, 1990). Case studies indicated that individuals showing schizoid and paranoid features resort to a severe splitting mostly accompanied by a projection that puts others into a mistrustful position (Rosa, 2015). This mechanism leaves them in a position where they mostly preoccupy with their inner worlds by withdrawing themselves from others. The function of this clear-cut boundary between the self and others, on the other hand, is shown as a defense against their unconscious demand for contact and dependence, and a protector for the self, consisting of various insecurities (Akhtar, 1987). Thus, individuals displaying different PDs or PD features experience similar separation-individuation difficulties in rather different ways that might be related to

distinctive perceptions of self and others in these personalities. In order to better understand how separation-individuation difficulties are processed in people with different personality beliefs, it may be important to consider how they handle emotions accompanying to separation-individuation process in a broader context of relationships with parents.

1.2.1.1 Shame and Anger Proneness and Personality Disorders

Shame and anger as being early rooted emotions help individuals to cope with certain developmental challenges and to progress to later stages (Lemerise & Dodge, 2008; Mills, 2005). The feeling of shame initiates the internalization of societal norms and facilitates the regulation of behaviors accordingly (Muris & Meesters, 2013). Similarly, anger has a survival value which helps individuals to defend themselves toward threats beginning from birth (Lemerise & Dodge, 2008). The first signs of shame emerge during toddlerhood years (Mills, 2005). According to the object-relational perspective, the increasing affective discordance with the mother and increasing awareness of impaired union with her during the practicing phase stimulates an emotional state resembling shame in the child (Schore, 1991). It is described as an overwhelming state in which the child's attention toward the outer world decreases sharply and the pleasant feelings of curiosity and exploration fade away (Schore, 1991). It was highlighted that this emotional state has developmental importance for the child to develop the capacity to feel shame (Schore, 1991). For child to gain this capacity, he/she must experience small doses of frustration mostly provided by the parent so that he/she gradually renounces his/her grandiose feelings. In that process, caregivers' emotional responsiveness and availability to help the child to regulate this emotional state and facilitate the internalization of a "good" object which allows the child to tolerate more intense shame and anger that arouses in later stages (Schore, 1991). This developing capacity of the child to experience shame ensures the understanding of the mother's separateness and balances the inordinate anger emerging as a response to increasing realization of separation in the rapprochement phase (Broucek, 1982). Too much shame or too much anger in the

absence of a reliable and regulating parent or caregiver impede the separation-individuation process by obstructing the identification with parental figures (Broucek, 1982). According to Broucek (1982), early exposure to repeated unregulated shame is related to a child's attempt to symbiotically re-connect with the mother and incorporation of shame to the self. Similarly, overdoses of anger inhibit the child from internalizing a "good" other which helps him/her to maintain a calm state of mind in the absence of the mother (Winnicott, 1958). Thus, shame and anger emerge as adaptive emotions; however, early failures in handling these emotions may leave these emotions in intense and unresolved state.

Shame includes one's criticism and condemnation of the self because of actions falling short of one's ideals or expectations (Lewis, 1995). It is described as a painful affect since negative attributions target the whole self which forces individuals to disguise themselves (Lewis, 1995). In shame proneness (i.e., trait shame), individuals are frequently prompt to feel this way under different situations (Tangney, Wagner, & Gramzow, 1992). Similarly, anger proneness (i.e., trait anger) refers to a constant state of feeling of unfocused anger and readiness to show angry reactions (Turner, Russell, Glover, & Hutto, 2007). Anger proneness as an aspect of neuroticism is widely studied in relation to psychological problems and it is found as a common characteristic of PDs (Howells, 2009). However, PDs do not show similar features concerning shame (Schoenleber & Berenbaum, 2012). Shame-proneness is one of the prominent features of BPD which exists in both implicit and explicit levels (Rüsch et al., 2007). It is an important agent in shaping negative self-perceptions of individuals having borderline personality features (Winter, Bohus, & Lis, 2017). Shame in borderline personality directs individuals to split the self and others in a particular way in which the self is predominantly inferior while the other is powerful (Fisher, 1985). Moreover, shame was found to be consistently associated with the anger and aggressive reactions in individuals having borderline personality traits (Scheel et al., 2013). It is suggested that shame and accompanying self-degradation may underlie the behaviors in which anger targeted at self (e.g., self-injury) in BPD (Scheel et al., 2013). Similar to BPD, shame proneness is among the observable

features of dependent and avoidant personality disorders (Schoenleber & Berenbaum, 2010). Shame seems to be readily accessible to individuals having these personality features as understood from their self-reports (Schoenleber & Berenbaum, 2010). It was revealed that a high disposition to shame was related to increasing dependency on other people (Maracic, 2019). The author indicated that shame together with dependency needs exacerbates one's weak sense of being (Maracic, 2019). Therefore, shame by impeding one's autonomous functions may promote a negative perception of self underlying some particular personality disturbances.

The association of shame with other personality disorders including inflated and ambivalent self-configuration has a more complex nature because of the preventive or distracting ways of shame coping in these disorders (Schoenleber & Berenbaum, 2012). It is argued that shame plays a central role in the development of narcissistic and antisocial personality disorders (Wright, 1987). Empirical studies, on the other hand, revealed inconsistent findings in this regard. Narcissistic and psychopathic personality features were found to be either unrelated or negatively related to frequent states of shame in community samples (Salekin, Chen, Sellbom, Lester, & MacDougall, 2014; Schoenleber & Berenbaum, 2012). However, patients with narcissistic personality disorder scored higher on shame proneness as compared to non-clinical controls (Ritter et al., 2012). Similarly, shame proneness was related to higher antisocial personality features among offenders (Tangney, Stuewig, Mashek, & Hastings, 2011). Individuals showing narcissistic and obsessive-compulsive personality symptoms reported to perceive shame as a painful and unbearable emotion and after controlling this aspect of shame, these personality features were not associated with shame proneness (Schoenleber & Berenbaum, 2012). It may indicate that people having inflated personality beliefs use strategies to prevent shame from occurring (e.g., struggle to achieve perfection in obsessive-compulsive personality) or to keep it away from the self through externalization of anger or distracting the attention (Campbell & Elison, 2005; Schoenleber & Berenbaum, 2012). Through this way, they can refrain from experiencing shame

painfully, and thus, their glorious self-image can remain intact. Regarding other personality disorders holding rather conflicting self and other representations (i.e., schizoid, paranoid, and passive-aggressive), there is a dearth of research in terms of shame proneness. Researchers indicated that individuals showing schizoid and paranoid personality characteristics may confront with shame traumatically early in life due to the adverse parenting experiences and develop a sensitivity to shame, which they try to control and soothe through social disengagement or passive retaliation fantasies on which they repeatedly think over (Matens, 2010; Schoenleber & Berenbaum, 2012). Similar to this consideration, Pinto-Gouveia, Matos, Castilho, and Xavier (2014) indicated that exposure to early traumatic shame experiences increases paranoid thinking through the perception of shame inducing others. To sum up, shame proneness seems to be an important factor to understand how self-other representations are established and how anger might be processed in different PDs. However, to better grasp the role of these emotions in personality, early parental interactions that pave the way for the development of personality disorder beliefs must be considered.

1.3 Early Parental Experiences and Personality Disorders

1.3.1 Early Perceived Parenting Styles

As mentioned in previous sections, early caregiving practices are important in shaping the personality formation processes of individuals. It has been suggested that self and other representations are also formed through interactions with parents or caregivers (Otani, Suzuki, Matsumoto, & Shirata, 2018). Favorable parenting including the affectionate approach of both mothers and fathers was prospectively related to resilient personality features in the offspring during adulthood (Johnson, Liu, & Cohen, 2011). However, some adverse parenting behaviors such as "unaffectionate, rejecting, over-controlling or overprotective" parenting practices contribute to the development of personality disorder features later in life (Johnson, Cohen, Chen, Kasen, & Brook, 2006). Thus, early parenting behaviors need to be

taken into consideration to better understand how particular self-other organizations are formed in personality disorders.

Parental behaviors consisting of high affection (e.g., love, care, and attentiveness) and low control (e.g., intrusiveness, over-protectiveness) were defined as optimal parenting and inordinate parental behaviors either one or both of these domains were related to problematic behaviors occurring in adulthood (Parker, Tuplin, & Brown, 1979). Parenting characterized by controlling/protective and indifferent, cold behaviors of parents is named as "affectionless control" (Parker et al., 1979). Subsequent studies indicated that experiencing such parenting style during childhood was related to attributing negative characteristics to the self in adulthood (Otani et al., 2014; Otani et al., 2018). Studies on personality disorders in which self-perception is predominantly negative also support this finding. Bornstein (1992), investigating the etiology of dependent personality disorder, showed that controlling and unaffectionate parenting played a role in the development of the disorder; however, over-protective and intrusive parenting seemed to be a relatively consistent predictor in discriminating patients with dependent personality disorder from the controls (Head, Baker, & Williamson, 1991). Concerning avoidant personality disorder, patients reported to perceive high control and coldness from both parents (Eikenaes, Egeland, Hummelen, & Willberg, 2015); however, unaffectionate, rejecting, or criticizing parenting especially in the part of fathers was a more prominent and distinguishing feature of parenting reported by patients with avoidant personality disorder (Stravynaski, Elie, & Franche, 1989). As for borderline personality disorder, studies conducted with community samples showed that both over-controlling and emotionally distant parenting perceived from both parents were predictive of borderline personality features (Zielinski, Borders, & Giancola, 2015). In an extensive review study, Boucher et al. (2017), however, indicated the cold, rejecting, and unstable maternal behaviors were specific to the BPD patient group. Thus, the combination of intrusive, overly controlling/protective, and unresponsive and rejecting parenting practices may have importance in the formation of a negative self-image in dependent, avoidant, and borderline PDs.

The literature indicated that inadequate and conflicting early parenting behaviors play a role in the development of an inflated sense of being observed in narcissistic, histrionic, antisocial, and obsessive-compulsive personality disorders (Cater, Zeigler-Hill, & Vonk, 2011; Nordahl & Stiles, 1997; Schorr et al., 2020). Regarding narcissistic personality, theoretical views emphasized that either "over-indulgent, praising, permissive" or "emotionally distant, rejecting, over-controlling" parenting fosters the emergence of grandiose and entitled self (Cater et al., 2011). However, empirical findings mostly indicate that these two distinct parental approaches mostly occur concomitantly in the recollections of individuals showing entitled and exploitative narcissistic features (Horton, Bleau, & Drwecki, 2006; Otway & Vignoles, 2006). Otway and Vignoles (2006) showed that over-appraising and rejecting parental attitudes in early childhood were both related to grandiose narcissistic features in a community sample of adults. Similarly, young adults displaying higher maladaptive narcissistic traits reported to experience both emotional warmth and withdrawal of the warmth through psychological control of parents (e.g., guilt-induction) during early childhood (Horton et al., 2006). Parents' permissiveness or inconsistency in setting boundaries either loosely or rigidly were also reported by individuals showing symptoms of histrionic and antisocial personality disorders (Batoool, Shehzadi, Riaz, & Riaz, 2017). The rejecting, cold, and affectionless parenting perceived from both mother and father were also a consistent predictor of antisocial personality features in different studies (Schorr et al., 2020). However, there were inconsistent findings regarding the overprotective parenting in antisocial personality (Schorr et al., 2020). As for obsessive-compulsive personality disorder, over-controlling, intrusive parenting, and accompanying parental criticism and disapproval for the child's behaviors conflicting with parental expectations were suggested as common parental practices (Pollak, 1987). It was also supported by an empirical finding indicating the association between overprotective and rejecting paternal behavior and increasing symptoms of obsessive-compulsive personality disorder (Nordahl & Stiles, 1997). It was proposed that this unpredictability in parents' behaviors hinders the autonomous attempts of children

and impels them to develop an inflated self to prevent exterior threats (Otway & Vignoles, 2006; Pollak, 1987).

Studies also pointed the role of parenting in the formation of ambivalent self-views and untrustworthy perception of others in schizoid, paranoid, and passive-aggressive personality disorders (Lyddon & Sherry, 2001). An ambivalent mother-child relation early in life was highlighted in schizoid personality disorder (Akhtar, 1987). According to Guntrip (1969), the separations and reunions with the mother were experienced harshly during the infancy and early childhood in schizoid personality (as cited in Matens, 2010). The early experiences of individuals showing features of schizoid personality are vacillated between feelings of both absorption and rejection from the mother. Moreover, the lack of sufficient parental care in meeting especially the social and emotional needs of the child was also underscored in the development of schizoid personality (Lenzenweger, 2010). Early emotional aloofness and obvious demeaning attitudes of parents were predictive of schizoid and paranoid personality disorder symptoms (Johnson et al., 2006). In a study conducted with a patient group, researchers found out that the group consisting of individuals having schizoid, paranoid, and schizotypal personality disorders had the highest scores in maternal over-protectiveness and parental coldness as compared to groups consisting of individuals displaying other personality disorders (Paris, Frank, Buonvino, & Bond, 1991). Regarding passive-aggressive personality, there is not much empirical study indicating the role of early parental-rearing behaviors. However, a few studies showed that obstruction of autonomy through parental behaviors as well as harsh or punitive parenting practices may play a role in the formation of passive-aggressive personality disorder features (Johnson et al., 2006; Xu et al., 2016). Lyddon and Sherry (2001) suggested that parents' emotional disconnectedness with the child and disrespectful attitudes toward him/her form the basis of a socially detached and hostile stance of individuals with these personality features. These studies, therefore, may indicate that a distinctive pattern of early parental behaviors may be influential in the formation of different views of self and others in PDs.

1.3.2 Early Role Reversal with Parents

Parental rearing practices are important in determining the relational dynamics between the parent and the child and the position of the child in this relationship. Role reversal refers to inversed and improper roles between the parent and child in which the parent departs from the adult role either consciously or unconsciously and the child begins to act like an adult (Macfie, McElwain, Houts, & Cox, 2005). In such a relationship, the child may assume a variety of adult roles such as being a caregiver, soother, supporter, confidant, or peacemaker. In literature, these roles are defined by using different concepts either more broadly or narrowly in different theoretical approaches (Macfie, Brumariu, & Lyons-Ruth, 2015).

The term "parentification" was first suggested by the family theories to indicate the instrumental tasks that the child assumes to support the prosperity of the family (Minuchin, Montalvo, Guerney, Rosman, & Schumer, 1967). Boszormeny-Nagy and Spark (1973) broadened the concept to encompass the emotional aspects of this role. That is, the parent takes upon a childlike role and expects the offspring to fulfill his/her needs of care, nurturance, guidance, and instrumental support, which mostly were not met in his/her family of origin. Kerig (2005) described role reversal as an aspect of violation of the invisible borders between parent-child and underscores two different roles assumed by the child in addition to parentification, namely "adultification" and "spousification". In adultification, the child companies to the parent like his/her close friend and takes a role in the marital relationship between mother and father as solving the conflicts or as forming a coalition with one party against the other (Kerig, 2005). Spousification occurs when the parent treats the child as a partner by flirting, demanding affection and physical closeness, or by projecting an inordinate hostility toward the child by comparing him/her with the spouse or partner (Kerig, 2005). In the review of the literature, Macfie et al. (2015) suggested using "role confusion" or "role reversal" as a broad and an inclusive term to describe these three different reversed roles (i.e., "child as a parent", "child as a friend", "child as a partner").

The longitudinal and observational studies indicated that role confusion was mostly initiated through parental behaviors and reciprocated by the child in early childhood (Bureau, Easlerbrooks, & Lyons-Ruth, 2009) and this relational pattern continues a long period of time by encompassing different developmental stages (Vulliez-Coady, Obsuth, Torreiro-Casal, & Lyons-Ruth, 2013). It was found that maternal parenting during infancy was related to controlling behaviors of school-aged children, which are considered as early indicators of role reversal (Bureau et al., 2009). Specifically, insensitive or incapable maternal behaviors during infancy were predictive of caring behaviors of children toward the mothers at eight years of age. It was also indicated that intrusive maternal behaviors such as overtly demanding for a child's affection were also related to controlling behaviors in children but in a rather punitive manner (e.g., domineering or commanding the parent) (Solomon & George, 2008). These controlling behaviors observed in children are interpreted as attempts to gain a sense of control over their environments, which had been experienced as chaotic and frightening for them (Solomon, George, & De Jong, 1995). Additionally, Zeanah and Klitzke (1991) highlighted the role confusion underlying anxious and overprotective parenting such that mothers unconsciously expect their children to regulate their anxiety by demanding them to behave in certain ways. Although they reflect different parenting behaviors, what common to all of these parenting behaviors is that the needs and demands of the parent dominate the relationship while the child's needs are mostly ignored. From an attachment perspective, it was argued that by engaging in role confused behaviors and by turning the focus to the parent, the child feels secure and gains attention to some extent and avoids rejecting and cold attitude of the parent; however, it results in significant developmental costs for the child prolonging to the adulthood (Solomon et al., 1995).

Role confusion with parents early in life impedes the developing autonomy of the child (Jacobwitz, Morgan, Kretchmar, & Morgan, 1991). The child could not much concentrate on his/her developing capabilities and exploration of the environment since most of his/her energy is consumed by his/her preoccupation with the emotional state of the parent (Macfie et al., 2015). Moreover, the independent

capacity of the child is not sufficiently supported by the parents and in fact, it could be hindered by their intrusive acts (Jacobwitz et al., 1991). Solomon and colleagues (1995) showed that role confused behaviors of preschool aged children were related to unresolved separation anxiety observed in the plays of children. These unmet developmental needs are hopelessly tried to be fulfilled during adulthood. For instance, Maysel and Scharf (2009) showed that girls experiencing role reversal with their parents during adolescence were likely to maintain their infantile dependency needs to parents and reacted overly to separation-related situations during early adulthood.

Moreover, the early experience of role reversal withholds individuals from identifying their internal states and adopting effective regulatory strategies for these internal experiences, which make them vulnerable to many psychological difficulties later in life (Bellow, Boris, Larrieu, Lewis, & Elliot, 2005). In line with that, numerous studies showed that retrospective memories of parentification (i.e., child as a parent) and role reversal in childhood were associated with a range of psychopathological symptoms reported in adulthood including the symptoms of anxiety, eating pathology, alcohol misuse, obsessive beliefs, and depression (Dragan & Hardt, 2016; Hooper, DeCoster, White, & Voltz, 2011; Katz, Petracca, & Rabinowitz, 2009; Köyden, 2015; Rowa, Kerig, & Geller, 2001). However, some adult roles, especially the instrumental ones (e.g., cooking, shopping, cleaning), assumed by the child may not lead to negative outcomes for the child unless they are appropriate for the child age, clearly defined, temporary, recognized, and supported by the parent (Chase, 1999). The emotional aspect of the role reversal experienced early in life (e.g., comforting a distressed parent; making a decision instead of the parent), on the other hand, is more detrimental for the child because it is mostly beyond the capabilities of the child, more distressing, ambiguous, and long-lasting (Macfie et al., 2015).

There has been limited research regarding the association between early role reversal and personality pathology. Assuming caregiving and nurturing role toward parents in childhood was found to be related to the high propensity to feel shame and

a tendency to feel constantly doubtful about one's success despite the overt evidence (Castro, Jones, & Mirsalimi, 2004; Wells & Jones, 2000). According to Wells and Jones (1998), this inadequate sense of the self develops as a result of early parental failures regarding disproportionate expectations exceeding the capacity of the child as well as lack of attention to the child's developmental difficulties and accompanying emotions. By using different splitting strategies, either introjecting or projecting adverse experiences of self and by exposing to different parenting behaviors, parentified children showed self-sacrificing and narcissistic personality features (Jones & Wells, 1996; Wells & Jones, 1998). Moreover, role reversed behaviors with parents were mostly studied in relation to BPD in the literature. A longitudinal study measuring role reversal through observational methods in childhood indicated that a child's controlling behaviors in a caregiving style toward the parent in middle childhood were related to borderline personality features in adulthood (Lyons-Ruth, Bureau, Holmes, Easterbrooks, & Brooks, 2013). Retrospective studies conducted with patients having borderline personality disorder also indicated that borderline patients reported more accounts of childhood role reversal as compared to other patient groups (Lyons-Ruth, Melnick, Patrick, & Hobson, 2007; Zanarini et al., 1997). It is asserted that borderline personality disorder may be originated from early role reversal experiences with parents (Macfie et al., 2015); however, to understand its relation with personality pathology more research is needed to be conducted including on other personality disorders wherein self perception is organized rather differently.

Studies on role reversal with parents highlighted some demographic variables and parental factors facilitating the process of role reversal in childhood. Regarding gender, most studies indicate that females are more likely to engage in role reversal with their parents as compared to males (Burnett, Jones, Bliwise, & Ross, 2006). However, there are also contrary findings indicating no gender differences in role reversal (Hooper et al., 2011). Garber (2011) pointed out that parent-child gender match must be considered while studying the role reversal. Moreover, parental separation, low socioeconomic status of the family, and being an elder child of the

family were also considered as risk factors for the emergence of role reversal (Burton, 2007; Garber, 2011). As for parental factors, chronic physical illnesses (e.g., AIDS) and psychological problems (e.g., alcohol dependency, depression) in the parents also contributed to the development of early role reversal (Burnett et al., 2006; Tompkins, 2007; Van Parys et al., 2015). Bagett, Shaffer, and Muetzelfeld (2015) showed that being aware of parents' illness while rearing diminishes the adverse impacts of parentification in adulthood. The authors argued that such knowledge of the parental illness may make the process justifiable for the child to some extent. On the other hand, parental personality pathology may be a more latent initiator of the role reversal during childhood since its symptoms are less likely to be recognized and defined by the child and its effects on the child may emerge early in life and remain stable relatively a long time. However, there is a dearth of research investigating the association between parental personality pathology and early role confused behaviors in the literature.

1.4 Personality Disorders in Parents and Offspring

Parental personality pathology is another familial factor playing an important role in the formation of PD features in individuals. It was shown that PD features in parents were related to the emergence of similar personality characteristics in the offspring (Blazei, Iacono, & Krueger, 2006). Dutton, Denny-Keys, and Sells (2014) indicated that behavioral and emotional problems (e.g., obsessive-symptoms) displayed by children during childhood resembled the PD features of their parents (e.g., obsessive-compulsive personality traits). However, personality features of children and adolescents are amenable to change during the developmental process (De Haan, Dekovic, Van den Akker, Stoltz, & Prinzie, 2013). The personality of individuals gains more stability as they move through adulthood. Studies comparing PD features of parents and their adult children, however, were restricted in the literature and mostly focused on borderline and antisocial PD traits. Barnow et al. (2013) conducted a longitudinal study with adolescents and their mothers and showed that features of BPD observed in mothers when their offspring was 15 years

of age were associated with BPD symptoms of their offspring five years later (at age 20). Auty, Farrington, and Coid (2015) found a resemblance between the psychopathic personality traits of fathers and their adult offspring. These studies indicate that disturbed personality features of both mothers and fathers continue in the next generation. However, there are many points in this area that have not yet been clarified, such as how this transmission takes place, whether it occurs through the same path in mothers and fathers, and whether the gender of parent and child affects this transference.

Shared genetic makeup between parents and their offspring is one of the plausible grounds explaining the similarity of PD features in parent-child dyad (Cadoret, Troughton, Bagford, & Woodworth, 1990). However, studies conducted with adoptive parents indicated that environmental factors are equally important as genetic endowment (Blazei et al., 2006). It was shown that PD diagnosis and features of parents create a disruption in their behaviors toward their children (Dutton, Denny-Keys, & Sells, 2011). Parenting behaviors, emerging as a result of different PDs in parents, may show both similar and distinctive features since PD traits resemble each other in many aspects but they also diverge from each other regarding different interpersonal difficulties resulting from different self-other perceptions pertaining to PDs (Akyunus & Gençöz, 2020). Organizing findings related to parenting practices of parents with PDs is difficult since studies in this area were conducted with different methodologies (e.g., observing parent-child interactions, parenting measured based on reports of either parents or children etc.) encompassing different age groups. However, there are some consistencies in parenting regarding certain PDs across the studies (Stepp, Whalen, Pilkonis, Hipwell, & Levine, 2011). The majority of studies focused on BPD diagnosis and symptoms in parents. In a systematic review, it was concluded that mothers with borderline personality functioning were more likely to display inconsistent parenting in which they alternate between being overly concerned with their children (e.g., overprotection, intrusiveness) and showed discontent, detachment, or hostility toward them (Eyden, Winsper, Wolke, Broome, & MacCallum, 2016). Indifferent, aloof, and insensitive

parental behaviors were related to antisocial and histrionic personality traits of parents (Wilson & Durbin, 2012). Physical misbehavior of parents toward their children was also revealed in parents with antisocial personality features (Dutton et al., 2011). Parental intrusiveness and intruding behaviors were observed in parents displaying features of narcissistic and obsessive-compulsive personality disorders in their interactions with preschool-aged children (Wilson & Durbin, 2012). The retrospective accounts of adult offsprings raised by narcissistic parents also confirmed the over-controlling behaviors of their parents but they also indicated that they exposed to parental devaluation, criticism, and shaming during their childhood (Dentale et al., 2015; Maatta & Uusiautti, 2018). A restrictive range of studies showed that parents with schizoid and paranoid personality disorder symptoms interacted with their child in a negative, critical, and controlling manner (DeMulder et al., 1995; Wilson & Durbin, 2012). The majority of these studies was conducted with mothers and investigated their parenting behaviors. Moreover, the gender of the offspring was not mostly taken into consideration. Recent studies, however, have been highlighted that parental psychopathology may differentially affect the parent-child relationship depending on the child's gender (Franz & McKinney, 2018; Verona & Sachs-Ericsson, 2005). For instance, Verona and Sachs-Ericsson (2005) revealed that parents' antisocial features predicted externalizing behaviors in female offspring through childhood abuse experiences of females and this indirect association was stronger in mother-daughter relationship. On the other hand, the indirect link between antisocial personality features of parents and male offspring through abuse experiences of males was not statistically significant. The researchers suggested that parental psychopathology may affect psychological difficulties through different parental influences in male and female offspring. Thus, conducting studies considering these limitations would further extend the existing findings regarding parents' personality disturbances and their parenting behaviors.

As the given literature shows parental personality pathology severely disrupts parents' ability to provide optimal parenting for their children. Poor parenting behaviors observed in parents with personality disturbances are suggested as possible

routes through which similar personality features were transmitted to the next generation (Dogan, Conger, Kim, & Masyn, 2007). Recent studies provided support for the transmission of borderline and antisocial PD features through negative parenting practices. Reinelt and colleagues (2014) revealed that borderline personality features in mothers were related to higher maternal protective and rejecting style, as reported by the offspring during adolescence, which later on, predicted offspring's BPD symptoms during early adulthood. The authors highlighted the importance of the unpredictability of the mother with borderline symptomatology in the emergence of BPD symptoms in the offspring. Dogan and colleagues (2007) found that parents' antisocial traits relate to antisocial features of adolescent offspring through indifferent but at the same time judgmental and punishing parenting. These few studies may show that the characteristic features of personality disorders are manifested in the parenting behaviors of parents through which the offspring gets an understanding of the self and others. However, more extensive research is needed to be conducted to better understand the role of parenting in the transmission of personality disorder features across generations.

Personality problems of parents also trigger role reversed interactions between parent and child both through problematic features inherited to these problems (e.g., emotional instability, identity confusion) and accompanying problem behaviors in parenting (Macfie, 2009). Studies conducted with mothers having BPD revealed that both mothers and their children seemed to be confused about their roles as compared to non-clinical mother-child dyads. Macfie and Swan (2009) studied with preschool-aged offsprings having mothers with BPD by using a story completion task in which children were asked to complete stories including familial conflicts. They found that children of mothers with BPD used more adult-like roles and expressions for the characters in the stories and described them more negatively as compared to children of mothers from the community sample. In another study, researchers observed mother-child interactions while they were solving puzzles and showed that mothers with BPD engaged in more role confused behaviors in their interactions with their children as compared to mothers in the control group (Macfie,

Kurdziel, Mahan, & Kors, 2017). Macfie and Kurdziel (2019) also found out that the association between mothers' borderline personality symptoms and role reversal experience of their children occurred through the heightened exposure of children to abuse both from their mothers and other people. The authors argued that maternal BPD and the co-occurring departure of children from their roles would result in a distorted perception of self and others in children which in turn might contribute to the later borderline personality functioning in adult offsprings. However, there is not any study empirically testing this assumption. Moreover, childhood role reversal was studied only in relation to BPD features in mothers. Thus, there is a gap in the literature regarding whether the emergence of role reversal in childhood is particular to borderline features of parents or other personality dysfunctions in parents also contribute to early role reversal experiences of individuals.

1.5 The Purposes of the Current Study

Considering the given literature, the current study mainly aims to investigate the psychodynamic factors (i.e., separation-individuation difficulties, emotional tendencies) and related familial dynamics (i.e., perceived parenting practices, early role reversal experiences, parental PD beliefs) that contribute to the formation and maintenance of distorted "self-other" beliefs (i.e., "deprecating", "inflated", and "ambivalent") related to different PDs in young adults. First of all, the relations among perceived parenting (i.e., paternal and maternal "warmth", "over-protection", and "rejection"), role reversal experiences, emotional tendencies (e.g., shame and anger proneness), and separation-individuation difficulties (i.e., "splitting", "differentiation", and "relationship problems"), and PD beliefs of young adults will be inquired. After that, the relations between PD beliefs of parents (i.e., "deprecating", "inflated", and "ambivalent") and early parental experiences (i.e., early parenting practices and role reversal) and PD beliefs of the female and male offspring will be explored. Finally, the mediating role of early parental experiences of the offspring in the transmission of PD beliefs in parents to the offspring will be tested via a set of separate mediation analyses (see Figure 1.1).

The hypotheses of this study are:

1. Early maternal and paternal rearing styles perceived by young adults will significantly predict their early role reversal experiences, emotional tendencies, separation-individuation difficulties, and PD beliefs.
2. After accounting for parental rearing practices, early role reversal experiences of young adults will also predict their emotional tendencies, separation-individuation difficulties, and PD beliefs.
3. After accounting for early parental experiences (i.e., perceived parenting and role reversal), emotional tendencies of young adults will significantly predict their separation-individuation related difficulties and personality disorder beliefs.
4. After accounting for early parental experiences and emotional tendencies, separation-individuation difficulties will significantly predict personality disorder beliefs in young adults.
5. Finally, personality disorder beliefs of parents will differentially relate to the perceived parenting styles and role reversal experiences of male and female offspring.
6. Personality disorder beliefs of parents will be associated with similar personality disorder beliefs in their young adult offspring (i.e., male and female) through the sequential role of early rearing and role reversal experiences of the offspring.

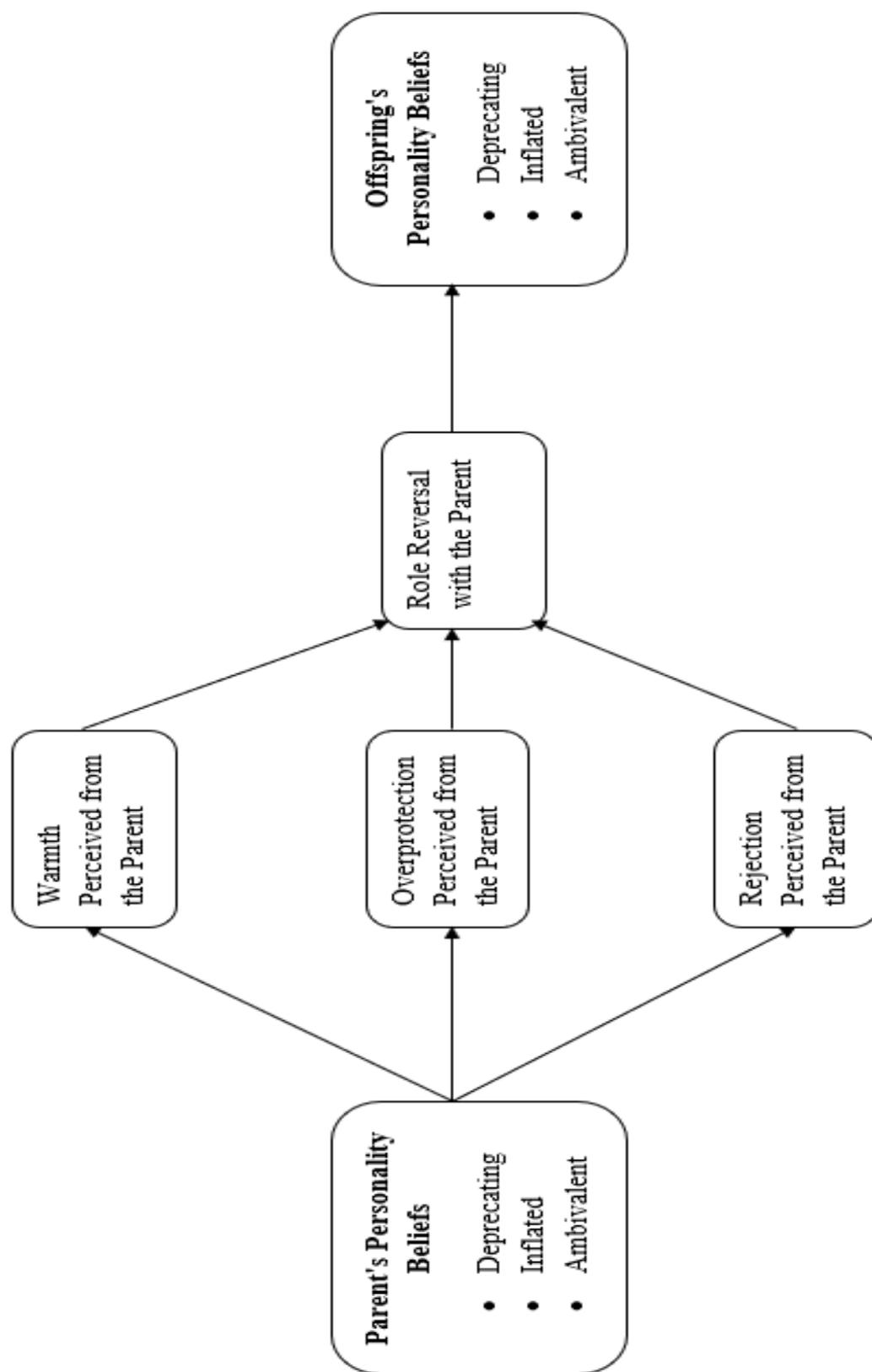


Figure 1.1 Suggested Meditational Model

CHAPTER 2

STUDY 1: PSYCHOMETRIC QUALITIES OF THE RELATIONSHIP WITH PARENTS SCALE (RPS) IN TURKISH CULTURE

2.1 Introduction

As previously stated, role reversal is a broad construct encompassing role exchanges between the parent and child in which the child is placed into the role of parent, partner, or friend by the parent (Macfie et al., 2005). Each role has a unique emotional burden on the child. In the literature, this construct is measured through either observational methods in which the interaction between parent and child were inspected and coded based on standardized schemes (e.g., Macfie et al., 2017) or through self-report instruments in which individuals evaluate their current or past relationship with parents regarding what extent it includes role reversal dynamics (e.g., Hooper, 2009). Generally, retrospective self-report methods were used to assess role reversal experiences during childhood. These measures mostly focused on the parenting role of the child (i.e., parentification), which is one of the aspects of role reversal including the mostly caregiving approach of the child toward the parents (Hooper, Doehler, Wallace, & Hannah, 2011). However, parentification is not necessarily arisen from disturbed relations in family or parent-child dyad, it may also occur due to some unusual conditions such as immigration (Jurkovic et al., 2004). The existence of other role confused behaviors accompanying to parentification (e.g., the child put into the place of the spouse), on the other hand, may more strongly indicate psychological dynamics underlying this relational pattern such as parents' difficulty in accepting psychological separateness of the child

(Kerig, 2005) or parents' unresolved conflicts experienced with their own parents (Macfie et al., 2005). Thus, measuring childhood role reversal with broader contracts would be more informative to understand psychological processes pertaining to parents and family in general.

Alexander (2003) developed "The Relationship with Parents Scale" (RPS) to assess retrospectively role reversal experiences of adults. The scale was constructed by considering attachment relationship between the parent and child and also the relationships in larger family context. That is, the author argued that the psychological unavailability of the caregiver and her angry responses toward the child when her expectations are not met by the child initiates a role reversing pattern; however, this relational pattern was shaped in the larger family context (Alexander, 2003). The scale assesses role reversal experiences of adults with both their mothers and fathers separately. It consists of role confused behaviors mostly initiated by parents and reciprocated by the child. These behaviors encompass the incompetence of the parent regarding taking the responsibility of the family, manipulative acts of the parent to attain the child's concern or interest, demands of the parent for the affection and accompany from the child, expectations of the parent for the guidance and assistance of the child, inappropriate behaviors of the parent as if the child is his/her spouse. The validity of the scale was tested through a set of familial predictors and psychological outcomes (Alexander, 2003). Specifically, a unified family structure in which the child relates equally with both parents was likely to prevent the occurrence of role reversal in the family. Moreover, physical maltreatment by the mother, exposure to sexual abuse, and a problematic marital relationship between parents were related to increased role reversal with the mother for the daughters. Moreover, paternal alcohol misuse and psychological difficulties also increased role reversal experiences of the child during childhood. Alexander (2003) also revealed that individuals engaging more role reversal with their parents during childhood were more likely to experience dissociative instances in their daily life and attached fearfully to others in that they fear closeness and disguise their feelings in relationships. Subsequent studies further supported the validity of the

scale by indicating significant associations between RPS and various psychopathological symptoms (Abraham & Stein, 2013), attachment related anxiety (Katz, Petracca, & Rabinowitz, 2009), and emotion regulation problems (Okado & Azar, 2011). Thus, considering the clinical utility of the RPS and the lack of a broad construct of role reversal in Turkish culture, the goal of the first study is to adapt the RPS into Turkish and test its reliability and validity in a Turkish sample.

2.2 Method

2.2.1 Participants

Data was collected from 328 adult participants through online data collecting program Qualtrics. Five participants who had experienced parental loss early in life and four participants who have had caregivers other than the mother and father were excluded from the data. Thus, data analysis was performed on the sample, consisting of 319 participants. Of the sample, 209 (65.5 %) participants were females, and 110 (34.5 %) participants were males. The ages of participants ranged between 18 and 63 ($M = 32.75$, $SD = 10.68$). Regarding education level, 16 (5 %) participants were high school graduates, 71 (22.3 %) participants were university students, 132 (41.4 %) participants were university graduates, and 100 participants were post-graduates (31.3 %). Participants mostly reported to have a middle-income level (78.1 %). In terms of working status, 202 (63.3 %) participants were working while 117 (36.7 %) participants were not currently working. In terms of marital status, 131 (41.1 %) participants reported to be single, 130 (40.8 %) participants reported to be married, and 56 (17.6 %) participants notified to be in a relationship. Of sample, 300 (94 %) participants reported to have a sibling and 19 (6 %) participants did not have a sibling. With respect to sibling order, 123 (38.6 %) participants were the first child, 117 (36.7 %) were the second child, and 59 participants (18.5 %) were in the third or higher sibling order. Regarding abuse history, 54 (16.9 %) participants reported to be abused in a period of their lives and 252 (79 %) participants did not report an abuse history. Of the sample, 67 (21 %) participants reported to have a family member with

a psychological disorder and 32 (10 %) participants themselves reported to have a psychological disorder. Table 2.1 represents the detailed description of participants' demographic information.

Test re-test reliability analysis of the Relationship with Parents Scale (RPS) was conducted with a smaller set of participants elicited from the sample ($N = 66$). It consisted of 48 (72.7 %) female and 18 (27.3 %) male participants. The mean age of the participants was 37.29 ($SD = 10.98$).

Table 2.1 Demographic Features of the Participants

Variables	<i>N</i> (319)	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Gender				
Female	209	65.5		
Male	110	34.5		
Age			32.75	10.68
Education				
High School Graduates	16	5.0		
University Students	71	22.3		
University Graduates	132	41.4		
Master Graduates	85	26.6		
Doctorate Graduates	15	4.7		
Income Level				
Low	39	12.2		
Middle	249	78.1		
High	31	9.7		
Working Status				
Working	202	63.3		
Not Working	117	36.7		
Marital Status				
Single	131	41.1		
Married	130	40.8		
In a Relationship	56	17.6		
Other	2	0.6		
Sibling Status				
Having Sibling	300	94		
Having No Sibling	19	6		
Birth Order ($N = 299$)				
First	123	38.6		
Second	117	36.7		

Table 2.1 (Cont'd)

Variables	<i>N</i> (319)	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Birth Order (<i>N</i> = 299)				
Third or Later	59	18.5		
Abuse History				
Having	54	16.9		
Not Having	265	83.1		
Psychological Disorder in the Family				
Having	67	21.0		
Not Having	252	79.0		
Current Psychological Disorder in the Participants				
Having	32	10.0		
Not Having	287	90.0		

2.2.2 Measures

The data was collected by using questionnaires. Questionnaires were composed of two sections. The first part included a demographic information form. The second part included self-report measures including "Relationship with Parents Scale" (RPS), "Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing" (S-EMBU), "Parentification Inventory" (PI), "Trait Shame and Guilt Scale" (TSGS), "State-Trait Anger Inventory" (STAI), and "Splitting Scale" (SS).

2.2.2.1 Demographic Information Form

Demographic information form was distributed to the participants in order to collect data about their demographic characteristics. It included questions about participants' age, gender, working status, marital status, education level, siblings, abuse history, and current psychological health status of participants and their family (see Appendix B).

2.2.2.2 Relationship with Parents Scale (RPS)

RPS was developed by Alexander (2003) to measure different role reversal experiences of individuals. It is a retrospective measure assessing emotionally

intense role reversal experiences with parents during childhood and adolescence. Items were designed to assess role reversal occurring due to the parents' apparent impotency in taking parental responsibility, parents' use of manipulation to take child's care and attention, immature behaviors of parents, parents' expectations for guidance of the child, parents' demands for the child's companionship, and parents acting like a friend, sibling or spouse toward the child. The scale consists of mother and father forms. Participants are asked to respond 21 items for each parent (e.g., "I was often preoccupied with understanding my father's mood", "I was often preoccupied with understanding my mother's mood"). Items are rated on a five-point Likert type scale (1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree) and higher scores are indicators of stronger role reversal with the parent. The internal consistency reliability of the scale was found to be .86 and .87 for role reversal with the mother and father, respectively. Test re-test reliability scores of the mother and father forms were found to be .70 and .82 among male participants and .82 and .88 among female participants, respectively. Significant associations of RPS with the measures of family dynamics, parental mental illness, unresolved/fearful attachment, and dissociative experiences supported its validity. In the current study, the psychometric properties of the Turkish RPS were investigated (see Appendix C).

2.2.2.3 Eгна Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing Short (Short-EMBU)

EMBU was first developed by Perris, Jacobsson, Lindström, von Knorring, and Perris (1980) as an 81-item, retrospective self-report measure with the aim of measuring perceived rearing behaviors of parents during childhood. The scale was reduced to 23 items in a later study (Arrindell et al., 1999). Items are rated on a four-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (never) to 4 (most of the time). It has three subscales namely "Rejection", "Emotional Warmth", and "Overprotection" which are assessed separately for mother and father. The "Rejection" subscale includes items representing critical, judgmental, or harsh parental behaviors. The "Emotional Warmth" subscale covers items reflecting supportive, accepting, and caring parenting

practices. The "Overprotection" subscale consists of items exemplifying anxious and controlling behaviors of parents. The subscales show consistent correlations with the measures of personality traits and self-esteem in the expected direction across cultures (Arrindell et al., 1999). S-EMBU was adapted to Turkish by Karancı et al. (2006). The factor structure of the Turkish form corresponded with the original scale. The internal consistency coefficients of the mother subscales were found .80, .76, .76 for rejection, emotional warmth, and overprotection, respectively. The internal consistency coefficients of the father subscales were found .82, .79, and .79 for rejection, emotional warmth, and overprotection, respectively. The validity of the scale was supported with various variables in a range of different studies (e.g., Dirik, Yorulmaz, & Karancı, 2015) (see Appendix D).

2.2.2.4 Parentification Inventory (PI)

PI was developed by Hooper (2009) in order to measure the level of parentification that individuals experienced before the age of 18. Participants are asked to respond by considering their childhood. It consists of 22 items rated on a five-point Likert type scale. It is composed of three subscales namely "Parent Focused Parentification" including 12 items, "Sibling Focused Parentification" including seven items, and "Perceived Benefits of Parentification" including three items. The internal consistency of the scale was found .84 for the whole scale and ranged between .79 and .86 for the subscales (Hooper, Doehler, Wallace, & Hannah, 2011). The PI was adapted to Turkish by Köyden and Uluç (2018). In the Turkish form, the three-factor structure of the original scale was preserved but some items of the "parent focused parentification" and "sibling focused parentification" subscales were endorsed to "perceived benefits of parentification" subscale. The internal consistency reliability of the subscales was found .83, .73, and .76 for the "parent focused parentification", "sibling focused parentification", and "perceived benefits of parentification" subscales, respectively. For the convergent validity, the subscales were significantly correlated with somatization, hostility, and obsessive-compulsive

and anxiety symptoms in females, but they had lower correlations with psychopathological symptoms in males (see Appendix E).

2.2.2.5 Trait Shame and Guilt Scale (TSGS)

Rohleder, Chen, Wolf, and Miller (2008) developed TSGS based on State Shame and Guilt Scale of Marschall, Saftner, and Tangney (1994) in order to evaluate enduring feelings of shame, guilt, and pride. In TSGS, participants report to what extent they felt shame, guilt, and pride during the past few months. It consists of 15 items scored on a five-point Likert-type scale (1 = "not feeling this way at all" and 5 = "feeling this way very strongly"). Higher scores obtained from the scale represent high frequency and intensity of the given emotion. The scale includes three factors namely, "Shame", "Guilt", and "Pride" and each factor includes five items. The internal consistency coefficient was found to be .74 for the shame, .76 for the guilt, and .74 for the pride subscale indicating adequate internal reliability. The test re-test reliability with a six-month interval was found to be .49.

The Turkish adaptation study of the scale was conducted by Bugay and Demir (2011). The factor structure of the Turkish version was found the same with the original scale. The internal consistency coefficient was found to be .83 for the shame, .81 for the guilt, and .87 for the pride subscale. For the validity of the scale, the correlation between Satisfaction with Life Scale and shame ($r = -.48$), guilt ($r = -.46$), and pride ($r = .39$) subscales of TSGS was found significant (see Appendix F).

2.2.2.6 State-Trait Anger Inventory (STAI)

The State Trait Anger Inventory was developed by Spielberger, Jacobs, Russell, and Carne (1983) in order to measure the level of individuals state and trait anger experiences separately. The trait part of the inventory consists of 10 items assessing the disposition to anger (e.g., "I am a hotheaded person"). Items are rated on a four-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (not at all) to 4 (very much so). Özer (1994) adapted the trait anger part of the inventory into Turkish and tested its validity. The Cronbach's alpha value of the inventory was found to be .79. As for the

criterion related validity, the correlations between the subscales of STAI and Anger Inventory, Trait Anxiety, and Depressive Adjectives Check List were found significant (see Appendix G).

2.2.2.7 Splitting Scale (SS)

SS was developed by Gerson (1984) in order to measure the extent that individuals use splitting as a defense mechanism. It consists of 14 items rated on a seven-point Likert type scale with higher scores indicating higher use of splitting (e.g., "I hate to hear someone close to me being criticized"). It mainly covers three areas of splitting which are extreme shifts in the "view of self and others", "enmeshment between self and others", and "grandiose perception of the self". The internal consistency of the scale was found to be .70 and test re-test reliability of the scale was found as .84. Factor analysis revealed one-factor structure of the scale. Regarding validity, the scale had significant correlations with the measures of narcissistic personality disorder and self-esteem in the expected direction. The scale was adapted to Turkish by Göral-Alkan (2010) within the scope of her doctoral thesis. It had adequate internal consistency ($\alpha = .70$) and test re-test reliability ($\alpha = .85$) estimates. The convergent, discriminant, and predictive validities of the Turkish scale were tested with the measures of interpersonal problems, separation-individuation pathology, projective identification mechanism, and emotional dependency, and satisfactory results were revealed (Göral-Alkan, 2010) (see Appendix H).

2.2.3 Procedure

First of all, "Relationships with Parents Scale" was translated to Turkish by the researcher. Turkish translations of the items were evaluated in terms of wording and meaning by two academicians in the area of psychology. In the direction of their feedbacks, some modifications were made, and this modified form was back translated to English by an independent researcher who is competent both in Turkish and English. After the translation process was completed and the permission was

taken from Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee, the data collection was initiated. Questionnaires were distributed through online software program Qualtrics. The informed consents of the participants were taken before the application. Time spent by the participants for these questionnaires was approximately 30 minutes. The data for the two-week test re-test reliability was collected by sending e-mails to 66 participants who would like to volunteer to participate in the second part of the study.

2.3 Results

2.3.1 Descriptive Analyses of the Variables

Means, standard deviations, minimum-maximum scores, and internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) were calculated for the Relationship with Parents Scale (RPS), Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing (S-EMBU), Parentification Inventory (PI), Trait Shame and Guilt Scale (TSGS), State-Trait Anger Inventory (STAI), and Splitting Scale (SS) (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 Descriptive Characteristics of the Measures

Measures	N	M	SD	Min-Max	α
RPS					
RPS Mother	319	49.26	16.70	21-91	.91
RPS Father	319	42.10	13.01	21-86	.85
S-EMBU					
Rejection-Mother	319	10.35	3.79	7-28	.84
Warmth-Mother	319	18.99	4.73	7-28	.83
Overprotection-Mother	319	19.79	45.56	9-36	.82
Rejection-Father	319	9.93	3.86	7-28	.85
Warmth-Father	319	17.61	5.29	7-28	.88
Overprotection-Father	319	17.56	5.61	9-36	.85
PI					
PFP	319	25.06	8.13	11-48	.84
SFP	300	8.88	3.26	5-21	.68
PBP	319	21.26	4.79	6-30	.77

Table 2.2 (Cont'd)

Measures	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min-Max	α
TSGS					
Trait Shame	319	9.74	4.90	5-25	.85
Trait Guilt	319	12.02	4.82	5-25	.81
Trait Pride	319	16.84	4.96	5-25	.88
STAI					
Trait Anger	319	21.50	5.08	10-38	.81
Splitting Scale	319	50.81	12.27	16-83	.76

Note. RPS = Relationships with Parents Scale, S-EMBU = Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing, PI = Parentification Inventory, PFP = Parent Focused Parentification, SFP = Sibling Focused Parentification, PBP = Perceived Benefits of Parentification TSGS = Trait Shame Guilt Scale, STAI = State Trait Anger Inventory.

2.3.2 Reliability Analyses of RPS

Firstly, Cronbach's alpha values were calculated in order to test the internal consistency reliability of the mother and father forms of Turkish RPS. Regarding RPS mother form, item total correlations ranged between .34 and .70 and its Cronbach's alpha was found to be .91. The item total correlations of RPS father form varied between .23 and .63 and its Cronbach's alpha was found to be .85. These findings indicated that RPS had good internal consistency scores comparable with the results of the original study.

Additionally, the test re-test reliability of the RPS was estimated with two-week intervals and it was found to be .83 for both mother and father forms. It showed that the responses given to the RPS were largely consistent over time.

Finally, the analyses to test the split half reliability of the RPS mother and father forms were also conducted. The results indicated that Guttman split-half reliability of the RPS mother form was .84, the internal consistency of the part one, including 11 items was .83 and the internal consistency of the part two including 10 items was .86. Guttman split-half reliability of the RPS father form was found to be .72, the internal consistency of the part one, including 11 items was .74 and the internal consistency of the part two including 10 items was .81.

2.3.3 The Divergences Regarding Gender and Birth Order on RPS

Gender and birth order differences on the RPS mother and father forms were tested through a 2 (Gender [male, female]) X 2 (Birth Order [first, second or later]) multivariate analyses of variances (MANOVA). Before the analyses, the birth order of participants was categorized into two groups. The first group consists of participants who are the first child of the family. The second group consists of participants who are the second or later child of the family (see Table 2.4). The result indicated that there was no significant main effect of gender [*Multivariate F* (2, 294) = 0.466, $p = .628$; Wilks' Lambda = .997, $\eta_p^2 = .003$] and birth order [*Multivariate F* (2, 294) = 1.578, $p = .208$; Wilks' Lambda = .989, $\eta_p^2 = .011$] on the RPS. The interaction between the gender and birth order was also found to be non-significant [*Multivariate F* (2, 294) = 1.188, $p = .829$; Wilks' Lambda = .999, $\eta_p^2 = .001$].

2.3.4 Validity Analyses of RPS

2.3.4.1 Concurrent Validity of RPS

In order to test the concurrent validity of RPS mother and father forms, their correlations with the subscales of PI and S-EMBU were examined. The correlations among the variables were presented in Table 2.3.

The mother role reversal scale had moderate to high correlations with the subscales of PI. It was positively correlated with the parent focused parentification ($r = .53, p < .001$) and sibling focused parentification ($r = .36, p < .001$) of PI but it showed a negative correlation with perceived benefits of parentification ($r = -.23, p < .001$). Similar correlations were also found for the father form of RPS. Role reversal with the father during childhood was positively correlated with the parent focused parentification ($r = .50, p < .001$) and sibling focused parentification ($r = .34, p < .001$) while it had a negative correlation with perceived benefits of parentification ($r = -.25, p < .001$). That is, as participants engaged in more role reversal with their parents, they also assumed a parentified role toward both their parents and siblings

during childhood. Moreover, the more participants experienced role reversal with their parents, the more they felt dissatisfied with their roles in the family.

RPS mother and father forms showed significant correlations with rejection and overprotection perceived from both parents. It had non-significant correlations with the perceived parental warmth. Specifically, role reversal with the mother was positively and moderately correlated with the maternal rejection ($r = .27, p < .001$) and overprotection ($r = .38, p < .01$). It was positively related to the paternal rejection ($r = .35, p < .001$) and overprotection ($r = .33, p < .001$). Similarly, significant positive correlations were observed between the role reversal with the father and maternal rejection ($r = .25, p < .001$) and overprotection ($r = .27, p < .001$). It was also positively correlated with the paternal rejection ($r = .27, p < .001$) and overprotection ($r = .31, p < .001$). These findings indicated that as participants perceived more rejection and overprotection from the mother and father, they engaged in more role reversal with their parents during childhood.

Table 2.3 Zero-order Correlations between the Measures of the Study

Variables	RPS - Mother	RPS - Father
Mother-Rejection	.27***	.25***
Mother-Warmth	.04	-.04
Mother-Overprotection	.38***	.27***
Father-Rejection	.35***	.27***
Father-Warmth	-.10	.07
Father-Overprotection	.33***	.31***
Parent Focused Parentification	.53***	.50***
Sibling Focused Parentification	.36***	.34***
Perceived Benefits of Parentification	-.23***	-.25***
Trait Shame	.27***	.24***
Trait Anger	.23***	.22***
Splitting	.52***	.46***

Note. RPS = Relationships with Parents Scale. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

2.3.4.2 Criterion Related Validity of RPS

Variables of splitting, trait shame, trait anger, and the abuse experiences of participants were used to examine the criterion validity of the RPS. Firstly, participants' splitting scores were categorized into two groups by considering half standard deviation below (i.e., low splitting group) and above (i.e., high splitting group) the mean score. Descriptive features of the groups were listed in Table 2.4. A one-way MANOVA was run to test the differences between groups regarding their scores on RPS mother and father forms (see Table 2.5). Results revealed significant differences between splitting groups on RPS parent forms (*Multivariate F* (2, 212) = 50.613, $p < .001$; Wilks' Lambda = .677, $\eta_p^2 = .323$). Considering Bonferroni corrected significance level of .025, univariate analyses revealed that splitting groups significantly differed from each other on both mother (F [1, 213] = 91.699, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .301$) and father (F [1, 213] = 72.247, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .253$) role reversal scales of RPS. Specifically, high scorers of splitting ($M = 59.82$, $SE = 16.26$) reported more role reversal with their mothers as compared low scorers of splitting ($M = 40.26$, $SE = 13.62$). Similarly, participants in high splitting group ($M = 50.15$, $SE = 12.75$) experienced more role reversal with their fathers than those in low splitting group ($M = 36.38$, $SE = 10.98$) (see Figure 2.1).

Table 2.4 Descriptive Features of the Categorized Variables

Variables	<i>N</i>	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.-Max.
Birth Order					
First Child	123	38.6	-	-	-
Second or Later	176	55.2	-	-	-
Splitting					
Low Splitting	110	51.2	37.85	5.92	16-45
High Splitting	105	48.8	64.71	6.27	57-83
Trait Shame					
Low Shame	189	59.2	6.48	1.55	5-9
High Shame	130	40.8	14.48	4.18	10-25
Trait Anger					
Low Anger	173	54.2	17.83	2.61	10-21
High Anger	146	45.8	25.85	3.65	22-38

Table 2.5 Differences of Criterion Variables on Role Reversal with Mother and Father

Variables	Multi. <i>F</i>	df	Wilks' Lambda	Multi. η^2	Univariate <i>F</i>	Univariate η^2
Splitting Group	50.613***	2, 212	.677	.323		
RPS-Mother		1, 213			91.699***	.301
RPS-Father		1, 213			72.247***	.253
Shame Group	7.815***	2, 316	.953	.047		
RPS-Mother		1, 317			13.904***	.042
RPS-Father		1, 317			12.643***	.038
Anger Group	5.793**	2, 316	.965	.035		
RPS-Mother		1, 317			11.059**	.034
RPS-Father		1, 317			8.219**	.025
Abuse Group	3.789*	2, 105	.933	.067		
RPS-Mother		1, 106			6.780*	.060
RPS-Father		1, 106			1.988	.018

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

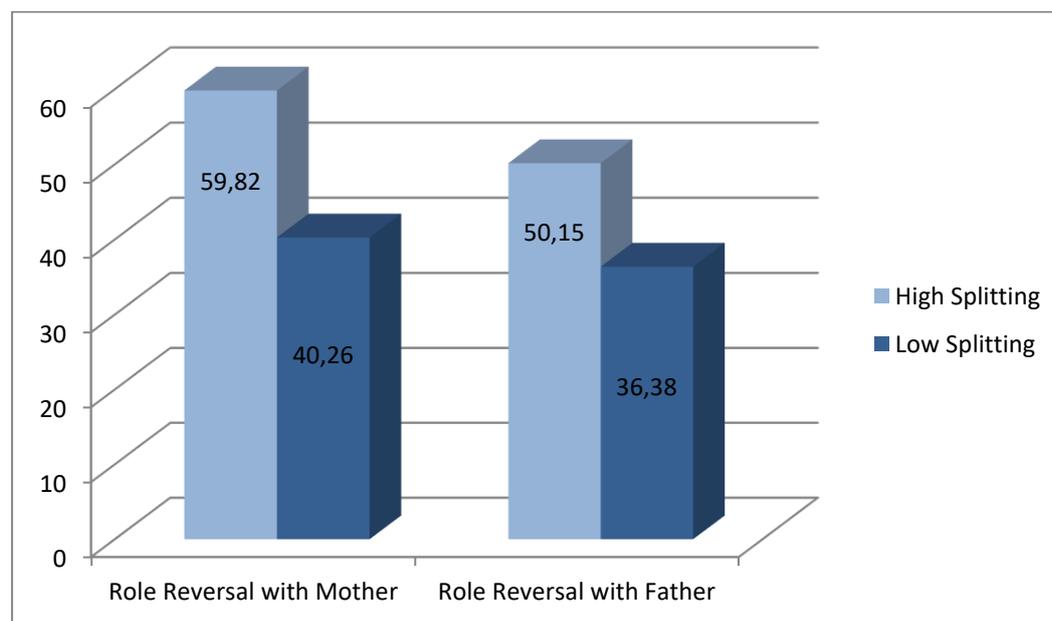


Figure 2.1 Mean Values of Participants in Low and High Splitting Groups on Role Reversal with Parents

Secondly, shame scores of participants were divided into two categories namely "low shame" and "high shame" groups based on the 50th percentile. Descriptive information about the groups was shown in Table 2.4. A one-way MANOVA was conducted to analyze the differences between two groups of shame on the parent forms of RPS (see Table 2.5). Results indicated significant group differences (*Multivariate F* (2, 316) = 7.815, $p < .001$; Wilks' Lambda = .953, $\eta_p^2 = .047$). A Bonferroni correction was conducted and significance level was found as .025. According to the results of univariate analyses, participants in low and high shame group had significant differences on both mother ($F [1,317] = 13.904$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .042$) and father ($F [1,317] = 12.643$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .038$) forms of RPS. That is, participants with higher shame ($M = 53.38$, $SE = 16.30$) reported more role reversal with their mothers as compared to participants with lower shame ($M = 46.43$, $SE = 16.41$). Similarly, participants having high shame scores ($M = 45.17$, $SE = 13.55$) experienced more role reversal with their fathers in their childhood as compared to participants having lower shame scores ($M = 39.99$, $SE = 12.24$) (see Figure 2.2).

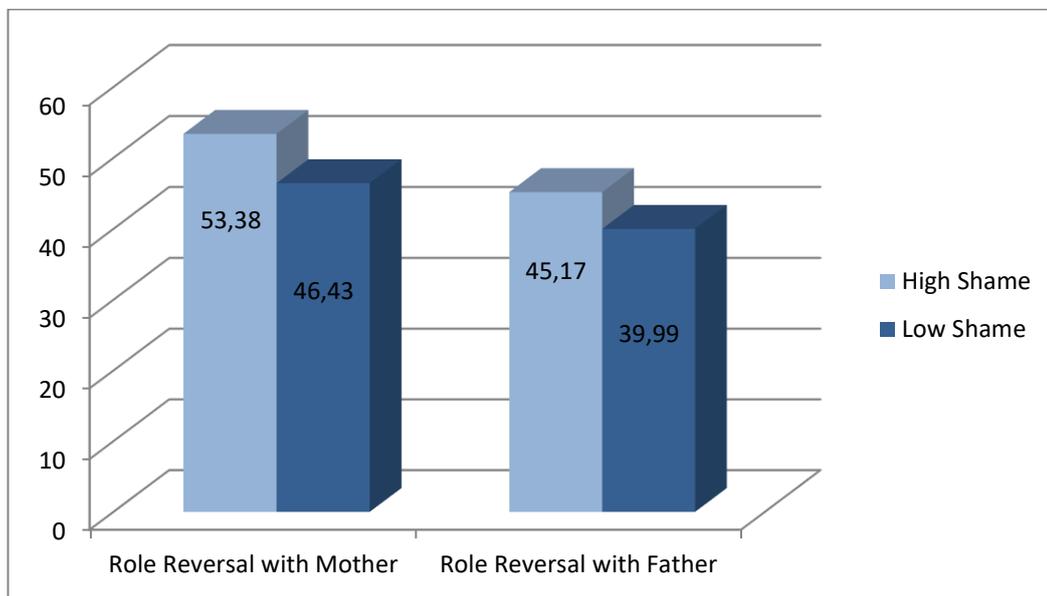


Figure 2.2 Mean Values of Participants in Low and High Shame Groups on Role Reversal with Parents

Trait anger scores of participants were also divided into two categories from the 50th percentile. Descriptive features of the groups were given in Table 2.4. A one-way MANOVA was run to test the differences between "low anger" and "high anger" groups regarding parent forms of RPS (see Table 2.5). Results showed that the two groups had significantly different scores on RPS parent forms (*Multivariate* $F(2, 316) = 5.793, p = .003$; Wilks' Lambda = .965, $\eta_p^2 = .035$). Based on the corrected alpha value of .025, univariate analyses revealed that participants in two groups differed from each other on both mother ($F[1,317] = 11.059, p = .001, \eta_p^2 = .034$) and father ($F[1,317] = 8.219, p = .004, \eta_p^2 = .025$) forms of RPS. Specifically, participants in the high anger group ($M = 52.59, SE = 17.20$) reported more role reversal with their mothers than those in the low anger group ($M = 46.45, SE = 17.77$). Similarly, participants in the high anger group ($M = 44.35, SE = 13.25$) had higher scores on father role reversal scale than those in the low anger group ($M = 40.20, SE = 12.55$) (see Figure 2.3).

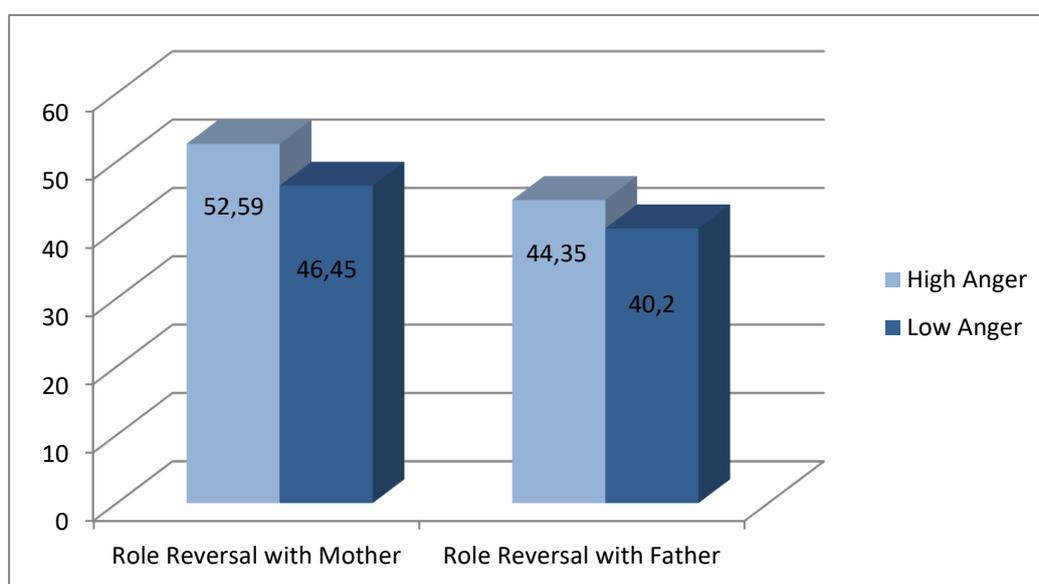


Figure 2.3 Mean Values of Participants in Low and High Anger Groups on Role Reversal with Parents

Finally, participants having abuse and no abuse experience were compared in terms of RPS forms in order to test the criterion validity of the scale. A subset of the

sample consisting of equal number of participants with abuse history ($N = 54$) and no abuse history ($N = 54$) was composed by considering similar demographic features. Detailed information about the demographics of the sample was given in Table 2.6. A one-way MANOVA was run to test the differences between the two groups on RPS mother and father forms (see Table 2.5). Results indicated that there were significant differences between groups regarding RPS parent forms (*Multivariate $F(2, 105) = 3.789, p = .026$; Wilks' Lambda = .933, $\eta_p^2 = .067$*). Based on the corrected alpha value of 0.25, univariate statistics indicated that two groups differed from each other only on the mother role reversal form ($F [1,106] = 6.780, p = .011, \eta_p^2 = .060$). That is, participants reporting to experience abuse in a period of their lives ($M = 54.59, SE = 17.67$) engaged in more role reversal with their mothers as compared to participants with no abuse history ($M = 46.00, SE = 16.61$) (see Figure 2.4).

Table 2.6 Demographic Characteristics of the Abuse and No Abuse Group

Variables	N (108)	%	M	SD	Min.-Max.
Abuse Group					
Age			31.57	9.02	20-56
Gender					
Female	48	88.9			
Male	6	11.1			
Education					
University students	14	25.9			
University Graduates	20	37.0			
Master Graduates	17	31.5			
Doctorate Graduates	3	5.6			
Income Level					
Low	13	24.1			
Middle	36	66.7			
High	5	9.3			
Working Status					
Working	35	64.8			
Not Working	19	35.2			
Marital Status					
Single	24	44.4			
Married	20	37.0			

Table 2.6 (cont'd)

Variables	<i>N</i> (108)	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.-Max.
Marital Status					
In a Relationship	9	16.7			
Other	1	1.9			
No Abuse Group					
Age			31.70	9.18	20-57
Gender					
Female	48	89.9			
Male	6	11.1			
Education					
High School Graduates	1	1.9			
University students	12	22.2			
University Graduates	19	35.2			
Master Graduates	19	35.2			
Doctorate Graduates	3	5.6			
Income Level					
Low	5	9.3			
Middle	43	79.6			
High	6	11.1			
Working Status					
Working	32	59.3			
Not Working	22	40.7			
Marital Status					
Single	22	40.7			
Married	12	22.2			
In a relationship	20	37.0			

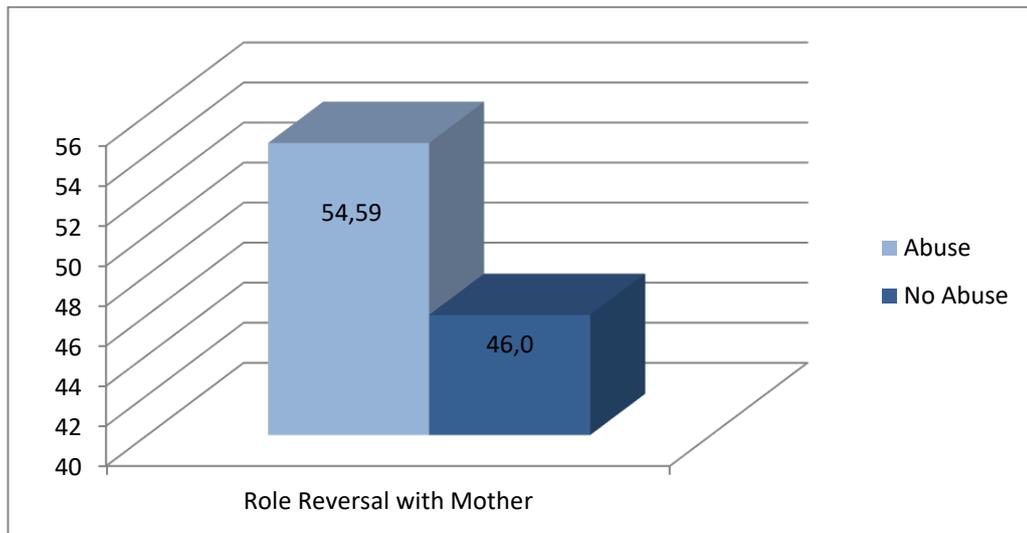


Figure 2.4. Mean Values of Participants in Abuse and No Abuse Groups on Role Reversal with Parents

2.4 Discussion

Relationship with Parents Scale (RPS) was a retrospective self-report measure assessing different kinds of role reversal experienced with both parents during childhood and adolescence. The current study aimed to test the psychometric properties of RPS in a Turkish sample and revealed that Turkish RPS had good reliability and validity results. The internal consistency reliability scores of Turkish RPS mother and father forms were found to be satisfactory and these scores were comparable with the original study of the scale. Moreover, test re-test reliability of the RPS was also tested with two-week intervals, and findings indicated that participants were mostly consistent in their reports of role reversal over time. Guttman split-half reliability score of the RPS father form was relatively lower as compared to RPS mother form; however, it was still in acceptable ranges. Thus, split-half reliability findings also provided additional support for the psychometric soundness of the Turkish RPS.

Earlier findings pointed out that there might be some socio-demographic factors that put individuals to a risk for assuming adult roles in the family such as poverty, child's gender, or birth order. Gender and birth order differences in terms of

role reversal with mother and father were investigated in the present study. However, the results indicated non-significant differences in gender and birth order on early role reversal experiences of individuals. This non-significant gender difference was inconsistent with the findings of the original study indicating that males tended to engage in more role reversal with their fathers as compared to females (Alexander, 2003). In the literature, there have been mixed findings regarding the gender difference on role reversal (Macfie, Brumariu, & Lyons-Ruth, 2015) although studies highlighted that there was a more tendency for females due to the gender and cultural norms expected from them (Mayseless, Bartholomew, Henderson, & Trinke, 2004; Thomas, 2017). The failure to find a gender difference in the present study may be related to the unequal gender distribution of participants and the relatively small sample size of the study. Regarding birth order, earlier it was shown that being the first child of the family increased role reversal in terms of caring for younger siblings and doing household tasks such as laundry or cooking (McMahon & Luthar, 2007). Since the RPS mostly covers the emotional aspects of the role reversal, the birth order of the participants may not result in a difference in it. This finding may also indicate that emotional component of role reversal may be a risk factor for all the children in the family regardless of their birth order.

The relationship of RPS with subscales of Parentification Inventory (PI) and Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing (S-EMBU) was examined to test its concurrent validity. With regard to PI, mother and father forms of RPS showed moderate to high positive correlations with "parent" and "sibling" focused parentification subscale while they had negative correlations with the "perceived benefits of parentification" subscale of PI. In parent-focused parentification, the child is treated as the main source of the family that parents turn to ask both emotional and instrumental support to sustain the well-being of themselves and the welfare of the family. Parent-focused parentification is also found as the most emotionally burdened aspect of parentification which leaves the child vulnerable to psychological problems later in life (Hooper, Doehler, Wallace, & Hannah, 2011). Thus, RPS and parent-focused parentification show similarities

regarding the child's preoccupation with the parent and its accompanying emotional burden. The high correlation between the parent-focused parentification and RPS, therefore, point out that they measure similar constructs although not identical. The moderate correlation between RPS and sibling-focused parentification indicates that engaging role reversal with parents increased the likelihood of caring for siblings. Although RPS does not directly measure the caregiver role for siblings, parents' disengagement from their roles may automatically prompt the child to take care of his/her siblings. The negative correlation of RPS with perceived benefits of parentification indicates that as individuals experienced more role reversal with their parents, they felt more uncomfortable with their roles in the family and they were less likely to find a benefit from this role. This result also seems to support the overwhelming nature of RPS.

The results as for the correlations of RPS with perceived parenting styles indicated that as participants perceived more over-protective and rejecting parenting from their parents, they were more likely to experience role reversal with them. These findings are in line with the earlier research highlighting the role of poor parenting in the development of a role confused pattern of relationship between parent and child (Mayseless et al., 2004). Over-protective parenting includes controlling, domineering, and intrusive behaviors of parents toward the child (Thomasgard & Metz, 1993). Zeanah and Klitzke (1991) asserted that a parent's concern is more at the forefront in an overprotective relational pattern. It hinders the ability of the parent to understand and respond to the needs of the child and it also unconsciously places the child into the role of soothing the anxiety of the parent. Such a parenting style may prompt the child to be or behave as the parent wishes. Rejecting attitudes and behaviors of parents toward the child were also related to increased accounts of role reversal in the present study. This finding was consistent with earlier research indicating that children were more likely to engage in role reversal in the face of harsh parenting (Macfie & Kurdziel, 2019). In the qualitative analysis of Mayseless et al. (2004), participants reported taking a more "pleasing" and "complying" type of role reversal with their parents when they encounter

judgmental behaviors of them. The authors argued that such kind of role reversal may be related to getting sympathy and acceptance to some extent from the parents. Thus, preliminary findings of Turkish RPS also confirmed the previous results emphasizing the link between overly protective and rejecting parenting styles and role reversal during childhood.

In different theoretical backgrounds, it is widely accepted that individuals learn to regulate their emotions in early interactions with their parents (LeCompte & Moss, 2014). A disruption in these interactions as in the case of role reversal may result in the child using more maladaptive tools to handle their internal states and leave these internal states unresolved. Earlier empirical research and clinical case studies revealed that individuals encountering role reversal during their childhood had more difficulty in integrating contradictory features of both themselves and others (Wells & Jones, 1998). In line with that, the current study also showed that participants scoring higher in splitting defense reported having more role reversal experiences with their parents as compared to people with lower scores of splitting. Current study also indicated that participants experiencing higher shame and anger in their daily life reported engaging in more role reversal with their parents in their childhood. These findings also confirmed the results of previous studies indicating the link between early role confusion and intense shame and inordinate anger experiences in adolescence and adulthood (LeCompte & Moss, 2014; Wells & Jones, 2000). Moreover, it was found that participants that have been abused (i.e., physical, sexual, or psychological) at some point in their lives reported encountering more childhood role reversal with their mothers as compared to participants who have not been abused. This finding was partially in line with the result of the original study showing that a role confused pattern between parent-child dyad was related to a high incidence of sexual abuse in daughters (Alexander, 2003). This finding was explained from the perspective of parents' inadequacy to protect the child. Obsuth, Hennighausen, Brumariu, and Lyons-Ruth (2014) also demonstrated that adolescents interacting with their parents in an aggressive role confused manner were more likely to be both perpetrators and victim of partner abuse. These findings may be related to

the difficulty of individuals with role reversal experiences in protecting their boundaries and respecting those of others since they experience boundary violations in their early relations with their parents. Considering all, these findings provide initial support for the criterion-related validity of Turkish RPS.

CHAPTER 3

MAIN STUDY

3.1 Method

3.1. Participants

3.1.1.1 The Sample of Young Adults

The sample of the current study consisted of 535 young adults and their mothers and fathers. The ages of young adults ranged between 18 and 25 ($M = 20.51$, $SD = 1.75$) and of them 381 were females (71.2 %) and 154 were males (28.8 %). Among young adults, 30 were high school graduates (5.6 %), 484 were university students (90.5 %), and 21 were university graduates (3.9 %). Regarding income, 85 participants reported to have low income (15.9 %), 428 of them reported to have middle income (80 %), 20 participants reported to have high income (3.7 %), and two participants did not report the income level (0.4 %). In terms of working status, 46 young participants reported to work in a job (8.6 %) and 489 participants were not working (91.4 %). The information about the psychological health of young participants indicated that 36 participants have had a current psychological disorder (6.7 %) and out of them 27 have had treatment (75 %). Fifty-eight participants reported to be diagnosed with a psychological disorder in the past (10.8 %) and out of them 56 had a psychological treatment (96.6 %).

Regarding family information, participants were asked to report whom they currently live with. Of them, 310 reported to live with their family (57.9 %) and 225 of them reported to live either in a dormitory or in home alone or with friends (42.1

%). Moreover, 497 young participants were from intact families (92.9 %) and 38 of them had divorced parents (7.1 %). Of young adults, 67 participants reported to have no sibling (12.5 %). Of participants having sibling, 300 had one sibling (64.2 %), 106 participants had two siblings (22.7 %), 59 participants had three or more siblings (12.7 %), and two participants did not provide information about sibling number (0.4 %). Regarding birth order, out of participants who had sibling, 236 were in the first order (50.5 %), 167 were in the second order (35.8 %), 61 were in the third or higher order (13 %), and three participants did not report the birth order (0.6 %). Participants were also asked to provide information about whether there is a family member diagnosed with a psychological disorder. Sixty-nine of the young adults reported to have at least one family member (father, mother, or sibling) diagnosed with a psychological disorder (12.9 %). Demographic features of the participants were represented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 Demographic Characteristics of Young Adults

Variables	<i>N</i> (535)	%
Age ($M = 20.51$, $SD = 1.75$)		
Gender		
Female	381	71.2
Male	154	28.8
Education		
High School Graduates	30	5.6
University Students	484	90.5
University Graduates	21	3.9
Income Level	(2 missing / 0.4 %)	
Low	85	15.9
Middle	428	80.0
High	20	3.7
Working Status		
Working	46	8.6
Not Working	489	91.4
Place of Residence		
With Family	310	57.9
Not with Family	225	42.1

Table 3.1 (cont'd)

Variables	<i>N</i> (535)	%
Current Psychological Disorder		
Having	36	6.7
Not Having	499	93.3
Current Psychological Treatment (<i>N</i> = 36)	(1 missing / 2.8 %)	
Having	27	75
Not Having	8	22.2
Psychological Disorder in the Past	(1 missing / 0.2 %)	
Having	58	10.8
Not Having	476	89.0
Psychological Treatment in the Past (<i>N</i> = 58)		
Having	56	96.6
Not Having	2	3.4
Family Status		
Intact Family	497	92.9
Divorced Parents	38	7.1
Sibling Status	(1 missing / 0.2 %)	
Having Sibling	467	87.3
Having No Sibling	67	12.5
Number of Siblings (<i>N</i> = 467)	(2 missing / 0.4 %)	
One Sibling	300	64.2
Two Siblings	106	22.7
Three or More Siblings	59	12.7
Birth Order (<i>N</i> = 467)	(3 missing / 0.6 %)	
First	236	50.5
Second	167	35.8
Third or Later	61	13.0
Psychological Disorder in the Family		
Having	69	12.9
Not Having	466	87.1

3.1.1.2 The Sample of Parents

The ages of mothers ranged between 35 and 62 ($M = 47.01$, $SD = 5.05$). Regarding education level, 139 were graduates of primary school (26.0 %), 39 were graduated from secondary school (7.3 %), 177 mothers had a high school degree (33.1 %), 163 of them had a university degree (30.5 %), and 17 mothers had a postgraduate degree (3.2 %). Of the mothers, 70 reported to have a low-income level

(13.1 %), 436 had middle income (81.5 %), and 26 reported to have high income (4.9 %). The number of mothers reported to work were 208 (% 38.9) and 326 mothers were not working (60.9 %). Regarding psychological health of mothers, 41 of them have had a current psychological disorder (7.7 %) and out of them, 36 reported to have treatment (87.8 %). Sixty mothers were diagnosed with a psychological disorder in the past (11.3 %) and 52 of them had treatment (86.7%). Table 3.2 represents the demographic features of the mothers.

Table 3.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Mothers

Variables	<i>N</i> (535)	%
Age ($M = 47.01$, $SD = 5.05$)		
Education		
Primary School Graduates	139	26.0
Secondary School Graduates	39	7.3
High School Graduates	177	33.1
University Graduates	163	30.5
Postgraduates	17	3.2
Income	(3 missing / 0.6 %)	
Low	70	13.1
Middle	436	81.5
High	26	4.9
Working Status	(1 missing / 0.2 %)	
Working	208	38.9
Not Working	326	60.9
Current Psychological Disorder		
Having	41	7.7
Not Having	494	92.3
Current Psychological Treatment ($N = 41$)	(1 missing / 2.4 %)	
Having	36	87.8
Not Having	4	9.8
Psychological Disorder in the Past		
Having	60	11.2
Not Having	475	88.8
Psychological Treatment in the Past ($N = 60$)	(5 missing / 8.3 %)	
Having	52	86.7
Not Having	3	5.0

The ages of fathers were between 40 and 66 ($M = 51.15$, $SD = 5.01$). With regard to education level, 65 fathers were graduated from primary school (12.1 %), 56 of them were graduates of secondary school (10.5 %), 139 of them had a high school degree (26.0 %), 233 of them had a university degree (43.6 %), and 42 of them had a postgraduate degree (7.9 %). In terms of income level, 39 fathers reported to have low income (7.3 %), 459 of them had middle income (85.8 %), and 37 reported to have high income (6.9 %). Among fathers, 413 reported to work (77.2 %) and 120 were not working (22.4 %). Regarding the psychological health of fathers, 21 fathers have had a current psychological disorder (3.9 %) and of them, 17 have had treatment (81 %). Fifteen fathers had a psychological disorder in the past (2.8 %) and of them, 13 had a psychological treatment (86.7 %). Table 3.3 demonstrates the demographic features of the fathers.

Table 3.3 Demographic Characteristics of the Fathers

Variables	<i>N</i> (535)	%
Age ($M = 51.15$, $SD = 5.01$)		
Education		
Primary School Graduates	65	12.1
Secondary School Graduates	56	10.5
High School Graduates	139	26.0
University Graduates	233	43.6
Postgraduates	42	7.9
Income		
Low	39	7.3
Middle	459	85.8
High	37	6.9
Working Status	(2 missing / 0.4 %)	
Working	413	77.2
Not Working	120	22.4
Current Psychological Disorder	(1 missing / 0.2 %)	
Having	21	3.9
Not Having	513	95.9
Current Psychological Treatment ($N = 21$)	(3 missing / 14.3 %)	
Having	17	81.0
Not Having	1	4.8

Table 3.3 (Cont'd)

Variables	<i>N</i> (535)	%
Psychological Disorder in the Past		
Having	15	2.8
Not Having	520	97.2
Psychological Treatment in the Past (<i>N</i> = 15)		
Having	13	86.7
Not Having	2	13.3

3.1.2 Measures

Firstly, all participants (i.e., young adults, their mothers and fathers) filled a demographic form including questions about their age, gender, education level, family etc. (see Appendix I-J). In the second part, young adults and parents completed a package of self-report questionnaires. *Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran - My Memories of Upbringing (EMBU)* was used to assess parenting styles of mothers and fathers perceived by young adults during their childhood and adolescence. *Relationship with Parents Scale (RPS)* was applied in order to assess to what extent young adults experienced role reversal with their mothers and fathers during their childhood and adolescence. *Trait Shame and Guilt Scale (TSGS)* was used in order to assess the level of dispositional shame in young adults. *State-Trait Anger Inventory (STAI)* was used in order to assess the level of dispositional anger in young adults. *Separation-Individuation Inventory (SII)* was applied to assess the level of separation-individuation difficulties of young adults. *Personality Beliefs Questionnaire (PBQ)* was used in order to assess personality beliefs of both young adult and their parents.

3.1.2.1 *Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing Short (Short-EMBU)*

The information including psychometric properties of S-EMBU was provided in the method section of the Study 1 (Arrindell et al., 1999).

In the current study, the internal consistency reliabilities of rejection, warmth and overprotection subscales were .75, .76, and .81 for mother form, .75, .81, and .81 for father form respectively.

3.1.2.2 Relationship with Parents Scale (RPS)

The information including the purpose, content and scoring of the scale was provided in the method section of the Study 1 (Alexander, 2003). It was adapted to Turkish within the scope of the Study 1 and its psychometric properties in Turkish sample were indicated in the result part of Study 1.

In the current study, the internal consistency reliabilities of mother and father forms were found .88 and .83, respectively.

3.1.2.3 Trait Shame and Guilt Scale (TSGS)

The psychometric information regarding TSGS (Rohleder, Chen, Wolf, & Miller, 2008) was provided in the method section of the first study.

In the current study, the internal consistency reliabilities of shame, guilt, and pride were found .79, .78, and .86, respectively.

3.1.2.4 State-Trait Anger Inventory (STAI)

The psychometric information regarding STAI (Spielberger, Jacobs, Russel, & Carne, 1983) was provided in the method section of the first study.

The internal consistency reliability of trait anger in the current study was found .81.

3.1.2.5 Separation-Individuation Inventory (SII)

Separation-Individuation Inventory (SII) was developed by Christenson and Wilson (1985) with the aim of measuring separation-individuation difficulties manifested in adulthood. Based on the separation-individuation theory of Mahler, Pine, and Bergman (1975), items were constructed around three themes which were difficulties in differentiating the self from others, splitting the self and others as good

and bad, and having relationship difficulties related to sustaining object constancy, urging to control others, and fear of being alone. It consists of 39 items rated on a 10-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (not characteristic of mine) to 10 (very characteristic of mine). Higher scores taken from the inventory indicate greater difficulty in separation-individuation. Patients with borderline personality disorder had significantly higher scores on SII as compared to control group consisting of university employees. The total score 190 and above was identified as cut-off point since 70 % of patient group got 190 or above and only 6.7 % of controls got 190 or above. The factor analysis supported the one-factor structure of the inventory. Its internal consistency reliability was found .92.

The psychometric properties of SII and its three domains (i.e., differentiation problems, splitting, and relationship problems) were tested in Turkish sample by Göral-Alkan (2010). The internal consistency reliability of the whole scale was found to be .90 and it ranged between .65 (relationship problems) and .80 (differentiation) for the subscales. Test re-test reliability of the scale was found to be .85 and it ranged between .77 and .82 for its domains. The high and low scorers of SII were significantly different from each other regarding splitting defense, projective identification, and interpersonal problems supporting the validity of the inventory.

In the current study, the internal consistency reliabilities of SII total and splitting, differentiation, and relationship problems were found .87, .70, .72, and .68, respectively (see Appendix K).

3.1.2.6 Personality Beliefs Questionnaire (PBQ)

Personality Beliefs Questionnaire was developed by Beck and Beck (1991) to assess beliefs regarding one's view of self, others, and the world associated with nine personality disorders listed in DSM-III-R including avoidant, dependent, passive-aggressive, obsessive-compulsive, antisocial, narcissistic, histrionic, schizoid, and paranoid personality disorders (e.g., "I should avoid unpleasant situations at all cost.", "Other people are often too demanding"). It includes nine personality scales

and each covers 14 items. Thus, the questionnaire consists of 126 items in total. Participants rate each item on a five-point Likert type scale ranging from 0 (I do not believe at all) to 4 (I believe completely). The psychometric properties of PBQ were first tested on a sample of university students by Trull, Goodwin, Schopp, Hillenbrand, and Schuster (1993). It had good internal consistency reliabilities ranging from .77 (passive-aggressive) to .93 (paranoid) and test re-test reliability scores ranging from .63 to .82. The moderate correlation between PBQ and MMPI-Personality Disorders and Personality Disorders Questionnaire supported its validity. The subsequent studies supported its discriminant validity in psychiatric populations (Beck et al., 2001).

In a subsequent study, borderline personality scale was formed by combining 14 items from avoidant, dependent, antisocial, histrionic, and paranoid scales (Butler, Brown, Beck, & Grisham, 2002). These 14 items were selected based on high endorsement that patients with borderline personality disorder show for these items. These items reflected beliefs related to dependency needs, helplessness perception of the self, distrusting view of others, fear of losing control, and fear of abandonment. Patients having borderline personality disorder got higher scores on this scale as compared to patients with other personality disorders. The internal consistency reliability of this scale was found to be .89.

PBQ was adapted to Turkish by Türkçapar et al. (2007). The scales of PBQ had good internal consistency reliabilities ranging from .67 (avoidant scale) to .90 (paranoid scale) and their test re-test reliabilities varied between .65 (histrionic scale) and .87 (paranoid scale). The convergent validity of the PBQ scales was tested through the correlations with Dysfunctional Attitudes Scale (DAS). PBQ scales showed significant correlations with perfectionism, need for approval, and independent attitudes subscales of DAS.

In the current study, personality disorder beliefs in PBQ were grouped under three broad categories, namely "deprecating", "inflated", and "ambivalent" based on the previous studies (Akyunus & Gençöz, 2017; Akyunus & Gençöz 2019). The total score for "Deprecating" personality was created by summing the scores taken by

"Avoidant", "Dependent", and "Borderline" scales. The total score for "Inflated" personality was calculated by summing the scores taken by "Narcissistic", "Antisocial", "Obsessive-Compulsive", and "Histrionic" scales. The total score for "Ambivalent" personality was estimated by summing the scores taken by "Paranoid", "Schizoid", and "Passive-Aggressive" scales. In the current study, internal consistency of the personality categories ranged between .89 and .94 for the sample of young adults, between .88 and .94 for the sample of mothers, and between .90 and .95 for the sample of fathers (see Table 3.5) (see Appendix L).

3.1.3. Procedure

After the approval was taken from Middle East Technical University Human Subjects Ethics Committee, data collection was started. The data was gathered from different universities in Ankara (e.g., Middle East Technical University, Ankara University). Young adults were informed about the study in their classes with the permission of instructors and they were asked to inform and invite their parents to the study. Moreover, young adults who are not eligible for the study were informed that they could invite a friend or relative and his/her parents to the study. Questionnaires applied to young adults and their parents who accepted to participate in this study. Questionnaires were distributed to parents via their children in envelopes and sent back with them in a closed manner. Informed consent was taken from all participants. It took approximately 40-45 minutes to complete the questionnaires.

3.1.4 Statistical Analyses

As an initial step, the data was controlled in terms of inaccurate data entrance, missing data, and multivariate outliers using SPSS 20.0. Secondly, statistical qualities of the measures were examined. The differences of demographic variables on each variable were tested through separate Multivariate Analyses of Variance (MANOVA). The associations among the variables were investigated via multiple hierarchical regression analyses. In order to test the mediation role of early parental

experiences in the association between personality disorder patterns of parents and their young adult offspring, a set of parallel-serial mediation models were conducted by using the Model 80 suggested by Hayes (2018).

3.2 Results

3.2.1 Data Cleaning

The data collected from young adults and their parents were examined regarding the accuracy of data entrance, missing values, and multivariate outliers. Inaccurate data were controlled by examining item ranges in each variable and corrected by turning back to the related questionnaires. The cases having more than 20 % of missing data in at least one of the questionnaires were not included in the analyses and case mean in the specified variable was assigned to the missing data. Multivariate outliers were examined by estimating Mahalonobis distance and nineteen cases with significant Mahalonobis distance value ($p < .001$) were excluded from the data.

3.2.2 Descriptive Analyses of the Measures

Means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores, and Cronbach's alpha values of Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing Short (S-EMBU), Relationship with Parents Scale (RPS), Separation-Individuation Inventory (SII), Trait Shame and Guilt Scale (TSGS), State-Trait Anger Inventory (STAI), Personality Beliefs Questionnaire (PBQ), and their subscales for the sample of young adults were estimated and represented in Table 3.4.

Means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum scores, and Cronbach's alpha values of Personality Beliefs Questionnaire for the sample of mothers and fathers were estimated and represented in Table 3.5.

Table 3.4 Descriptive Characteristics of the Measures for Young Adults

Measures	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min- Max	Cronbach's Alpha
S-EMBU					
Rejection-Mother	535	9.90	3.18	7-24	.75
Warmth-Mother	535	21.65	3.40	7-28	.76
Overprotection-Mother	535	21.28	5.82	9-36	.81
Rejection-Father	535	9.71	3.22	7-25.67	.75
Warmth-Father	535	20.08	4.64	7-28	.81
Overprotection-Father	535	19.51	5.59	9-36	.81
RPS					
Role Reversal with Mother	535	49.86	15.09	21-92	.88
Role Reversal with Father	535	42.45	12.22	21-83	.83
TSGS					
Trait Shame	535	10.25	4.55	5-25	.79
STAI					
Trait Anger	535	22.48	5.33	11-40	.81
SII					
Splitting	535	51.25	14.88	13-94	.70
Differentiation Problems	535	52.89	16.91	15-100	.72
Relationship Problems	535	55.05	15.06	20-101	.68
PBQ Categories					
Deprecating PB	535	53.47	20.47	10-124	.89
Inflated PB	535	80.37	29.61	15-171	.94
Ambivalent PB	535	70.13	23.97	5-134	.93

Note. PBQ = Personality Beliefs Questionnaire, RPS = Relationships with Parents Scale, S-EMBU = Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing-Short, SII = Separation-Individuation Inventory, TSGS = Trait Shame Guilt Scale, STAI = State-Trait Anger Inventory.

Table 3.5 Descriptive Characteristics of the Measures of Parents

Measures	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	Min- Max	Cronbach's Alpha
PBQ Categories - Mothers					
Deprecating PB	535	53.75	20.63	2-117	.88
Inflated PB	535	75.16	29.17	8-196	.94
Ambivalent PB	535	69.12	23.23	12-147	.92
PBQ Categories -Fathers					
Deprecating PB	535	54.40	22.38	5-130	.90
Inflated PB	535	77.75	32.80	10-197	.95
Ambivalent PB	535	68.50	26.52	1-147	.93

3.2.3 Divergences of Demographic Variables on the Measures of the Study

The effects of demographic variables on the measures of study were tested through separate multivariate analyses of variances (MANOVA). Before the analyses, the ages of participants were categorized into two groups based on the frequencies. Moreover, the sibling number and birth order were also grouped considering the sample size in each category. The categorization of demographic variables was represented in Table 3.6.

A 2 (Gender [male, female]) X 2 (Age Groups [late adolescence, emerging adulthood]) and a 2 (Sibling Number [one sibling, two or more siblings]) X 2 (Birth Order [first, second or later]) between subjects MANOVAs were conducted separately with perceived maternal rearing styles, perceived paternal rearing styles, role reversal with mother and father, separation-individuation difficulties, emotions, and personality disorder beliefs of young adults as dependent variables. The results indicated significant gender and age differences on the variables of role reversal with parents, emotions, separation- individuation difficulties, and personality disorder beliefs. However, the sibling number and birth order of the participants did not reveal any significant difference on the measures of the study.

Table 3.6 The Categorization of Demographic Variables

Variables	N	%
Gender		
Male	154	28.8
Female	381	71.2
Age		
Late Adolescence (18-20)	282	52.7
Emerging Adulthood (21-25)	253	47.3
Sibling Number (<i>N</i> = 467)		
One Sibling	300	64.2
Two or More Siblings	165	35.3
Birth Order (<i>N</i> = 467)		
First	236	50.1
Second or later	228	48.8

3.2.3.1 Divergences Regarding Gender and Age on Role Reversal with Parents

In order to test the divergences of gender and age on role reversal history with mother and father, a 2 (Gender [male, female]) X 2 (Age Groups [late adolescence, emerging adulthood]) between subjects MANOVA was conducted. Gender [*Multivariate F* (2, 530) = 6.556, $p = .002$; Wilks' Lambda = .98, $\eta_p^2 = .024$] and age groups [*Multivariate F* (2, 530) = 3.171, $p = .043$; Wilks' Lambda = .99, $\eta_p^2 = .012$] had a significant main effect on role reversal with parents but there was no gender x age interaction [*Multivariate F* (2, 530) = 0.474, $p = .623$; Wilks' Lambda = .99, $\eta_p^2 = .002$] (see Table 3.7). In order to assess univariate statistics, a Bonferroni correction was conducted and p values lower than .025 were evaluated as significant. Based on this correction, gender had a significant difference on role reversal with mother [F (1, 531) = 8.812, $p = .003$, $\eta_p^2 = .016$] and age groups significantly differed from each other on both role reversal with mother [F (1, 531) = 5.208, $p = .023$, $\eta_p^2 = .010$] and father [F (1, 531) = 5.200, $p = .023$, $\eta_p^2 = .010$]. That is, female participants ($M = 51.06$, $SE = .77$) experienced more role reversal with their mothers as compared to male participants ($M = 46.81$, $SE = 1.21$) (see Figure 3.1). Regarding age groups, late adolescents reported more role reversal with their mothers ($M = 50.57$, $SE = 1.03$) as compared to emerging to adults ($M = 47.30$, $SE = .99$). They also had more role reversal with their fathers ($M = 43.64$, $SE = .84$) as compared to emerging adults ($M = 40.97$, $SE = .81$) (see Figure 3.2).

Table 3.7 Gender and Age Differences on Role Reversal with Parents

Variables	Multi. F	df	Wilks' Lambda	Multi. η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Gender	6.556**	2, 530	.98	.024		
RPS-Mother		1, 531			8.812**	.016
RPS-Father		1, 531			0.085	.000
Age Groups	3.171*	2, 530	.99	.012		
RPS-Mother		1, 531			5.208*	.010
RPS-Father		1, 531			5.200*	.010

Table 3.7 (Cont'd)

Variables	Multi. <i>F</i>	df	Wilks' Lambda	Multi. η^2	Univariate <i>F</i>	Univariate η^2
Gender X Age	0.474	2, 530	.99	.002		
RPS-Mother		1, 531			0.448	.001
RPS-Father		1, 531			0.988	.000

Note. RPS = Relationships with Parents Scale. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

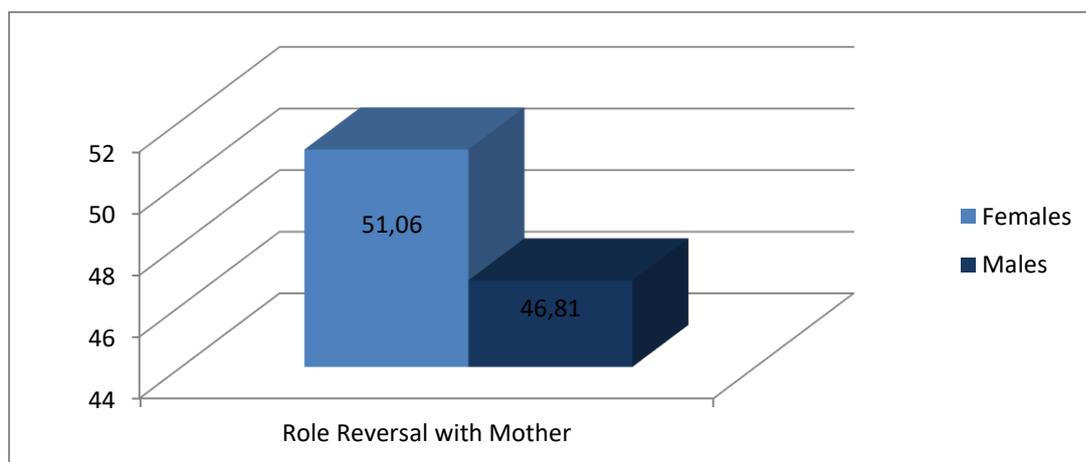


Figure 3.1 Mean Values of Males and Females on Role Reversal with Mother

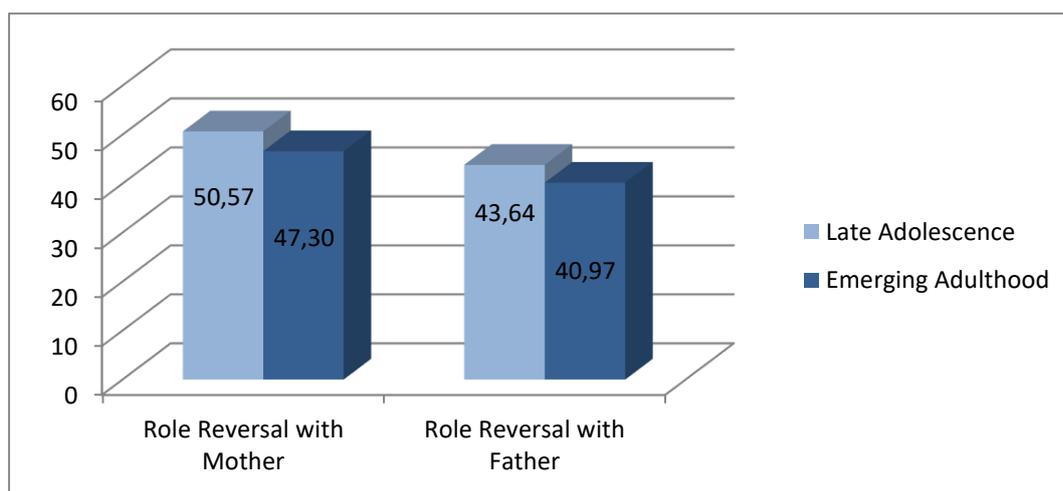


Figure 3.2 Mean Values of Late Adolescents and Emerging Adults on Role Reversal with Parents

3.2.3.2 Divergences Regarding Gender and Age on Emotions

In order to test the divergences of gender and age on emotions of shame and anger, a 2 (Gender [male, female]) X 2 (Age Groups [late adolescence, emerging adulthood]) between subjects MANOVA was conducted. According to the results, there was no significant main effect of gender [*Multivariate F* (2, 530) = 1.231, $p = .293$; Wilks' Lambda = .99, $\eta_p^2 = .005$] and gender x age interaction [*Multivariate F* (2, 530) = 0.236, $p = .790$; Wilks' Lambda = .99, $\eta_p^2 = .001$] on emotions (see Table 3.8). The main effect of age groups, on the other hand, was found to be significant [*Multivariate F* (2, 530) = 3.065, $p = .043$; Wilks' Lambda = .98, $\eta_p^2 = .011$]. In order to test the significance of univariate statistics, a Bonferroni correction was conducted and the p values lower than .025 was evaluated as significant. Accordingly, the findings indicated that age groups had a significant difference on trait anger [F (1, 531) = 5.935, $p = .015$, $\eta_p^2 = .011$]. Specifically, late adolescents ($M = 23.10$, $SE = .37$) reported higher propensity to feel anger as compared to emerging adults ($M = 21.86$, $SE = .35$) (see Figure 3.3).

Table 3.8 Gender and Age Differences on Emotions

Variables	Multi. <i>F</i>	df	Wilks' Lambda	Multi. η^2	Univariate <i>F</i>	Univariate η^2
Gender	1.231	2, 530	.99	.005		
Trait Shame		1, 531			1.995	.004
Trait Anger		1, 531			0.194	.000
Age Groups	3.065*	2, 530	.98	.011		
Trait Shame		1, 531			0.733	.001
Trait Anger		1, 531			5.935*	.011
Gender X Age	0.236	2, 530	.99	.001		
Trait Shame		1, 531			0.110	.000
Trait Anger		1, 531			0.290	.001

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

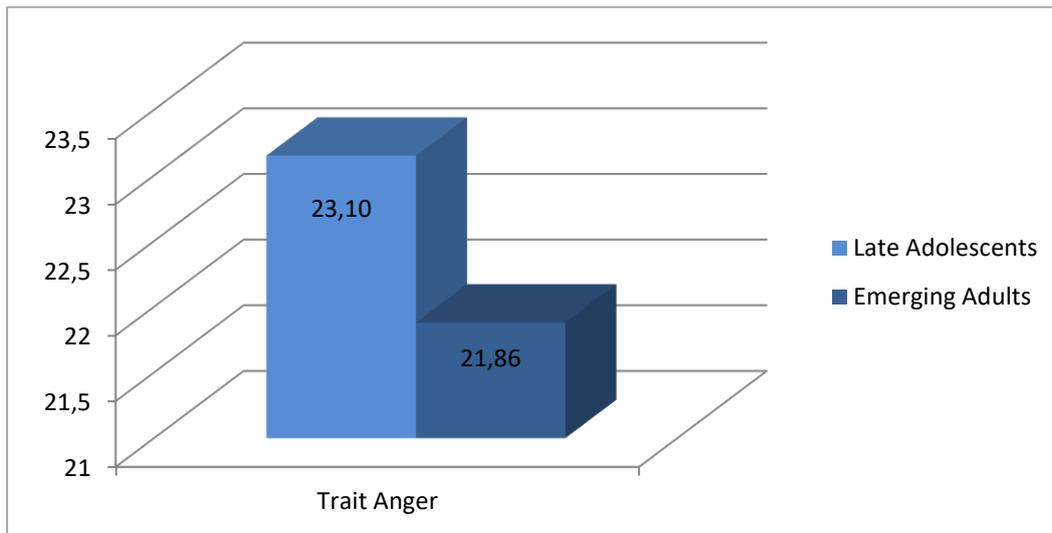


Figure 3.3 Mean Values of Late Adolescents and Emerging Adults on Trait Anger

3.2.3.3 3 Divergences Regarding Gender and Age on Separation-Individuation Difficulties

In order to test the divergences of gender and age on separation-individuation difficulties, namely splitting, differentiation, and relationship problems, a 2 (Gender [male, female]) X 2 (Age Groups [late adolescence, emerging adulthood]) between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results indicated significant main effects of gender [*Multivariate F* (3, 529) = 2.708, $p = .045$; Wilks' Lambda = .98, $\eta_p^2 = .015$] and age groups [*Multivariate F* (3, 529) = 3.683, $p = .012$; Wilks' Lambda = .98, $\eta_p^2 = .020$] on separation- individuation difficulties, but there was no significant gender x age interaction [*Multivariate F* (3, 529) = 0.655, $p = .580$; Wilks' Lambda = .99, $\eta_p^2 = .004$] (see Table 3.9). In order to assess univariate statistics a Bonferroni correction was conducted and p values lower than .017 were accepted as significant. Based on this correction, significant gender differences were found on splitting [F (1, 531) = 6.665, $p = .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .012$] and relationship problems [F (1, 531) = 5.800, $p = .016$, $\eta_p^2 = .011$]. Specifically, females scored higher on both splitting ($M = 52.13$, $SE = .76$) and relationship problems ($M = 55.91$, $SE = .77$) as compared to males (Splitting $M = 48.50$, $SE = 1.19$; Relationship Problems $M = 52.48$, $SE = 1.20$) (see Figure 3.4). Age groups differed from each other on splitting [F (1, 531) = 7.636, $p =$

.006, $\eta_p^2 = .014$] and relationship problems [$F(1, 531) = 10.254, p = .001, \eta_p^2 = .019$]. Specifically, late adolescents got significantly higher scores on both splitting ($M = 52.26, SE = 1.01$) and relationship problems ($M = 56.48, SE = 1.03$) than emerging adults (Splitting $M = 48.37, SE = 0.97$; Relationship Problems $M = 51.92, SE = 0.99$) (see Figure 3.5).

Table 3.9 Gender and Age Differences on Separation-Individuation Difficulties

Variables	Multi. <i>F</i>	df	Wilks' Lambda	Multi. η^2	Univariate <i>F</i>	Univariate η^2
Gender	2.708*	3, 529	.98	.015		
Splitting		1, 531			6.665*	.012
Differentiation Problems		1, 531			2.416	.005
Relationship Problems		1, 531			5.800*	.011
Age Groups	3.683*	3, 529	.98	.020		
Splitting		1,531			7.636**	.014
Differentiation Problems		1,531			4.988	.009
Relationship Problems		1, 531			10.254**	.019
Gender X Age	0.655	3, 529	.99	.004		
Splitting		1, 531			0.547	.001
Differentiation Problems		1,531			0.070	.000
Relationship Problems		1,531			0.001	.000

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

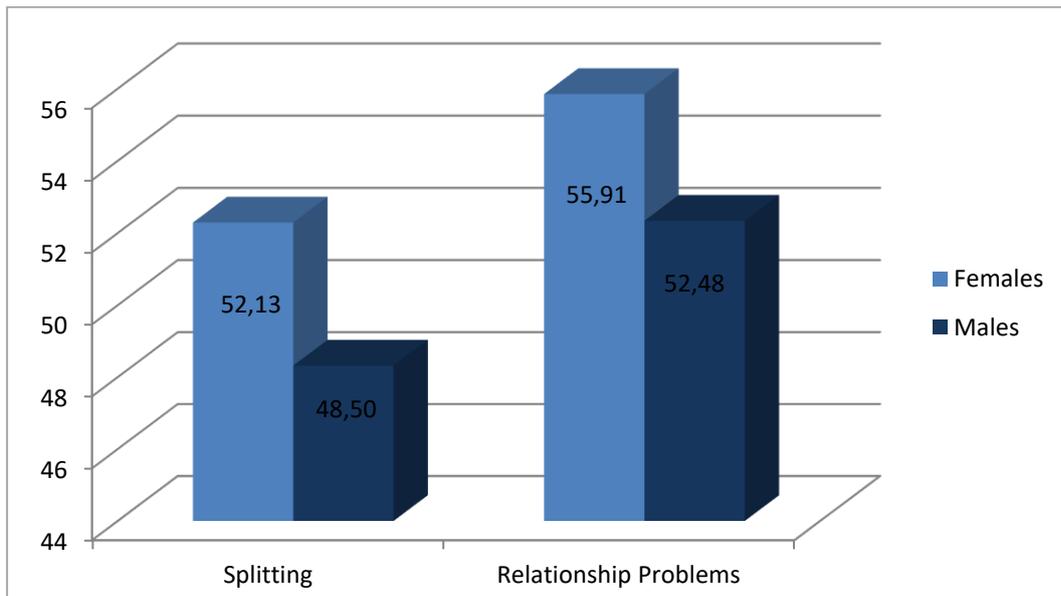


Figure 3.4 Mean Values of Males and Females on Separation-Individuation Difficulties

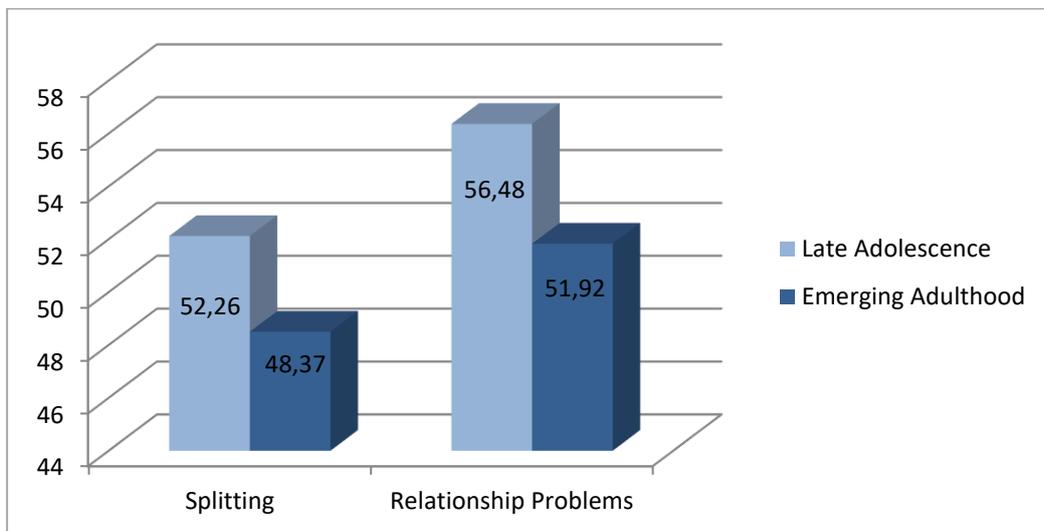


Figure 3.5 Mean Values of Late Adolescents and Emerging Adults on Separation-Individuation Difficulties

3.2.3.4 Divergences Regarding Gender and Age on Personality Disorder Beliefs

In order to test the divergences of gender and age on personality disorder beliefs categories, namely, deprecating, inflated, and ambivalent personality beliefs, a 2 (Gender [male, female]) X 2 (Age Groups [late adolescence, emerging adulthood]) between subjects MANOVA was conducted. The results indicated significant main effect of gender [*Multivariate F* (3, 529) = 6.496, $p < .001$; Wilks' Lambda = .96, $\eta_p^2 = .036$] and age groups [*Multivariate F* (3, 529) = 3.161, $p = .024$; Wilks' Lambda = .98, $\eta_p^2 = .018$] on personality disorder beliefs. There was no gender x age interaction on personality disorder beliefs [*Multivariate F* (3, 529) = 2.037, $p = .108$; Wilks' Lambda = .99, $\eta_p^2 = .011$] (see Table 3.10). In order to assess univariate statistics a Bonferroni correction was conducted and p values lower than .017 were accepted as significant. According to this correction, gender had significant differences on inflated [F (1, 531) = 12.363, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .023$] and ambivalent [F (1, 531) = 9.728, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .018$] personality disorder beliefs. Specifically, male participants got significantly higher scores on both inflated ($M = 87.10$, $SE = 2.37$) and ambivalent ($M = 75.19$, $SE = 1.93$) personality beliefs as compared to females (Inflated $M = 77.24$, $SE = 1.51$; Ambivalent ($M = 68.06$, $SE = 1.23$) (see Figure 3.6). Age groups significantly differed from each other on deprecating personality disorder beliefs [F (1, 531) = 9.332, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .017$]. Specifically, late adolescents ($M = 56.68$, $SE = 1.41$) had higher deprecating personality beliefs as compared to emerging adults ($M = 50.72$, $SE = 1.35$) (see Figure 3.7).

Table 3.10 Gender and Age Differences on Personality Disorder Beliefs

Variables	Multi. F	df	Wilks' Lambda	Multi. η^2	Univariate F	Univariate η^2
Gender	6.496***	3, 529	.96	.036		
Deprecating		1, 531			0.512	.001
Inflated		1, 531			12.363***	.013
Ambivalent		1, 531			9.728**	.018

Table 3.10 (Cont'd)

Variables	Multi. <i>F</i>	df	Wilks' Lambda	Multi. η^2	Univariate <i>F</i>	Univariate η^2
Age Groups	3.161*	3, 529	.98	.018		
Deprecating		1,531			9.332**	.017
Inflated		1,531			4.358	.008
Ambivalent		1, 531			2.850	.005
Gender X Age	2.037	3, 529	.99	.011		
Deprecating		1, 531			0.692	.001
Inflated		1,531			0.654	.001
Ambivalent		1,531			0.430	.001

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

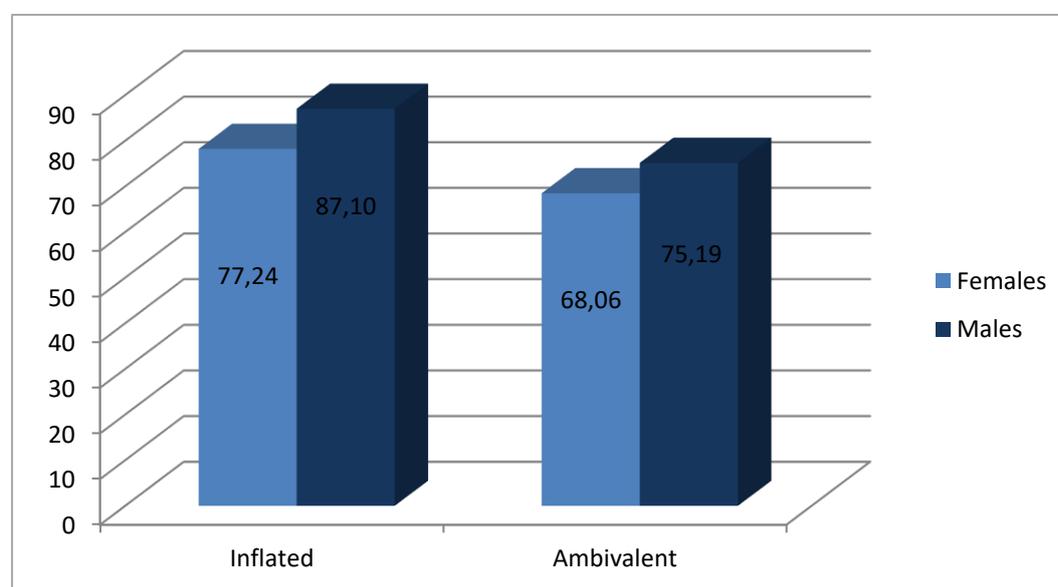


Figure 3.6 Mean Values of Males and Females on Personality Disorder Beliefs

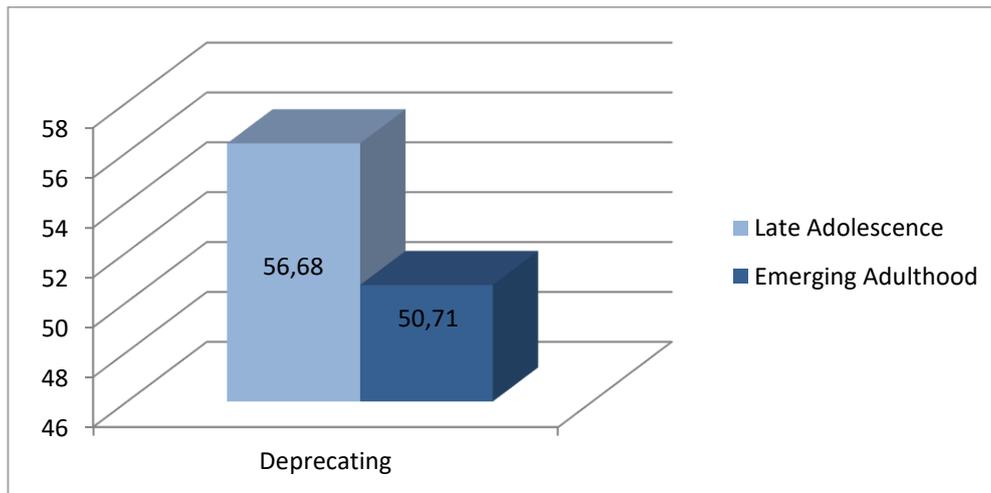


Figure 3.7 Mean Values of Age Groups on Personality Disorder Beliefs

3.2.4 Inter-correlations among the Variables of Young Adults

Pearson correlation coefficients were estimated in order to test the relationships among scales of perceived parenting styles (rejection, warmth, overprotection), role reversal history, emotions (i.e., shame, anger), separation-individuation difficulties (i.e., splitting, differentiation problems, relationship problems), and personality disorder beliefs (i.e., deprecating, inflated, ambivalent) of young adults. The results of the correlations were represented in Table 3.11.

3.2.5 Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

Four different sets of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were run in order to reveal the associated factors of the (i) role reversal experiences of young adults with their mothers and fathers, (ii) emotions in young adults (i.e., shame and anger), (iii) separation-individuation difficulties of young adults (i.e., splitting, differentiation problems, relationship problems), and (iv) personality disorder beliefs of young adults (i.e., deprecating, inflated, ambivalent).

Table 3.111 Zero-order Correlations among the Variables of Young Adults

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
EMBU-S																
1. R-M	1															
2. W-M	-.34***	1														
3. O-M	.46***	-.02	1													
4. R-F	.68***	-.24***	.35***	1												
5. W-F	-.32***	.66***	-.08	-.41***	1											
6. O-F	.36***	-.02	.74***	.45***	-.02	1										
RPS																
7. RPS-M	.23***	.07	.32***	.29***	-.11**	.28***	1									
8. RPS-F	.19***	.02	.24***	.18***	.08	.30***	.64***	1								
Emotions																
9. Trait Shame	.30***	-.13**	.19***	.30***	-.22***	.17***	.20***	.14**	1							
10. Trait Anger	.30***	-.01	.24***	.28***	-.02	.26***	.24***	.20***	.17***	1						
11. SII	.30***	-.09*	.24***	.31***	-.13**	.25***	.40***	.35***	.42***	.42***	1					
12. Splitting	.31***	-.16***	.22***	.28***	-.18***	.21***	.32***	.28***	.45***	.40***	.90***	1				
13. Diff. Prob.	.29***	-.12**	.22***	.32***	-.14**	.25***	.39***	.34***	.37***	.36***	.90***	.72***	1			
14. Rel. Prob.	.19***	.05	.19***	.21***	-.01	.21***	.35***	.31***	.30***	.36***	.86***	.67***	.64***	1		
PBQ Categories																
15. Deprecating PB	.21***	-.01	.23***	.24***	-.03	.24***	.30***	.27***	.29***	.42***	.57***	.48***	.54***	.50***	1	
16. Inflated PB	.13**	.09*	.23***	.16***	.12**	.26***	.29***	.31***	.08	.49***	.47***	.39***	.41***	.44***	.68***	1
17. Ambivalent PB	.12**	.01	.17***	.15**	.03	.18***	.27***	.30***	.17***	.45***	.51***	.47***	.43***	.45***	.64***	.74***

Note. EMBU-S: Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing Short; R-M: Rejection from Mother; W-M: Warmth from Mother; O-M: Overprotection from Mother; R-F: Rejection from Father; W-F: Warmth from Father; O-F: Overprotection from Father; RPS: Relationship with Parents Scale; RPS-M: Relationship with Parents Scale Mother Form; RPS-F: Relationship with Parents Scale Father Form; SII: Separation-Individuation Inventory; Diff. Prob.: Differentiation Problems; Rel. Prob.: Relationship Problems; PBQ: Personality Beliefs Questionnaire; PB: Personality Beliefs. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

3.2.5.1 Variables Predicting Role Reversal with Parents

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted separately for role reversal with mothers and fathers. Variables were hierarchically entered to the equation (by using stepwise method) in two steps. In the first step, gender and age of young adults were entered into the analysis in order to control their effects on role reversal experiences of young adults. After controlling gender and age, mothers' and fathers' parenting styles perceived by young adults were entered to the equation in the second step.

3.2.5.1.1 Variables Predicting Role Reversal with Mothers

A two-step hierarchical multiple regression analysis was run in order to test the maternal and paternal parenting styles (i.e., rejection, warmth, and over-protection/control) contributing to role confusion with the mother in young adults. Of control variables, gender ($\beta = -.14$, $t [533] = -3.23$, $p < .01$) and age ($\beta = -.09$, $t [532] = -2.02$, $p < .05$) were significantly associated with role confusion with the mother. Gender explained 2 % of the variance in role confusion with the mother ($F [1, 533] = 10.40$, $p < .01$) and the addition of age increased the explained variance to 3 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 532] = 4.06$, $p < .05$). In other words, being female and younger was related to increased recollections of role reversal with the mother during childhood. After controlling gender and age, perceived parenting styles were tested in the model. Of them, maternal over-protection ($\beta = .33$, $t [531] = 8.03$, $p < .001$), paternal rejection ($\beta = .19$, $t [530] = 4.48$, $p < .001$), maternal warmth ($\beta = .12$, $t [529] = 2.96$, $p < .01$), and paternal warmth ($\beta = -.18$, $t [528] = -3.17$, $p < .01$) were significantly associated with young adults' role confusion with their mothers. Maternal overprotection increased explained variance to 13 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 531] = 64.50$, $p < .001$). After paternal rejection was added to the model, the explained variance increased up to 16 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 530] = 20.10$, $p < .001$), maternal warmth increased the explained variance to 17 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 529] = 9.78$, $p < .01$), and finally the addition of paternal warmth increased the explained variance to 19 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1,$

528] = 10.04, $p < .01$). That is, encountering more maternal overprotection, paternal rejection, maternal warmth, and less paternal warmth increased the tendency to experience role confusion with the mother during childhood. Findings of the analysis were represented in Table 3.12.

3.2.5.1.2 Variables Predicting Role Reversal with Fathers

A two-step hierarchical multiple regression analysis was run in order to examine the maternal and paternal parenting styles (i.e., rejection, warmth, and overprotection/control) contributing to role confusion with the father in young adults. Of control variables, age was significantly associated with role reversal with the father ($\beta = -.09$, $t [533] = -2.15$, $p < .05$) and it explained 1 % of the variance in role reversal with the father ($F [1, 533] = 4.61$, $p < .05$). Specifically, younger participants reported more role reversal recollections with their fathers. Of parenting styles, paternal overprotection ($\beta = .30$, $t [532] = 7.23$, $p < .001$), maternal rejection ($\beta = .09$, $t [531] = 2.12$, $p < .05$), and paternal warmth ($\beta = .13$, $t [530] = 2.96$, $p < .01$) were significantly associated with young adults' role confusion with their fathers. Paternal overprotection increased the explained variance to 10 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 532] = 52.21$, $p < .001$), the addition of the maternal rejection increased the explained variance increased to 11 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 531] = 4.50$, $p < .05$), and lastly paternal warmth were added to the model and the explained variance increased to 12 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 530] = 8.75$, $p < .01$). That is, participants encountering more overprotection from their fathers, more rejection from their mothers, and more warmth from their fathers tended to have more role confusion experiences with their fathers. Findings of the analysis were represented in Table 3.12.

Table 3.12 Regression Analyses for Role Reversal with Parents

Variables	F_{change}	df	t	β	R^2
Dependent Variable: Role Reversal-Mother					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	10.40	1, 533	-3.23**	-.14	.02

Table 3.12 (Cont'd)

Variables	F_{change}	df	t	β	R^2
Step 1: Control Variables					
Age	4.06	1, 532	-2.02*	-.09	.03
Step 2: Perceived Parenting Styles					
Maternal Overprotection	64.50	1, 531	8.03***	.33	.13
Paternal Rejection	20.10	1, 530	4.48***	.19	.16
Maternal Warmth	8.78	1, 529	2.96**	.12	.18
Paternal Warmth	10.04	1, 528	-3.17**	-.18	.19
Dependent Variable: Role Reversal-Father					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Age	4.611	1, 533	-2.15*	-.09	.01
Step 2: Perceived Parenting Styles					
Paternal Overprotection	52.21	1, 532	7.23***	.30	.10
Maternal Rejection	4.50	1, 531	2.12*	.09	.11
Paternal Warmth	8.75	1, 530	2.96**	.13	.12

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

3.2.5.2 Variables Predicting Emotions

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted separately for shame and anger in young adults. Variables were hierarchically entered to the equation (by using stepwise method) in three steps. In the first step, the age and gender of young adults were entered into the analysis in order to control their effects on emotions. After controlling age and gender, mothers' and fathers' parenting styles perceived by young adults were entered to the equation in the second step. Role confusion with mothers and fathers were entered to the equation in the last step.

3.2.5.2.1 Variables Predicting Shame Proneness

A three-step hierarchical multiple regression analysis was run in order to reveal the associated factors with shame. Control variables were not significantly associated with shame, thus they were not included in the model. Of perceived

parenting styles, rejection perceived from the father ($\beta = .30, t [533] = 7.38, p < .001$) and the mother ($\beta = .17, t [532] = 3.02, p < .01$) and warmth perceived from the father ($\beta = -.11, t [531] = -2.35, p < .05$) were significantly associated with shame in young adults. Paternal rejection explained 9 % of the variance in shame ($F[1, 533] = 54.40, p < .001$) and maternal rejection increased the explained variance to 11 % ($F[1, 532] = 9.15, p < .01$). The addition of the paternal warmth increased the explained variance to 12 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 531] = 5.53, p < .05$). In other words, participants experiencing more rejection from both parents and less warmth from their fathers had a tendency to frequently and intensely feel shame. Of role confusion with parents, only role reversal with the mother was significantly associated with shame ($\beta = .12, t [530] = 2.75, p < .01$) and it increased the explained variance to 13 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 530] = 7.54, p < .01$). That is, young adults who engaged in more role reversal with their mothers were more likely to experience shame. The results of the analysis were represented in Table 3.13.

3.2.5.2.2 Variables Predicting Anger Proneness

A three-step hierarchical multiple regression analysis was run in order to reveal the associated factors with anger. Of control variables only age had a significant association with anger ($\beta = -.12, t [533] = -2.77, p < .01$) and it explained 1 % of the variance in anger ($F[1, 533] = 7.67, p < .01$). That is, having a younger age was related to increased feeling of anger. After controlling age, rejection perceived from the mother ($\beta = .30, t [532] = 7.24, p < .001$) and overprotection perceived from the father ($\beta = .17, t [531] = 9.87, p < .001$) were significantly associated with anger in young adults. Maternal rejection increased the explained variance to 10 % ($F_{\text{change}}[1, 532] = 52.46, p < .001$). The addition of the paternal overprotection to the model increased the explained variance to 13 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 531] = 14.98, p < .001$). In other words, participants encountering more rejection from their mothers and more overprotection from their fathers had a tendency to feel anger frequently. Of role confusion with parents, only role reversal with the mother was significantly associated with anger ($\beta = .15, t [530] = 3.40, p < .01$) and it increased

the explained variance to 15 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 530] = 11.58, p < .01$). That is, participants reporting more role confusion recollections with their mothers tended to experience anger frequently. The results of the analysis were represented in Table 3.13.

Table 3.13 Regression Analyses for Emotions

Variables	F_{change}	df	t	β	R^2
Dependent Variable: Shame					
Step 1: Control Variables					
-					
Step 2: Perceived Parenting Styles					
Paternal Rejection	54.40	1, 533	7.38***	.30	.09
Maternal Rejection	9.15	1, 532	3.02**	.17	.11
Paternal Warmth	5.53	1, 531	-2.35*	-.11	.12
Step 3: Role Confusion with Parents					
Role Confusion with Mother	7.54	1, 530	2.75**	.12	.13
Dependent Variable: Anger					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Age	7.67	1, 533	-2.77**	-.12	.01
Step 2: Perceived Parenting Styles					
Maternal Rejection	52.46	1, 532	7.24***	.30	.10
Paternal Overprotection	14.98	1, 531	3.87***	.17	.13
Step 3: Role Confusion with Parents					
Role Confusion with Mother	11.58	1, 530	3.40**	.15	.15

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

3.2.5.3 Variables Predicting Separation-Individuation Difficulties

Three separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted for three domains of separation-individuation difficulties namely, splitting, differentiation, and relationship problems. Variables were hierarchically entered to the equation (by using stepwise method) in four steps. In the first step, the age and gender of young adults were entered into the analysis in order to control their effects on separation-individuation difficulties. After accounting for gender and age, mothers' and fathers' parenting styles perceived by young adults were entered to the equation in the second step. Role confusion with mothers and fathers were entered to

the equation in the third step. Shame and anger were entered to the model in the last step.

3.2.5.3.1 Variables Predicting Splitting

A four-step hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to reveal the associated variables with splitting domain of separation-individuation difficulties. Of control variables, age ($\beta = -.15, t [533] = -3.42, p < .01$) and gender ($\beta = -.10, t [532] = -2.31, p < .05$) showed significant associations with splitting. Age explained 2 % of variance in splitting ($F[1, 533] = 11.68, p < .01$) and the addition of gender to the model increased the explained variance to 3 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 532] = 5.33, p < .05$). In other words, being younger and female was related to increased scores of splitting. Of perceived parenting styles, rejection ($\beta = .30, t [531] = 7.20, p < .001$) and overprotection ($\beta = .11, t [530] = 2.49, p < .05$) perceived from the mother and warmth perceived from the father ($\beta = -.11, t [529] = -2.55, p < .05$) were significantly associated with splitting. Maternal rejection increased the explained variance to 12 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 531] = 51.78, p < .001$) and maternal overprotection increased the explained variance to 13 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 530] = 6.19, p < .05$) and the explained variance increased to 14 % with the addition of paternal warmth ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 529] = 6.52, p < .05$). That is, participants encountering more maternal rejection and overprotection and less paternal warmth had a tendency to hold more splitting perception. Of role confusion with parents, role confusion with the father ($\beta = .22, t [528] = 5.40, p < .001$) and mother ($\beta = .13, t [527] = 2.39, p < .05$) had significant associations with splitting. The explained variance increased to 18 % with the addition of role confusion with the father ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 528] = 29.18, p < .001$) and it increased to 19 % with the addition of role confusion with the mother ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 527] = 5.71, p < .05$). Specifically, participants with higher scores on role confusion with both parents were more likely to experience splitting. Of emotions, both shame ($\beta = .35, t [526] = 8.93, p < .001$) and anger ($\beta = .29, t [525] = 7.59, p < .001$) were significantly associated with splitting. Shame increased the explained variance to 30 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 526] = 79.72, p < .001$) and anger increased it to 37 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 525]$

= 57.54, $p < .001$). In other words, young adults showing more tendency to feel shame and anger were more likely to hold a splitting view. Findings of the analysis were represented in Table 3.14.

3.2.5.3.2 Variables Predicting Differentiation Problems

A four-step hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to reveal the associated variables with differentiation problems domain of separation-individuation difficulties. Of control variables, only age ($\beta = -.11$, $t [533] = -2.46$, $p < .05$) showed a significant association with differentiation problems. Age explained 1 % of the variance in differentiation problems ($F[1, 533] = 6.04$, $p < .05$). Specifically, being younger was related to increased likelihood of having differentiation struggles. Of perceived parenting styles, rejection perceived from the father ($\beta = .31$, $t [532] = 7.62$, $p < .001$) and overprotection from the mother ($\beta = .13$, $t [531] = 2.92$, $p < .01$) were significantly associated with differentiation problems. Paternal rejection increased the explained variance to 11 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 532] = 57.99$, $p < .001$) and maternal overprotection increased the explained variance to 12 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 531] = 8.54$, $p < .01$). In other words, participants exposing to more paternal rejection and maternal overprotection during their childhood tended have more difficulty in differentiation. Of role confusion with parents, role confusion with the mother ($\beta = .31$, $t [530] = 7.25$, $p < .001$) and father ($\beta = .15$, $t [529] = 3.03$, $p < .01$) had significant associations with difficulty in differentiation. The explained variance increased to 20 % with the addition of role confusion with the mother ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 530] = 52.49$, $p < .001$) and the explained variance increased to 22 % with the addition of role confusion with the father ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 529] = 9.21$, $p < .01$). Specifically, participants with higher scores on role confusion with both parents were more likely to have difficulties in differentiation. Of emotions, both shame ($\beta = .26$, $t [528] = 6.52$, $p < .001$) and anger ($\beta = .22$, $t [527] = 5.58$, $p < .001$) were significantly associated with differentiation difficulties. Shame increased the explained variance to 27 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 528] = 42.52$, $p < .001$) and anger increased it to 31 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 527] = 31.16$, $p < .001$). In other words, participants feeling more

shame and anger were more likely to have differentiation problems Findings of the analysis were represented in Table 3.14.

3.2.5.3.3 Variables Predicting Relationship Problems

A four-step hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to reveal the associated variables with relationship problems domain of separation-individuation difficulties. Of control variables, age ($\beta = -.13, t [533] = -3.02, p < .01$) and gender ($\beta = -.10, t [532] = -2.24, p < .05$) showed significant associations with relationship problems. Age explained 2 % of the variance in relationship problems ($F[1, 533] = 9.15, p < .01$) and gender increased the explained variance to 3 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 532] = 5.04, p < .05$). That is, younger and female participants had a tendency to have more relationship problems arisen from separation-individuation related issues. Of perceived parenting styles, rejection perceived from the father ($\beta = .20, t [531] = 4.74, p < .001$), overprotection perceived from the mother ($\beta = .15, t [530] = 3.25, p < .01$), and warmth perceived from the mother ($\beta = .09, t [529] = 2.02, p < .05$) were significantly associated with relationship problems. Paternal rejection increased the explained variance to 7 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 531] = 22.50, p < .001$), maternal overprotection increased the explained variance to 8 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 530] = 10.56, p < .01$), and maternal warmth increased the explained variance to 9 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 529] = 4.10, p < .05$). Specifically, participants exposing to more rejection from their fathers, more overprotection and emotional warmth from their mothers were likely to have separation-individuation related interpersonal difficulties. Of role confusion with parents, role confusion with the mother ($\beta = .27, t [528] = 6.07, p < .001$) and father ($\beta = .15, t [527] = 2.94, p < .01$) had significant associations with separation-individuation difficulties in relationships. The explained variance increased to 15 % with the addition of role confusion with the mother ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 528] = 36.79, p < .001$) and the explained variance increased to 16 % with the addition of role confusion with the father ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 527] = 8.64, p < .01$). Specifically, participants with higher scores on role confusion with both parents were more likely to have separation-individuation difficulties in relationships. Of emotions, both anger ($\beta =$

.27, $t [526] = 6.52, p < .001$) and shame ($\beta = .21, t [525] = 5.22, p < .001$) were significantly associated with relationship problems. Anger increased the explained variance to 23 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 526] = 42.47, p < .001$) and shame increased it to 26 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 525] = 27.21, p < .001$). In other words, participants feeling more anger and shame were more likely to have separation-individuation related relationship problems. Findings of the analysis were represented in Table 3.14.

Table 3.14 Regression Analyses for Separation-Individuation Difficulties

Variables	F_{change}	df	t	β	R^2
Dependent Variable: Splitting					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Age	11.68	1, 533	-3.42**	-.15	.02
Gender	5.33	1, 532	-2.31*	-.10	.03
Step 2: Perceived Parenting Styles					
Maternal Rejection	51.78	1, 531	7.20***	.30	.12
Maternal Overprotection	6.19	1, 530	2.49*	.11	.13
Paternal Warmth	5.52	1, 529	-2.55*	-.11	.14
Step 3: Role Confusion with Parents					
Role Confusion with Father	29.18	1, 528	5.40***	.22	.18
Role Confusion with Mother	5.71	1, 527	2.39*	.13	.19
Step 4: Emotions					
Shame	79.72	1, 526	8.93***	.35	.30
Anger	57.54	1, 525	7.59***	.29	.37
Dependent Variable: Differentiation Problems					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Age	6.04	1, 533	-2.46*	-.11	.01
Step 2: Perceived Parenting Styles					
Paternal Rejection	57.99	1, 532	7.62***	.31	.11
Maternal Overprotection	8.54	1, 531	2.92**	.13	.12
Step 3: Role Confusion with Parents					
Role Confusion with Mother	52.49	1, 530	7.25***	.31	.20
Role Confusion with Father	9.21	1, 529	3.03**	.15	.22
Step 4: Emotions					
Shame	42.52	1, 528	6.52***	.26	.27
Anger	31.16	1, 527	5.58***	.22	.31

Table 3.14 (Cont'd)

Variables	F_{change}	df	t	β	R^2
Dependent Variable: Relationship Problems					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Age	9.15	1, 533	-3.02**	-.13	.02
Gender	5.04	1, 532	-2.24*	-.10	.03
Step 2: Perceived Parenting Styles					
Paternal Rejection	22.50	1, 531	4.74***	.20	.07
Maternal Overprotection	10.56	1, 530	3.25**	.15	.08
Maternal Warmth	4.10	1, 529	2.02*	.09	.09
Step 3: Role Confusion with Parents					
Role Confusion with Mother	36.79	1, 528	6.07***	.27	.15
Role Confusion with Father	8.64	1, 527	2.94**	.15	.16
Step 4: Emotions					
Anger	42.47	1, 526	6.52***	.27	.23
Shame	27.21	1, 525	5.22***	.21	.26

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

3.2.5.4 Variables Predicting Personality Disorder Beliefs

Three separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted for three categories of personality disorder beliefs namely, deprecating, inflated, and ambivalent. Variables were hierarchically entered to the equation (by using stepwise method) in five steps. In the first step, gender and age of young adults were entered into the analysis in order to control their effects on personality beliefs. After controlling these demographic variables, mothers' and fathers' parenting styles perceived by young adults were entered to the equation in the second step. Role confusion with mothers and fathers were entered to the equation in the third step. Shame and anger were entered to the model in the fourth step. Finally, the domains of separation-individuation difficulties were defined to the model.

3.2.5.4.1 Variables Predicting Deprecating Beliefs

A five-step hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to reveal the associated variables with deprecating personality beliefs. Of control variables, only age had a significant association with deprecating personality ($\beta = -.09$, $t [533]$

= -2.18, $p < .05$) and it explained 1 % of variance in deprecating personality ($F[1, 533] = 4.76, p < .05$). In other words, younger participants were more likely to hold deprecating personality beliefs. Of perceived parenting styles, overprotection perceived from the father ($\beta = .24, t [532] = 5.67, p < .001$) and rejection perceived from the father ($\beta = .16, t [531] = 3.50, p < .01$) were significantly associated with deprecating personality beliefs in young adults. Paternal overprotection increased the explained variance to 6 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 532] = 32.13, p < .001$) and the explained variance increased to 9 % with the addition of paternal rejection ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 531] = 12.25, p < .01$). That is, young adults reporting to encounter more paternal overprotection and rejection had a tendency to hold deprecating personality beliefs. Of role confusion with parents, both role confusion with mother ($\beta = .22, t [530] = 5.15, p < .001$) and father ($\beta = .11, t [529] = 2.14, p < .05$) were significantly associated with deprecating personality beliefs. The explained variance increased to 13 % with the addition of role confusion with mother ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 530] = 26.56, p < .001$) and it increased to 14 % after role confusion with the father was added to the model ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 529] = 4.56, p < .05$). Specifically, the more young adults experienced role confusion with both parents, the more they had deprecating beliefs. Of emotions, anger ($\beta = .34, t [528] = 8.28, p < .001$) and shame ($\beta = .19, t [527] = 4.67, p < .001$) had significant associations with deprecating personality beliefs. The explained variance increased to 24 % with the addition of anger to the model ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 528] = 68.54, p < .001$) and it increased to 27 % with the addition of shame ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 527] = 21.81, p < .001$). Young adults showing more tendency to feel anger and shame were more likely to have deprecating beliefs. Of separation-individuation difficulties, differentiation problems ($\beta = .39, t [526] = 9.19, p < .001$) and relationship problems ($\beta = .19, t [525] = 4.05, p < .001$) had significant associations with deprecating personality beliefs. The explained variance increased to 37 % with the addition of differentiation problems ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 526] = 84.51, p < .001$) and it increased to 39 % after relationship difficulties was added to the model ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 525] = 16.38, p < .001$). That is, participants reporting to experience more

problems in differentiation and relationships were more likely to have deprecating personality beliefs. Findings of the analysis were represented in Table 3.15.

3.2.5.4.2 Variables Predicting Inflated Beliefs

A five-step hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted in order to reveal associated variables with inflated personality beliefs in young adults. Of control variables, both gender ($\beta = .14, t [533] = 3.28, p < .01$) and age ($\beta = -.12, t [532] = -2.75, p < .01$) showed significant associations with inflated personality beliefs. Gender explained 2 % of the variance in inflated personality ($F[1, 533] = 10.76, p < .01$) and the addition of age increased the explained variance to 3 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 532] = 7.57, p < .01$). In other words, being male and younger was related to increased likelihood of having inflated personality beliefs. Of perceived parenting styles, overprotection ($\beta = .26, t [531] = 6.29, p < .001$), warmth ($\beta = .13, t [530] = 3.18, p < .01$), and rejection ($\beta = .14, t [529] = 2.76, p < .01$) perceived from the father were significantly associated with inflated personality in young adults. The explained variance increased to 10 % after the addition of paternal overprotection ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 531] = 39.55, p < .001$), the addition of paternal warmth increased the explained variance to 12 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 530] = 10.10, p < .01$), and with the paternal rejection the explained variance increased to 13 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 529] = 7.61, p < .01$). In other words, participants encountering to more overprotection, warmth, and rejection of their fathers during childhood were more likely to have inflated view of themselves. Of role confusion with parents, role confusion with both the mother ($\beta = .26, t [528] = 6.11, p < .001$) and father ($\beta = .13, t [527] = 2.40, p < .05$) was significantly associated with inflated personality beliefs. Role confusion with the mother increased the explained variance to 19 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 528] = 35.97, p < .001$) and the explained variance increased to 20 % with the addition of role confusion with the father ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 527] = 5.75, p < .05$). As role confused encounters with both mother and father increased during childhood, the tendency to have inflated sense of self also increased in young adults. Of emotions, only anger had a significant association with inflated personality beliefs ($\beta = .41, t [526] = 10.62, p < .001$) and it

increased the explained variance to 34 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 526] = 112.80, p < .001$). Young adults showing more tendency to feel anger were more likely to have inflated beliefs. Of separation-individuation difficulties, relationship problems ($\beta = .27, t [525] = 6.96, p < .001$) and differentiation problems ($\beta = .15, t [524] = 3.16, p < .01$) were significantly associated with inflated personality beliefs. Relationship problems increased the explained variance to 39 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 525] = 48.42, p < .001$) and with the addition of differentiation problems, explained variance increased to 41 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 524] = 10.01, p < .01$). In other words, participants having more separation-individuation related problems in relationships and having more difficulties in differentiation were more likely to hold inflated personality beliefs. Findings of the analysis were represented in Table 3.15.

3.2.5.4.3 Variables Predicting Ambivalent Beliefs

A five- step hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted in order to reveal associated variables with ambivalent personality beliefs in young adults. Of control variables, both gender ($\beta = .13, t [533] = 2.95, p < .01$) and age ($\beta = -.10, t [532] = -2.19, p < .05$) were significantly associated with ambivalent personality. Gender explained 1 % of the variance in ambivalent personality features ($F[1, 533] = 8.71, p < .01$) and age increased it to 2 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 532] = 4.81, p < .05$). In other words, being male and younger was related to increased likelihood of having ambivalent personality beliefs. Of perceived parenting styles, overprotection perceived from the mother ($\beta = .18, t [531] = 4.30, p < .001$), and rejection ($\beta = .09, t [530] = 2.01, p < .05$) and warmth ($\beta = .10, t [529] = 2.26, p < .05$) perceived from the father were significantly associated with ambivalent personality in young adults. Maternal overprotection increased the explained variance to 5 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 531] = 18.47, p < .001$), paternal rejection increased the explained variance to 6 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 530] = 4.01, p < .05$), and paternal warmth increased the explained variance to 7 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 529] = 5.09, p < .05$). That is, young adults with more recollections of maternal overprotection and paternal rejection and warmth tended to have more ambivalent personality beliefs. Of role confusion with parents, both role confusion

with the father ($\beta = .25, t [528] = 5.81, p < .001$) and mother ($\beta = .15, t [527] = 2.67, p < .01$) were significantly associated with ambivalent personality in young adults. Role confusion with the father increased the explained variance to 12 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 528] = 33.73, p < .001$) and role confusion with the mother increased it to 14 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 527] = 7.10, p < .01$). That is, young adults engaging more role confused relational pattern with their fathers and mothers were more likely to develop ambivalent beliefs about themselves. Of emotions, anger ($\beta = .40, t [526] = 9.85, p < .001$) and shame ($\beta = .09, t [525] = 2.15, p < .05$) had a significant association with the ambivalent personality beliefs. Anger increased the explained variance to 27 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 526] = 96.97, p < .001$) and the explained variance increased to 28 % with the addition of shame ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 525] = 4.63, p < .05$). In other words, young adults showing more tendency to feel anger and shame tended to have ambivalent beliefs. Of separation-individuation difficulties, splitting ($\beta = .37, t [524] = 8.34, p < .001$) and relationship problems ($\beta = .17, t [523] = 3.64, p < .01$) had significant associations with ambivalent personality beliefs. Splitting increased the explained variance to 36 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 524] = 69.62, p < .001$) and relationship problems increased it to 38 % ($F_{\text{change}} [1, 523] = 13.22, p < .001$). That is, young adults who experience more splitting and relationship problems were more likely to have ambivalent personality beliefs. Findings of the analysis were represented in Table 3.15.

Table 3.15 Regression Analyses for Personality Disorder Beliefs

Variables	F_{change}	df	t	β	R^2
Dependent Variable: Deprecating PB					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Age	4.76	1, 533	-2.18*	-.09	.01
Step 2: Perceived Parenting Styles					
Paternal Overprotection	32.13	1, 532	5.67***	.24	.07
Paternal Rejection	12.25	1, 531	3.50**	.16	.09
Step 3: Role Confusion with Parents					
Role Confusion with Mother	26.56	1, 530	5.15***	.22	.13
Role Confusion with Father	4.56	1, 529	2.14*	.11	.14

Table 3.15 (Cont'd)

Variables	<i>F</i> _{change}	df	<i>t</i>	β	R ²
Step 4: Emotions					
Anger	68.54	1, 528	8.28***	.34	.24
Shame	21.81	1, 527	4.67***	.19	.27
Step 5: Separation-Individuation Difficulties					
Differentiation Problems	82.42	1, 526	9.19***	.39	.37
Relationship Problems	17.18	1, 525	4.05***	.19	.39
Dependent Variable: Inflated PB					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	10.76	1, 533	3.28**	.14	.02
Age	7.57	1, 532	-2.75**	-.12	.03
Step 2: Perceived Parenting Styles					
Paternal Overprotection	39.55	1, 531	6.29***	.26	.10
Paternal Warmth	10.10	1, 530	3.18**	.13	.12
Paternal Rejection	7.61	1, 529	2.76**	.14	.13
Dependent Variable: Inflated PB					
Step 3: Role Confusion with Parents					
Role Confusion with Mother	35.97	1, 528	6.11***	.26	.19
Role Confusion with Father	5.75	1, 527	2.40*	.13	.20
Step 4: Emotions					
Anger	112.80	1, 526	10.62***	.41	.34
Step 5: Separation-Individuation Difficulties					
Relationship Problems	48.42	1, 525	6.96***	.27	.39
Differentiation Problems	10.01	1, 524	3.16**	.15	.41
Dependent Variable: Ambivalent PB					
Step 1: Control Variables					
Gender	8.71	1, 533	2.95**	.13	.01
Age	4.81	1, 532	-2.19*	-.10	.02
Step 2: Perceived Parenting Styles					
Maternal Overprotection	18.47	1, 531	4.30***	.18	.05
Paternal Rejection	4.01	1, 530	2.01*	.09	.06
Paternal Warmth	5.09	1, 529	2.26*	.10	.07
Step 3: Role Confusion with Parents					
Role Confusion with Father	33.73	1, 528	5.81***	.25	.12
Role Confusion with Mother	7.10	1, 527	2.67**	.15	.14
Step 4: Emotions					
Anger	96.97	1, 526	9.85***	.40	.27
Shame	4.63	1, 525	2.15*	.09	.28

Table 3.15 (Cont'd)

Variables	F_{change}	df	t	β	R^2
Step 5: Separation-Individuation Difficulties					
Splitting	69.62	1, 524	8.34***	.37	.36
Relationship Problems	13.22	1, 523	3.64***	.17	.38

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

3.2.6 Inter-correlations between Parental Personality Beliefs and the Variables of Female and Male Offspring

Pearson correlation coefficients were estimated in order to examine the correlations of personality beliefs of parents with the parenting and personality beliefs of female and male offsprings. Firstly, the relationships between mothers' and fathers' personality disorder beliefs (i.e., deprecating, inflated, and ambivalent personality beliefs) and female offsprings' reports of perceived maternal and paternal parenting styles (i.e., rejection, emotional warmth, and overprotection), role reversal with their mothers and fathers, and personality disorder beliefs (i.e., deprecating, inflated, and ambivalent) were examined (see Table 3.16). Secondly, the correlations between mothers' and fathers' personality disorder beliefs and the same variables of male offsprings were examined (see Table 3.17)

According to the results, maternal personality disorder beliefs had small but significant correlations with perceived maternal rearing styles, role reversal with the mother, and personality disorder beliefs in female offsprings. Specifically, deprecating personality beliefs of mothers showed positive correlations with maternal rejection ($r = .13, p < .01$), maternal overprotection ($r = .11, p < .05$), role confusion with the mother ($r = .18, p < .001$), and personality disorder beliefs in female offsprings namely, deprecating ($r = .20, p < .001$), inflated ($r = .15, p < .01$), and ambivalent ($r = .16, p < .01$). That is, the more mothers displayed deprecating personality features, the more their daughters perceived maternal rejection and overprotection, experienced role confusion with their mothers, and held disordered personality beliefs. Similarly, the inflated personality features reported by mothers

were positively related to perceived maternal rejection ($r = .16, p < .01$) and overprotection ($r = .14, p < .01$), role confusion with the mother ($r = .14, p < .01$), and personality disorder features in female offsprings, specifically deprecating ($r = .15, p < .01$), inflated ($r = .21, p < .001$), and ambivalent ($r = .20, p < .001$). In other words, as mothers reported higher inflated personality features, their daughters reported higher rejection and overprotection from their mothers, higher role confusion with them, and more disrupted personality beliefs. The ambivalent personality beliefs of mothers also had positive correlations with perceived rejection from the mother ($r = .14, p < .01$), role confusion with the mother ($r = .14, p < .01$), and personality disorder beliefs in female offsprings namely, inflated ($r = .12, p < .05$) and ambivalent ($r = .24, p < .001$). That is, as mothers' ambivalent personality features increased, their daughters reported higher perceived rejection from the mother, experienced more role confusion with the mother, and more disrupted personality beliefs.

Regarding the correlations between fathers' personality beliefs and the variables of female offsprings, results indicated that paternal personality beliefs were not significantly correlated with neither maternal nor paternal rearing styles, however, they had small but significant correlations with role reversal with both mother and father and personality disorder beliefs in female offsprings. Specifically, deprecating personality beliefs of fathers showed positive correlations with role confusion with the mother ($r = .13, p < .05$) and the father ($r = .13, p < .05$) and personality disorder beliefs in female offsprings namely, deprecating ($r = .18, p < .001$), inflated ($r = .22, p < .001$), and ambivalent ($r = .21, p < .001$). That is, the more fathers displayed deprecating personality features, the more their daughters experienced role confusion with both their mothers and fathers and held disordered personality beliefs. Similarly, the inflated personality disorder beliefs in fathers showed positive correlations with role confusion with the mother ($r = .13, p < .05$) and father ($r = .17, p < .01$) and personality disorder beliefs in female offsprings namely, deprecating ($r = .12, p < .05$), inflated ($r = .27, p < .001$), and ambivalent ($r = .23, p < .001$). That is, as fathers reported higher inflated personality features, their

daughters reported higher role confusion with both the mother and father and more disrupted personality beliefs. The ambivalent personality beliefs of fathers also had positive correlations with role confusion with both mother ($r = .13, p < .01$) and father ($r = .15, p < .01$) and personality disorder beliefs in female offsprings namely, inflated ($r = .24, p < .01$) and ambivalent ($r = .26, p < .001$). That is, as fathers' ambivalent personality features increased, their daughters experienced more role confusion with both the mother and father and had more disrupted personality beliefs.

The results as for male offspring variables indicated that maternal personality disorder beliefs were not significantly correlated with maternal and paternal rearing styles and role confusion with parents in male offsprings. Mothers' personality beliefs had small to moderate correlations with only personality disorder beliefs in male offsprings. Specifically, deprecating personality beliefs of mothers showed positive correlations with personality disorder beliefs in male offsprings namely, deprecating ($r = .32, p < .001$), inflated ($r = .28, p < .001$), and ambivalent ($r = .31, p < .001$). That is, the more mothers displayed deprecating personality features, the more their sons held disordered personality beliefs. Similarly, the inflated personality features reported by mothers were positively related to personality disorder features in male offsprings, specifically deprecating ($r = .28, p < .01$), inflated ($r = .31, p < .001$), and ambivalent ($r = .25, p < .001$). In other words, as mothers reported higher inflated personality features, their sons reported more disrupted personality beliefs. The ambivalent personality beliefs of mothers also had positive correlations with personality disorder beliefs in male offsprings namely, deprecating ($r = .18, p < .05$), inflated ($r = .23, p < .01$), and ambivalent ($r = .23, p < .01$). That is, as mothers' ambivalent personality features increased, their sons reported more disrupted personality beliefs.

Table 3.16 Inter-correlations between Parental Personality Beliefs and Female Offspring Variables

Offspring Variables	Mothers' Personality Beliefs			Fathers' Personality Beliefs		
	Deprecating PB	Inflated PB	Ambivalent PB	Deprecating PB	Inflated PB	Ambivalent PB
EMBU-S						
R-M	.13**	.16**	.14**	-.01	-.04	-.01
W-M	-.04	.02	-.02	-.03	-.06	-.05
O-M	.11*	.14**	.05	.06	.08	.05
R-F	.06	.07	.04	-.01	-.03	-.04
W-F	-.04	-.01	-.01	-.02	-.02	.01
O-F	.08	.05	.01	.07	.09	.04
RPS						
RPS-M	.18**	.14**	.14**	.13*	.13*	.13**
RPS-F	.10	.04	.09	.13*	.17**	.15**
PBQ Categories						
Deprecating PB	.20***	.15**	.10	.18***	.12*	.10
Inflated PB	.15**	.21***	.12*	.22***	.27***	.24***
Ambivalent PB	.16**	.20***	.24***	.21***	.23***	.26***

Note. EMBU-S: Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing Short, R-M: Rejection from Mother, W-M: Warmth from Mother, O-M: Overprotection from Mother, R-F: Rejection from Father, W-F: Warmth from Father, O-F: Overprotection from Father, RPS: Relationship with Parents Scale, RPS-M: Relationship with Parents Scale Mother Form, RPS-F: Relationship with Parents Scale Father Form, PBQ: Personality Beliefs Questionnaire, PB: Personality Beliefs.

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

Regarding the correlations between fathers' personality beliefs and the variables of male offsprings, results indicated that paternal personality beliefs were not significantly correlated with perceived maternal rearing styles, however, they had significant correlations with paternal rearing styles, role reversal with both mother and father, and personality disorder beliefs in male offsprings. Specifically, deprecating personality beliefs of fathers were positively correlated with perceived overprotection from the father ($r = .24, p < .01$), role confusion with the mother ($r = .31, p < .001$) and the father ($r = .30, p < .001$), and personality disorder beliefs in male offsprings namely, deprecating ($r = .33, p < .001$), inflated ($r = .31, p < .001$), and ambivalent ($r = .35, p < .001$). That is, the more fathers displayed deprecating personality features, the more their sons perceived overprotection from their fathers, experienced role confusion with both their mothers and fathers, and held disordered personality beliefs. Similarly, the inflated personality disorder beliefs in fathers showed positive correlations with perceived overprotection from the father ($r = .29, p < .001$), role confusion with the mother ($r = .31, p < .001$) and father ($r = .34, p < .001$), and personality disorder beliefs in male offsprings namely, deprecating ($r = .35, p < .001$), inflated ($r = .44, p < .001$), and ambivalent ($r = .38, p < .001$). That is, as fathers reported higher inflated personality features, their sons reported higher paternal overprotection, higher role confusion with both mother and father, and more disrupted personality beliefs. The ambivalent personality beliefs of fathers also had positive correlations with perceived overprotection from the father ($r = .22, p < .01$), role confusion with both the mother ($r = .27, p < .01$) and father ($r = .33, p < .001$), and personality disorder beliefs in male offsprings namely, deprecating ($r = .30, p < .001$), inflated ($r = .36, p < .001$), and ambivalent ($r = .39, p < .001$). That is, as fathers' ambivalent personality features increased, their sons perceived higher paternal overprotection, experienced more role confusion with both the mother and father, and more disrupted personality beliefs.

Table 3.17 Inter-correlations between Parental Personality Beliefs and Male Offspring Variables

Offspring Variables	Mothers' Personality Beliefs			Fathers' Personality Beliefs		
	Deprecating PB	Inflated PB	Ambivalent PB	Deprecating PB	Inflated PB	Ambivalent PB
EMBU-S						
R-M	-.07	-.03	-.07	.07	.13	.08
W-M	-.03	-.02	.04	-.02	.07	.09
O-M	-.02	.04	.04	.07	.16	.12
R-F	-.08	-.08	-.11	.09	.15	.08
W-F	.05	.06	.11	-.04	.12	.11
O-F	.05	.05	.05	.24**	.29***	.22**
RPS						
RPS-M	.05	.06	-.03	.31***	.31***	.27**
RPS-F	.05	.10	.03	.30***	.34***	.33***
PBQ Categories						
Deprecating PB	.32***	.28***	.18*	.33***	.35***	.30***
Inflated PB	.28***	.31***	.23**	.31***	.44***	.36***
Ambivalent PB	.31***	.25**	.23**	.35***	.38***	.39***

Note: EMBU-S: Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing Short, R-M: Rejection from Mother, W-M: Warmth from Mother, O-M: Overprotection from Mother, R-F: Rejection from Father, W-F: Warmth from Father, O-F: Overprotection from Father, RPS: Relationship with Parents Scale, RPS-M: Relationship with Parents Scale Mother Form, RPS-F: Relationship with Parents Scale Father Form, PBQ: Personality Beliefs Questionnaire, PB: Personality Beliefs.

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

3.2.7 Parallel-Serial Mediation Analyses

In order to test the indirect association between personality disorder beliefs of parents and young adult offsprings through the mediating role of early parental experiences of young adults (i.e., perceived parenting styles, role confusion history with the parent), parallel-serial mediation models were conducted by using the Model 80 suggested by Hayes (2018). Since the correlation analyses indicated significant correlations between mothers' personality and perceived maternal parenting styles in female offsprings and fathers' personality and perceived paternal parenting styles in male offspring, the mediation analyses were conducted with mother-daughter and father-son dyads. Model 80 was used since it allows testing the pathways through which a predictor affects parallel multiple mediators simultaneously which, in turn affect a serial mediator which, together affect the outcome variable. Parental personality beliefs were specified as the predictor variable and the corresponding personality beliefs in the offspring was the outcome variable in the models. The parenting styles perceived by young adults were the parallel multiple mediators and early role reversal experience with the parent was the serial mediator.

3.2.7.1 The Association between Deprecating Personality Beliefs of Mothers and Daughters through the Mediating Role of Early Parental Experiences of Daughters

A parallel-serial mediation model was run in order to test the indirect effects of mothers' deprecating personality on the deprecating personality beliefs of their daughters through perceived maternal parenting styles (i.e., maternal rejection, overprotection, and warmth) and early role reversal experience with the mother (see Figure 3.8). The significance of indirect effects was tested through 5000 bootstrapped re-samples with 95 % confidence intervals. The hypothesized model was found to be significant ($F(5, 375) = 13.87, p < .001$) and it explained 16 % of the variance in deprecating personality beliefs of female offsprings. Mothers' deprecating

personality was significantly associated with maternal rejection ($B = 0.02$, $SE = 0.01$, $p = .01$, 95% CI [0.005, 0.037]) and maternal overprotection ($B = 0.03$, $SE = 0.02$, $p = .04$, 95% CI [0.002, 0.061]) perceived by the daughters; however, it did not significantly predict the maternal warmth ($B = -0.01$, $SE = 0.01$, $p = .49$, 95% CI [-0.026, 0.012]). Mothers' deprecating personality ($B = 0.10$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .01$, 95% CI [0.030, 0.172]), perceived maternal rejection ($B = 0.66$, $SE = 0.28$, $p = .02$, 95% CI [0.113, 1.202]), overprotection ($B = 0.58$, $SE = 0.14$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.309, 0.854]), and warmth ($B = 0.40$, $SE = 0.20$, $p = .05$, 95% CI [0.002, 0.795]) were all significantly associated with role confusion with the mother. Mothers' deprecating personality ($B = 0.13$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .01$, 95% CI [0.032, 0.220]), maternal rejection ($B = 0.96$, $SE = 0.37$, $p = .01$, 95% CI [0.238, 1.686]), and role confusion with the mother ($B = 0.32$, $SE = 0.07$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.191, 0.459]) were significantly associated with deprecating personality beliefs of daughters but maternal overprotection ($B = 0.24$, $SE = 0.19$, $p = .20$, 95% CI [-0.129, 0.607]) and maternal warmth ($B = 0.28$, $SE = 0.27$, $p = .29$, 95% CI [-0.245, 0.807]) did not have a significant association with it. Both the total ($B = 0.19$, $SE = 0.05$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.096, 0.292]) and direct effect ($B = 0.13$, $SE = 0.05$, $p = .01$, 95% CI [0.032, 0.220]) of mothers' deprecating personality on the deprecating beliefs of the daughters were significant.

Regarding indirect effects, the total indirect effect of mothers' deprecating personality beliefs was significant ($B = 0.07$, $SE = 0.02$, 95% CI [0.031, 0.109]) and four significant specific indirect associations were found between deprecating personality beliefs of mothers and female offsprings. Mothers' deprecating personality beliefs were indirectly associated with deprecating beliefs in daughters through perceived rejection from the mother ($B = 0.02$, $SE = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.002, 0.049]) and role confusion experience with the mother ($B = 0.03$, $SE = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.008, 0.063]). Mothers' deprecating personality beliefs were also associated with increases in maternal rejection accounts of the offspring, which were related to more early role confusion with the mother, which in turn, predicted more deprecating personality beliefs in female offsprings ($B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.002$, 95% CI [0.001,

0.011]). Mothers' deprecating personality beliefs were also associated with increases in maternal overprotection accounts of the offspring, which were related to more early role confusion with the mother, which in turn, predicted more deprecating personality beliefs in daughters ($B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.003$, 95% CI [0.001, 0.014]).

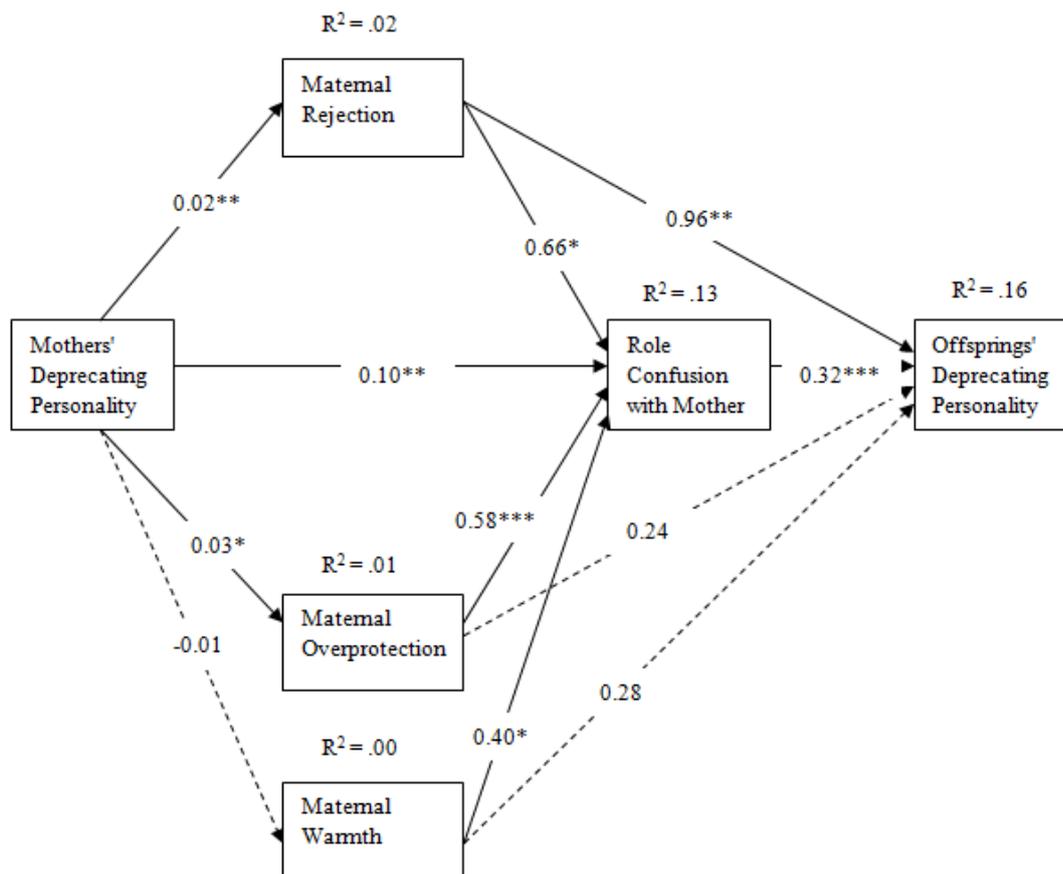


Figure 3.8 The Association between Deprecating Personality Beliefs of Mothers and Daughters through Early Parental Experiences of Daughters. *Note.* The figure represents the unstandardized coefficients. For the ease of representation the total and direct effects of mothers' deprecating personality were not represented. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

3.2.7.2 The Association between Inflated Personality Beliefs of Mothers and Daughters through the Mediating Role of Early Parental Experiences of Daughters

A parallel-serial mediation model was run in order to test the indirect effects of mothers' inflated personality on the inflated personality beliefs of their daughters through perceived maternal parenting styles (i.e., maternal rejection, overprotection, warmth) and early role reversal experience with the mother (see Figure 3.9). The significance of indirect effects was tested through 5000 bootstrapped re-samples with 95 % confidence intervals. Age of the female offsprings was specified as covariates in order to control its effect on the mediators and outcome. The hypothesized model was found to be significant ($F(6, 374) = 16.67, p < .001$) and it explained 21 % of the variance in inflated personality beliefs of female offsprings. Age was significantly associated with role confusion with the mother ($B = -0.90, SE = 0.45, p = .04, 95\% CI [-1.786, -0.016]$) and inflated personality beliefs in female offsprings ($B = -3.06, SE = 0.81, p < .001, 95\% CI [-4.651, -1.471]$). Mothers' inflated personality significantly predicted maternal rejection ($B = 0.02, SE = 0.01, p = .002, 95\% CI [0.006, 0.028]$) and overprotection ($B = 0.03, SE = 0.01, p = .01, 95\% CI [0.008, 0.049]$) but it did not significantly predict maternal warmth ($B = 0.002, SE = 0.01, p = .73, 95\% CI [-0.011, 0.016]$). Maternal rejection ($B = 0.64, SE = 0.28, p = .02, 95\% CI [0.091, 1.188]$) and overprotection ($B = 0.61, SE = 0.14, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.333, 0.881]$) were significantly associated with role confusion with the mother, however, mothers' inflated personality ($B = 0.04, SE = 0.02, p = .11, 95\% CI [-0.009, 0.088]$) and perceived maternal warmth ($B = 0.36, SE = 0.20, p = .08, 95\% CI [-0.044, 0.755]$) were not significantly associated with the role reversal. Mothers' inflated personality ($B = 0.13, SE = 0.04, p = .002, 95\% CI [0.046, 0.222]$), maternal overprotection ($B = 0.66, SE = 0.26, p = .01, 95\% CI [0.156, 1.160]$), maternal warmth ($B = 0.91, SE = 0.36, p = .01, 95\% CI [0.194, 1.628]$), and role confusion with the mother ($B = 0.49, SE = 0.09, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.311, 0.674]$) all significantly predicted the inflated personality beliefs of female offsprings but

perceived maternal rejection was not significantly associated with inflated personality beliefs in female offsprings ($B = 0.39$, $SE = 0.50$, $p = .44$, 95% CI [-0.599, 1.377]). Both the total ($B = 0.20$, $SE = 0.05$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [0.103, 0.288]) and direct effect ($B = 0.13$, $SE = 0.04$, $p = .003$, 95% CI [0.047, 0.222]) of mothers' inflated personality beliefs on inflated personality beliefs of female offsprings were found to be significant.

Regarding indirect effects, the total indirect effect of mothers' inflated personality beliefs was significant ($B = 0.06$, $SE = 0.02$, 95% CI [0.024, 0.102]) and three significant specific indirect associations were found between inflated personality beliefs of mothers and offsprings. Mothers' inflated personality beliefs predicted more inflated features in the offspring through maternal overprotection ($B = 0.02$, $SE = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.003, 0.045]). Mothers' inflated personality beliefs were also associated with higher maternal rejection which were related to more role confusion, which in turn, predicted more inflated personality beliefs in young adults ($B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.003$, 95% CI [0.000, 0.013]). Moreover, mothers' inflated personality beliefs were associated with higher maternal overprotection which were related to more role confusion experience with the mother, which in turn, predicted more inflated personality beliefs in young adults ($B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.004$, 95% CI [0.002, 0.018]).

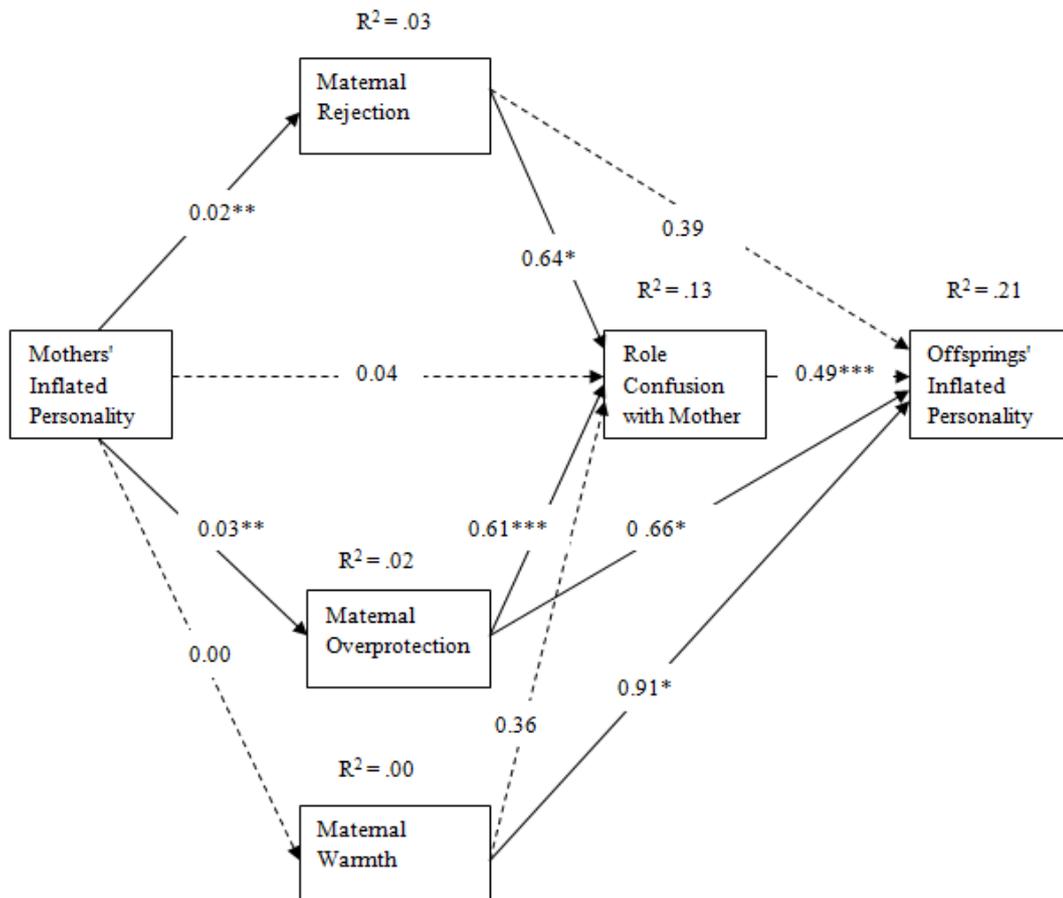


Figure 3.9 The Association between Inflated Personality Beliefs of Mothers and Daughters through Early Parental Experiences of Daughters. *Note.* The figure represents the unstandardized coefficients. For ease of the representation, the total and direct effects of mothers' inflated personality were not depicted in the figure. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

3.2.7.3 The Association between Ambivalent Personality Beliefs of Mothers and Daughters through the Mediating Role of Early Parental Experiences of Daughters

A parallel-serial mediation model was run in order to test the indirect effects of mothers' ambivalent personality on the ambivalent personality beliefs of their daughters through perceived maternal parenting styles (i.e., maternal rejection, overprotection, warmth) and early role reversal experience with the mother (see

Figure 3.10). The significance of indirect effects was tested through 5000 bootstrapped re-samples with 95 % confidence intervals. Age of the female offsprings was specified as covariates in order to control its effect on the mediators and outcome. The hypothesized model was found to be significant ($F(6, 374) = 13.16, p < .001$) and it explained 17 % of the variance in ambivalent personality beliefs of female offsprings. Age was significantly associated only with ambivalent personality in female offsprings ($B = -1.41, SE = 0.71, p = .04, 95\% CI [-2.802, -0.023]$). Mothers' ambivalent personality significantly predicted maternal rejection ($B = 0.02, SE = 0.01, p = .01, 95\% CI [0.005, 0.034]$) but it was not significantly associated with maternal overprotection ($B = 0.01, SE = 0.01, p = .28, 95\% CI [-0.12, 0.041]$) and warmth ($B = -0.003, SE = 0.01, p = .67, 95\% CI [-0.021, 0.014]$). Mothers' ambivalent personality beliefs ($B = 0.07, SE = 0.03, p = .04, 95\% CI [0.002, 0.128]$), maternal rejection ($B = 0.62, SE = 0.28, p = .03, 95\% CI [0.072, 1.168]$), and overprotection ($B = 0.63, SE = 0.14, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.353, 0.899]$) were all significantly associated with role confusion with the mother; however, maternal warmth did not significantly predict it ($B = 0.36, SE = 0.20, p = .07, 95\% CI [-0.033, 0.762]$). Mothers' ambivalent personality ($B = 0.19, SE = 0.05, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.093, 0.290]$) and role confusion with the mother ($B = 0.45, SE = 0.08, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.295, 0.612]$) significantly predicted the ambivalent personality beliefs of young adults; however, maternal rejection ($B = 0.11, SE = 0.44, p = .80, 95\% CI [-0.752, 0.970]$), overprotection ($B = 0.33, SE = 0.22, p = .14, 95\% CI [-0.109, 0.766]$), and warmth ($B = 0.42, SE = 0.32, p = .19, 95\% CI [-0.208, 1.039]$) were not significantly associated with ambivalent personality in female offsprings. Both the total ($B = 0.24, SE = 0.05, p < .0001, 95\% CI [0.133, 0.338]$) and direct effect ($B = 0.19, SE = 0.05, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.093, 0.290]$) of mothers' ambivalent personality beliefs on ambivalent personality beliefs of female offsprings were found to be significant.

Regarding indirect effects, the total indirect effect of mothers' ambivalent personality beliefs was significant ($B = 0.04, SE = 0.02, 95\% CI [0.007, 0.083]$) and two significant specific indirect paths were observed between ambivalent personality

beliefs of mothers and female offsprings. Mothers' ambivalent personality beliefs predicted more ambivalent features in the female offspring through role reversal with the mother ($B = 0.03$, $SE = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.001, 0.061]). Mothers' ambivalent personality beliefs were also associated with higher maternal rejection perceived by young adults, which were related to more role confusion in young adults, which in turn, predicted more ambivalent personality beliefs in young adults ($B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.003$, 95% CI [0.000, 0.014]).

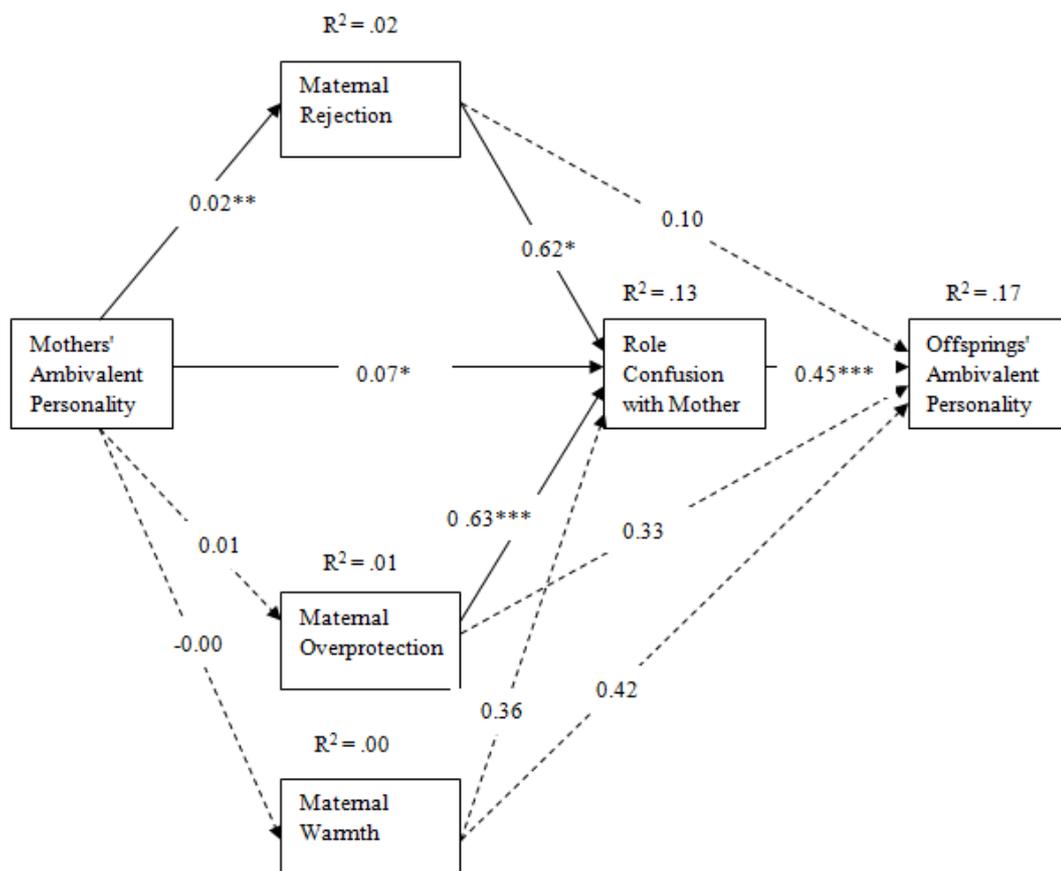


Figure 3.10 The Association between Ambivalent Personality Beliefs of Mothers and Daughters through Early Parental Experiences of Daughters. *Note.* The figure represents the unstandardized coefficients. For the ease of representation the total and direct effects of mothers' ambivalent personality were not represented. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

3.2.7.4 The Association between Deprecating Personality Beliefs of Fathers and Sons through the Mediating Role of Early Parental Experiences of Sons

A parallel-serial mediation model was run in order to test the indirect effects of fathers' deprecating personality on deprecating personality beliefs of their sons through perceived paternal parenting styles perceived (i.e., paternal rejection, overprotection, warmth) and early role reversal experience with the father (see Figure 3.11) The significance of indirect effects was tested through 5000 bootstrapped re-samples with 95 % confidence intervals. The hypothesized model was found to be significant ($F(5, 148) = 16.34, p < .001$) and it explained 18 % of the variance in deprecating personality beliefs of male offsprings. Fathers' deprecating personality significantly predicted overprotection perceived by male offsprings ($B = 0.05, SE = 0.02, p = .003, 95\% CI [0.019, 0.089]$) but it did not significantly predict paternal rejection ($B = 0.01, SE = 0.01, p = .27, 95\% CI [-0.010, 0.034]$) and warmth ($B = -0.01, SE = 0.02, p = .62, 95\% CI [-0.038, 0.023]$) perceived by male offsprings. Fathers' deprecating personality beliefs ($B = 0.14, SE = 0.04, p = .001, 95\% CI [0.058, 0.220]$) was significantly associated with male offsprings role reversal experience with the fathers, however, paternal rejection ($B = 0.50, SE = 0.33, p = .13, 95\% CI [-0.145, 1.154]$), overprotection ($B = 0.31, SE = 0.20, p = .12, 95\% CI [-0.083, 0.707]$), and warmth ($B = 0.40, SE = 0.23, p = .08, 95\% CI [-0.044, 0.846]$) did not significantly predict role reversal with the father. Fathers' deprecating personality ($B = 0.23, SE = 0.08, p = .003, 95\% CI [0.084, 0.384]$) was significantly associated with deprecating personality in male offsprings but paternal rejection ($B = 0.47, SE = 0.59, p = .43, 95\% CI [-0.700, 1.636]$), overprotection ($B = 0.61, SE = 0.36, p = .09, 95\% CI [-0.104, 1.319]$), warmth ($B = 0.32, SE = 0.41, p = .43, 95\% CI [-0.479, 1.126]$), and role confusion with the father ($B = 0.27, SE = 0.15, p = .07, 95\% CI [-0.023, 0.555]$) did not significantly predict the deprecating personality beliefs of male offsprings. Both the total ($B = 0.31, SE = 0.07, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.168, 0.456]$) and direct effect ($B = 0.23, SE = 0.08, p = .003, 95\% CI [0.084, 0.384]$) of fathers' deprecating personality beliefs on deprecating personality beliefs of male

offsprings were found to be significant. Regarding indirect effects, the total indirect effect of fathers' deprecating personality beliefs was significant ($B = 0.08$, $SE = 0.03$, 95% CI [0.018, 0.149]), however, none of the specific indirect effects were found to be significant.

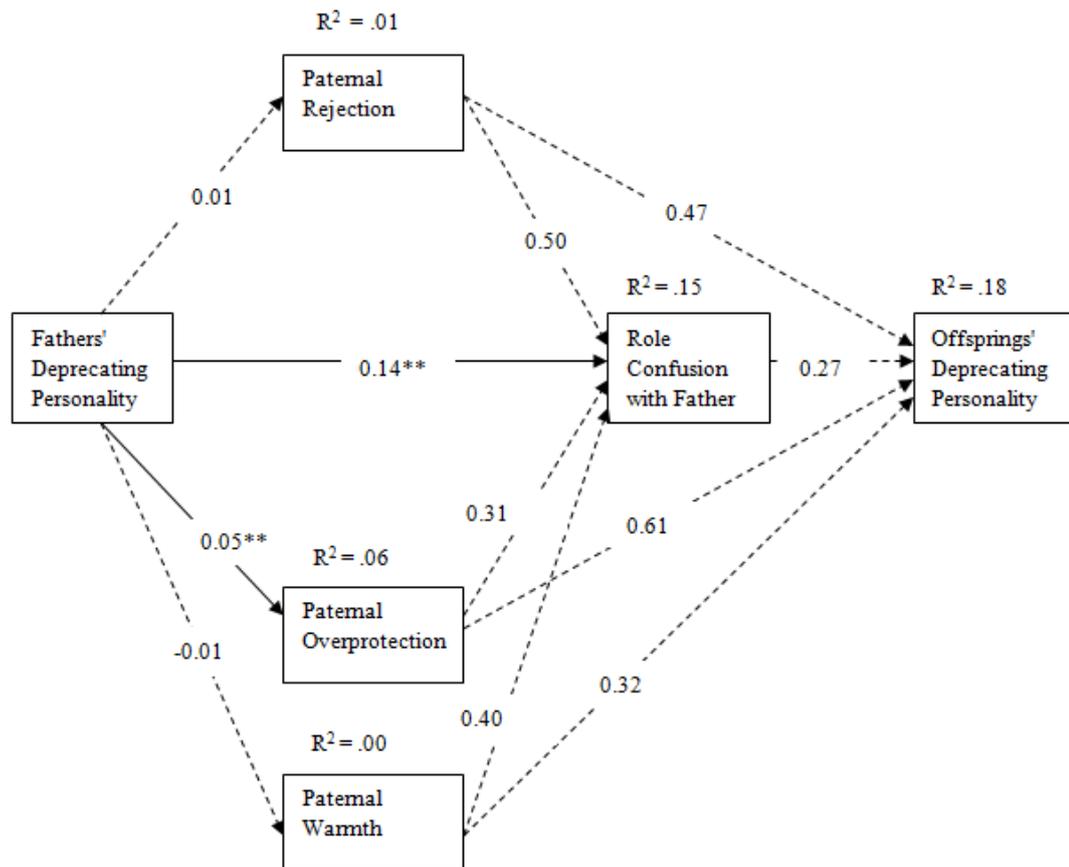


Figure 3.11 The Association between Deprecating Personality Beliefs of Fathers and Sons through Early Parental Experiences of Sons. *Note.* The figure represents the unstandardized coefficients. For the ease of representation the total and direct effects of fathers' deprecating personality were not represented. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

3.2.7.5 The Association between Inflated Personality Beliefs of Fathers and Sons through the Mediating Role of Early Parental Experiences of Sons

A parallel-serial mediation model was run in order to test the indirect effects of fathers' inflated personality on inflated personality beliefs of their sons through perceived paternal parenting styles (i.e., paternal rejection, overprotection, warmth) and early role reversal experience with the father (see Figure 3.12). The significance of indirect effects was tested through 5000 bootstrapped re-samples with 95 % confidence intervals. The hypothesized model was found to be significant ($F(5, 148) = 10.06, p < .001$) and it explained 25 % of the variance in inflated personality beliefs of young adults. Fathers' inflated personality significantly predicted paternal overprotection perceived by male offsprings ($B = 0.05, SE = 0.01, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.021, 0.070]$) but it did not significantly predict paternal rejection ($B = 0.01, SE = 0.01, p = .06, 95\% CI [-0.001, 0.030]$) and warmth ($B = 0.02, SE = 0.01, p = .14, 95\% CI [-0.005, 0.038]$). Fathers' inflated personality was significantly associated with role reversal experiences of male offsprings ($B = 0.10, SE = 0.03, p = .001, 95\% CI [0.045, 0.162]$), however, paternal rejection ($B = 0.37, SE = 0.33, p = .26, 95\% CI [-0.276, 1.025]$), overprotection ($B = 0.32, SE = 0.20, p = .11, 95\% CI [-0.075, 0.710]$), and warmth ($B = 0.25, SE = 0.23, p = .26, 95\% CI [-0.193, 0.697]$) did not significantly predict role confusion with the father. Fathers' inflated personality ($B = 0.34, SE = 0.08, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.185, 0.494]$) and role confusion with the father ($B = 0.41, SE = 0.21, p = .04, 95\% CI [0.001, 0.827]$) significantly predicted the inflated personality beliefs of male offsprings, however, paternal rejection ($B = 0.12, SE = 0.84, p = .89, 95\% CI [-1.544, 1.787]$), paternal overprotection ($B = 0.67, SE = 0.51, p = .19, 95\% CI [-0.343, 1.678]$), paternal warmth ($B = 1.03, SE = 0.58, p = .08, 95\% CI [-0.110, 2.171]$) were not significantly associated with inflated personality in male offsprings. Both the total ($B = 0.44, SE = 0.07, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.296, 0.586]$) and direct effect ($B = 0.34, SE = 0.08, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.185, 0.494]$) of fathers' inflated personality beliefs on inflated personality beliefs of male offsprings were found to be significant.

Regarding indirect effects, the total indirect effect of inflated personality beliefs of fathers was significant ($B = 0.10$, $SE = 0.04$, 95% CI [0.034, 0.185]) and only one specific indirect effect in which fathers' inflated personality beliefs predicted inflated features in male offsprings through role reversal experience of male offsprings was found to be significant ($B = 0.04$, $SE = 0.03$, 95% CI [0.001, 0.103]).

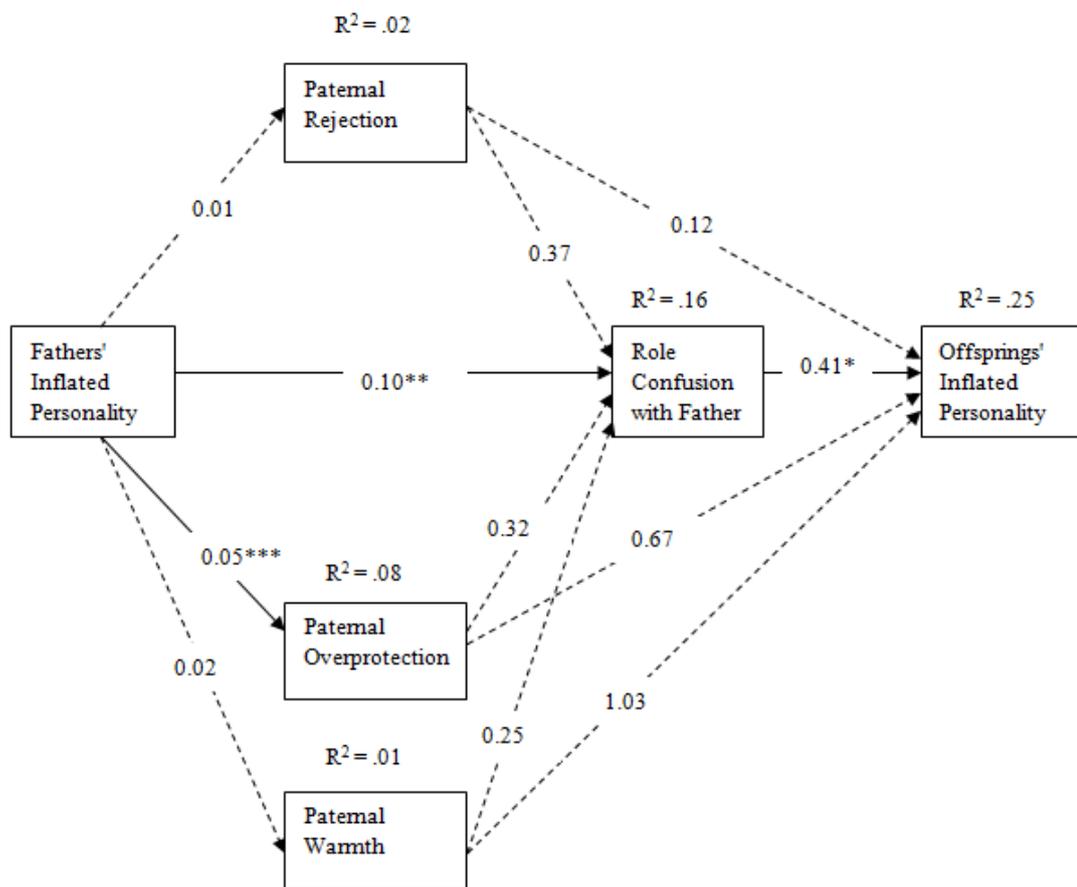


Figure 3.12 The Association between Inflated Personality Beliefs of Fathers and Sons through Early Parental Experiences of Sons. *Note.* The figure represents the unstandardized coefficients. For the ease of representation the total and direct effects of fathers' inflated personality were not represented. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

3.2.7.6 The Association between Ambivalent Personality Beliefs of Fathers and Sons through the Mediating Role of Early Parental Experiences of Sons

A parallel-serial mediation model was run in order to test the indirect effects of fathers' ambivalent personality on ambivalent personality beliefs of their sons through perceived paternal parenting styles (i.e., paternal rejection, overprotection, warmth) and early role reversal experience with the father (see Figure 3.13). The hypothesized model was found to be significant ($F(5, 148) = 6.93, p < .001$) and it explained 19 % of the variance in ambivalent personality beliefs of male offsprings. Fathers' ambivalent personality significantly predicted paternal overprotection perceived by male offsprings ($B = 0.04, SE = 0.02, p = .01, 95\% CI [0.013, 0.072]$) but it did not significantly predict the paternal rejection ($B = 0.01, SE = 0.01, p = .32, 95\% CI [-0.010, 0.028]$) and warmth ($B = 0.02, SE = 0.01, p = .17, 95\% CI [-0.007, 0.043]$). Fathers' ambivalent personality was significantly associated with role reversal with the father in male offsprings ($B = 0.12, SE = 0.03, p = .001, 95\% CI [0.055, 0.190]$). Paternal rejection ($B = 0.44, SE = 0.33, p = .18, 95\% CI [-0.204, 1.091]$), overprotection ($B = 0.34, SE = 0.20, p = .08, 95\% CI [-0.047, 0.732]$), and warmth ($B = 0.27, SE = 0.22, p = .23, 95\% CI [-0.174, 0.714]$) were not significantly associated with role confusion with the father. Fathers' ambivalent personality significantly predicted the ambivalent personality beliefs of male offsprings ($B = 0.28, SE = 0.07, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.141, 0.413]$). Paternal rejection ($B = 0.30, SE = 0.64, p = .64, 95\% CI [-0.959, 1.556]$), overprotection ($B = 0.48, SE = 0.38, p = .22, 95\% CI [-0.283, 1.237]$), warmth ($B = -0.10, SE = 0.44, p = .81, 95\% CI [-0.965, 0.757]$), and role confusion with the father ($B = 0.27, SE = 0.16, p = .09, 95\% CI [-0.043, 0.583]$) were not significantly associated with the ambivalent personality in male offsprings. Both the total ($B = 0.34, SE = 0.06, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.209, 0.466]$) and direct effect ($B = 0.28, SE = 0.07, p < .001, 95\% CI [0.141, 0.413]$) of fathers' ambivalent personality beliefs on ambivalent personality beliefs of offsprings were found to be significant. Regarding indirect effects, the total indirect effect of

fathers' ambivalent personality was significant ($B = 0.06$, $SE = 0.03$, 95% CI [0.014, 0.119]); however, none of the specific indirect effects were found to be significant.

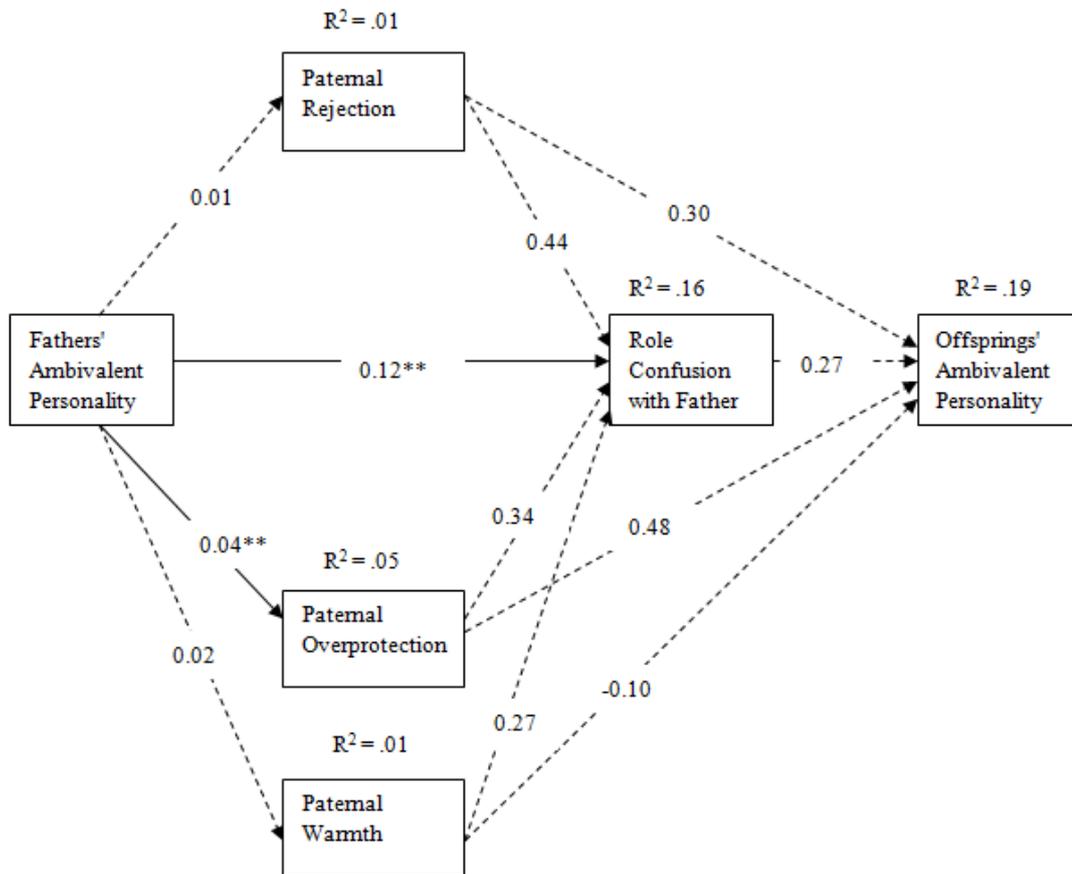


Figure 3.13 The Association between Ambivalent Personality Beliefs of Fathers and Sons through Early Parental Experiences of Sons. *Note.* The figure represents the unstandardized coefficients. For the ease of representation the total and direct effects of fathers' ambivalent personality were not represented. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$.

3.3 Discussion

The main objective of this study was to reveal familial (i.e., early parental rearing experiences, role confusion history, and parental personality disorder beliefs) and psychodynamic factors (i.e., emotional tendencies and separation-individuation difficulties) contributing to the formation of distorted "self-other" representations

situated in different personality disorder configurations (i.e., "deprecating", "inflated", and "ambivalent") in young adults. With this purpose, first of all significant effects of demographic variables on the measures of the study were examined. Secondly, the associations between early rearing experiences, role confusion history, emotional tendencies, separation-individuation difficulties, and three personality disorder beliefs of young adults were investigated via four sets of regression analyses. The relationships between personality disorder beliefs of parents (i.e., "deprecating", "inflated", and "ambivalent") and early parental experiences and personality disorder beliefs of male and female offspring were examined through correlation analyses. Based on the findings of the correlations, six different mediational models were tested proposed in the introduction section. The results of these analyses were sequentially discussed in the following parts of discussion. The important aspects of the study and clinical implications of it as well as the limitations of the study and recommendations for future studies were also explained in the final sections of the discussion.

3.3.1 The Results of Divergences Regarding Gender and Age on the Variables of the Study

The differences of gender and age on the variables of the study were tested as an initial step in order to control their confounding role on further analyses. According to the findings, gender discrepancies were observed on the mother form of "Relationships with Parents Scale" (RPS); "Splitting" and "Relationship Problems" domains of Separation-Individuation Inventory (SII); and "Inflated" and "Ambivalent" personality beliefs of Personality Beliefs Questionnaire (PBQ). Specifically, female participants reported more role reversal experiences with their mothers as compared to male participants. As previously stated, there are inconsistent findings in the literature regarding the gender issue on role reversal (Macfie, Brumariu, & Lyons-Ruth, 2015). It may be, in part, related to the methods used in these studies. For instance, non-significant gender differences were mostly found in studies measuring role confused behaviors through observational tasks (e.g.,

Obsuth, Hennighausen, Brumariu, & Lyons-Ruth, 2014). However, in studies based on the self-reports of participants, females mostly indicated that they had more role reversal with their mothers than males (e.g., Mayseless, Bartholomew, Henderson, & Trinket, 2004). This discrepancy may be related to the limited ability of observational studies to gain knowledge about the different aspects of parent-child interactions. More intimate role reversed patterns such as mothers' sharing of a secret with the daughter or mothers' demand for affection may not be observed in these brief tasks. A frequently revealed role confused pattern in mother-daughter dyad may be explained from a gender-specific perspective. For instance, Thomas (2017), based on the qualitative accounts of both males and females with a history of role reversal, indicated that gender of both parties makes a unique contribution to the role confusion in the dyad. Specifically, mothers due to their caregiving role in the family expect more from their children as compared to fathers and mostly turn to their daughters rather than their sons with this expectation. Since emotionality as a gender role attributed more to females rather than males, daughters reported acting as sources of emotional support for their mothers in a congruent manner with their expected gender role (Thomas, 2017).

Gender differences were also found regarding separation-individuation struggles. That is, females took higher scores on splitting and reported more separation-individuation difficulties in their relationships. Mahler, Pine and Bergman (1975) observed that girls become aware of sex differences earlier than boys that make their relationships with caregivers more conflicting and make the separation-individuation process more compelling. Similarly, Olesker (1990) showed that the vigorous nature of girls inclined them to understand the discrepancy between themselves and their mothers earlier. This understanding compelled them to contact frequently with the mother in the relationship to soothe the heightened anxiety and it also compelled the mother to provide more intimate parenting to their daughters. These gender differences also tend to sustain in older ages. For instance, Kins, Beyers, and Soenens (2012) demonstrated that in young adulthood females were also more likely to be concerned about being abandoned, losing others' affection, or

staying calm when alone as compared to the males. Thus, they may attempt to soothe these anxieties by controlling or clinging with others in their relationships as a learned way of coping. Earlier research did not indicate a marked difference in the split way of seeing the self and others among men and women (Gould, Prentice, Aisnlie, 1996). The difference found in the current study may be related to more disappointing and anxiety-ridden interpersonal encounters of women as compared to men. In these encounters, women may need to resort to splitting in high frequency and intensity as a way of relieving their overwhelming emotions.

The present study also revealed gender differences in the two broad categories of personality disorder beliefs. Specifically, male participants had more inflated and ambivalent beliefs of self as compared to female participants. Previous studies also indicated that men tended to score higher on personality traits where the self is represented more firmly and the other is positioned in a degraded place such as narcissistic (Grijalva et al., 2015) or antisocial (Leahy, O'Neill, & Hammond, 2010) personality characteristics. The literature provides different explanations for gender discrepancies in inflated personality features. Grijalva et al. (2015) found that men and women were more strongly differentiated from each other on the entitled feature of narcissism. The authors suggested that in patriarchal societies men can have more chances to be positioned in higher statuses than women and this may provide more opportunity for men to base upon their entitled self-view to concrete grounds. Different gender roles attributed to men and women may be another reason underlying these gender differences. Society and culture mostly attribute dominant features to men and submissive features to women (Williams & Best, 1990). Thus, women may avoid endorsing inflated features to prevent role-incongruence even if they have an inflated sense of self. For instance, it was highlighted that social pressure may be influential in girls' delaying of displaying antisocial features to an older age (Blazei, Iacono, & Krueger, 2006). According to the current study, male participants also hold more ambivalent beliefs as compared to females. In line with this result, previously it was shown that paranoid and schizoid personality features were largely observed in males in clinical samples (Holthausen & Habel, 2018).

Ambivalent beliefs include a self-sufficient but albeit fragile self-perception. Due to the societal norms imposed on them, men may feel more pressure on themselves to be seen as firm and powerful even though they do not internally feel in that way. Women, on the other hand, may be more comfortable in sharing and seeking help for their vulnerabilities that make them less likely to hold ambivalent beliefs.

Young participants of the study were divided into two groups based on their ages, namely, late adolescents and emerging adults. These two age groups differed from each other on the measures of role reversal, anger, separation-individuation difficulties, and personality beliefs. Specifically, late adolescents reported more role reversal with their parents, more anger, more splitting and relationship problems, and more deprecating beliefs with their parents as compared to emerging adults. Late adolescence and emerging adulthood are described as transition periods in which young individuals encounter many reformations in their lives that they need to adapt (Kenny & Rice, 1995). During late adolescence, the relationships with parents are re-negotiated (Adatto, 1980). That is, relinquishing from parents as infantile objects and making investments on having intimate relationships with friends or romantic partners are proposed as important tasks of late adolescence. However, these changes may disrupt the existing relational patterns with parents, such as role confused dynamics. Late adolescents may have difficulty in managing these changing dynamics while adapting to other conditions. Thus, role confused relationships with parents, even though they are susceptible to change in this period, may sustain their influences on late adolescents. In emerging adulthood, on the other hand, the accounts of role reversion may become less prominent as they get more self-focused with the issues of their future and careers. Moreover, major life events occurring in the late adolescence period, such as starting to college, leaving home, family, or friends, and sustaining living more individually may be stressful for many young people and can make them more vulnerable to psychological difficulties (Kenny & Rice, 1995). It was demonstrated that adolescents experienced a decrease in their beliefs of managing negative emotions in their late teens (Alessandri, Eisenberg, Vecchione, Caprara, & Milioni, 2016). The high scores of late adolescents on

separation-individuation difficulties may represent their struggles for adaptation. In fact, it is suggested that splitting naturally occurs in the face of anxiety evoking novel events and this mechanism, later on, allows individuals to integrate the different aspects of "old" and "new" (Walsh & Shumuel, 2007). Thus, late adolescents may engage in more splitting to adapt to alterations in their lives. Moreover, late adolescents may experience more failures as they encounter to novel tasks. These failures may negatively influence their self-confidence and may increase their endorsement of deprecating beliefs.

3.3.2 The Results of the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses

Four sets of regression analyses were carried out. Role reversal with parents, emotions, separation-individuation difficulties, and personality disorder beliefs were the dependent variables. In this part, variables predicting each particular dependent variable will be discussed.

3.3.2.1 Variables Predicting the Role Reversal Experiences of Young Adults

Two-step regression analyses were performed to reveal the associated variables of role reversal with mother and father. Gender and age were defined as control variables in the first step. In the next step, young adults' early rearing styles perceived from their mother and fathers were defined to the model. According to the results, gender was found to be associated with role reversal with the mother. Females had more role reversal experiences with their mothers as compared to male participant. Regarding age, as the ages of participants increased, they reported lower early role confused relational patterns with both parents. These results paralleled to the findings presented in the previous section, thus they were not discussed further.

Early maternal and paternal rearing practices perceived by young adults were both uniquely contributed to the young adults' role reversal with their mothers and fathers. Particularly, young adults perceiving more maternal overprotection, paternal rejection, maternal affection, and less paternal warmth reported more role reversal accounts with their mothers. A similar pattern was also observed for the role reversal

with the father. That is, young adults who had experienced role reversal with their fathers perceived more paternal overprotection, maternal rejection, and paternal warmth. These findings seem to indicate a familial pattern in the occurrence of role confusion during childhood. In other words, individuals as children tended to reverse roles with the parent who showed overprotective/controlling and affectionate behaviors toward them. Moreover, the perceived rejection of the other parent uniquely contributed to this process. The low affection of the father was also related to an increase in role reversal with the mother. Earlier research taking its basis from family systems theory suggested that role reversal mostly occurs in families where the boundaries among the members of the family are blurred and enmeshed (Jacobvitz, Hazen, Curran, & Hitchens, 2004). Exaggerated protective and controlling parenting style were described as one of the initiators of enmeshment since such parenting ignores the child as a distinct psychological entity (Jacobvitz, Morgan, Kretchmar, & Morgan, 1991). It was argued that over-controlling or protective parenting arouses from parents' undifferentiated self and early rooted insecurities (Jacobvitz et al., 1991). By restricting the independent capabilities of the child and imposing their expectations and concerns on him/her, these parents may keep the child close to themselves as a source of comfort. Thus, overprotective parents may encourage the role reversed behaviors of their children. Moreover, perceived closeness and warmth of the same parent as well as the hostile, cold, and judgmental attitudes of the other parent seem to strengthen this role reversed process in the parent-child dyad.

These relational dynamics in the family that set the stage for role confusion may also indicate an alliance between the parent-child pair where the role confused relational pattern occurs. In a family alignment, one of the parents forms a coalition with the child and exclude the other parent from this interaction by degrading or humiliating him or her (Jacobvitz et al., 2004). It was previously suggested that family alignment was an important factor precipitating the role confusion of the child (Alexander, 2003). The over-protectiveness of the parent and accompanying warmth perceived from him/her may initiate a coalition between the parent and child. Thus,

the perceived rejection or lower affection of the other parent may be a reverberation of this coalition rather than reflecting the actual harsh parenting of this parent. To sum up, the child seemed to engage in role reversal with the parent who treated him/her both in an overprotective and affectionate manner. The rejection and low warmth perceived from the other parent contributed this role confused pattern. However, the negativity toward the other parent may be the result of a coalition of the child with his/her partner in the role confused dyad.

3.3.2.2 Variables Predicting the Emotions of Young Adults

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were run in three steps to find out the factors predicting shame and anger. Demographic variables (i.e., gender and age), perceived parenting styles, and role reversion with parents were successively defined to the model in each step as predictor variables. Of demographic variables, only age had a significant association with the anger. That is, as the ages of participants decreased, they reported higher experience of anger.

After controlling for demographics, among parenting styles, rejection perceived from both the mother and the father and emotional warmth perceived from the father were found as significant predictors of shame-proneness in young adults. More specifically, young adults reporting to encounter more cold, hostile, and judgmental parenting from both of their parents and less affectionate, supporting, and caring parenting from their fathers were more likely to feel a frequent and intense shame. These results were in line with the theoretical considerations and previous studies documenting the role of rejecting, critical, and unaffectionate early relationships in the emergence of internalized and constant states of shame (Luthwak & Ferrari, 1997; Schore, 1991). Shame is described as a social emotion, which surfaces in a relational context as a response to one's consideration of falling short behind the ideals of oneself, significant others, or society (Lewis, 1995). The object relations perspective asserts that shame first appears in the child as a natural response to a fear of losing a loved object, as the child becomes aware of increasing incongruence between himself/herself and the primary caregiver (Mills, 2005).

Supportive and responding parenting helps the child overcome the overwhelming state in this early phase and the child later copes effectively with this emotion by internalizing the "good" object (Schore, 1991). The critical, hostile, and unaffectionate parental attitudes, on the other hand, prevent the child from resolving shame (Schore, 1991). Such parenting may instead exacerbate the child's concerns about being unlovable or defective. Through the repeated exposure to the rejecting and unaffectionate parenting and internalization of the mistreatment, the developing child may adopt a negative self-view which makes him/her susceptible to feel shame readily and frequently later in life (Schimmneti, 2012).

Perceived parental practices also showed significant associations with anger proneness of young adults. Specifically, young adults who accounted that they had encountered more rejection from their mothers and more overprotection from their fathers were more likely to feel anger frequently and intensely. Earlier studies also highlighted the importance of a family environment characterized by parental rejection and controlling in the anger experiences of adolescents and young adults (Muris, Meesters, Morren, & Moorman, 2004; Patock-Peckham et al., 2020). However, the gender of the parent displaying rejection and overprotection showed variations across studies. For instance, a study conducted with an adolescent sample showed that judgmental and unstable behaviors of both parents were predictive of trait anger in adolescents (Muris et al., 2004). Another study indicated that rejecting parenting from both parents and overprotection displayed by the father were related to anger reported by female young adults and only maternal overprotection predicted trait anger in male participants (Patock-Peckham et al., 2020). These inconsistencies may result from the differences in the characteristics of the samples and instruments used in each study. However, all of these studies including the current study indicated that anger proneness develops in a family environment of "affectionless control" in which the child experienced low closeness and high control from their parents (Parker, 1990). It was shown that parenting characterized by "affectionless control" was related to diverse psychological problems of adults (Parker, 1990). Such an unaffectionate family context would not be much tolerating for mistakes, failures,

or differences of the child and thus children who grow in such an environment may be likely to be easily frustrated by the setbacks encountered by due to themselves or others. For instance, Patock-Petham et al. (2020) revealed that females reporting low affection from their fathers and high protection from their mothers had lower tolerance to lose in competitive contexts, which in turn predicted their angry disposition. Therefore, individuals who are reared in an environment where love and acceptance are limited may have a stronger desire to prove themselves which may facilitate the development of an angry disposition.

After accounting for demographics and perceived parenting reported by young adults, the association between role reversal experiences and emotions were examined in the model. Results showed that among the role reversal with parents, only the role reversal with the mother was significantly associated with shame and anger proneness. That is, young adults who had engaged in more maternal role reversal were more likely to experience shame and anger. Considering mothers as primary caregivers in most families, role confusion with the mother may begin relatively earlier ages than the role confusion with the father, and thus maternal role reversal may be more likely to dampen the effective processing of early rooted emotions, such as shame and anger. Mother is suggested as an important agent in modulating or regulating emotions of her child through active socializing practices, which is later on internalized and transferred into other relationships by the child (Feldman & Klein, 2003). However, early role confusion mostly occurs in children whose mothers display helpless, withdrawing, self-absorbed, and interfering features (Lyons-Ruth et al., 2013; Vulliez-Coady, Obsuth, Torreiro-Casal, Ellertsdottir, & Lyons-Ruth, 2013; Zvara et al., 2018). Such characteristics of the mother may not provide an optimal environment for the child to recognize, accept, and hence modulate his/her emotions. Thus, feelings of shame and anger may be likely to remain intense and continue to exist in the later ages of the child.

3.3.2.3 Variables Predicting the Separation-Individuation Difficulties of Young Adults

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted for the domains of SII, namely splitting, differentiation and relationship problems. Demographics (i.e., gender and age), perceived parenting styles, role confusion with parents, and emotions were sequentially defined as predictor variables in four steps. According to the findings, among the demographic variables, gender showed significant associations with the domains of splitting and relationship problems. More specifically, females got higher scores on these domains as compared to males. Age was significantly associated with all domains of separation-individuation difficulties. That is, as participants got older, they reported less difficulty in separation-individuation related areas.

Perceived parenting practices, early role reversal experiences with parents, and emotions showed significant associations with all domains of SII. Participants reporting to encounter high maternal rejection and overprotection, low paternal warmth, high role reversal with both parents, and high shame and anger engaged in more splitting in their daily life. Moreover, participants reporting to encounter high paternal rejection, maternal overprotection, high role reversal with both parents, and high shame and anger were more likely to have difficulty in differentiating the self from others. Finally, participants with more experiences of paternal rejection, maternal overprotection and warmth, role reversal with both parents, and shame and anger reported more problems in their relationships due to the difficulties of separation-individuation. To summarize, separation-individuation domains had differential associations concerning parental rearing practices, however, they were similar to each other in terms of role reversal history and emotional experiences.

According to the separation-individuation theory, splitting is described as a usual process that generally emerges in an emotionally overwhelming phase of rapprochement as the child becomes aware of the increasing distinctness of the mother and tries to cope with increasing anxiety as a result (Mahler, Pine, &

Bergman, 1975). Through splitting the child tries to keep his/her aggressiveness away from the self and sustain connectedness with the caregiver (Blizard, 1997). For a child to later integrate the fragmented parts of the self and others, the involvement of the caregiver in volatile emotions of the child by recognizing them, patiently responding to them, and ensuring them to be tolerable for the child is critical (McDevitt, 1979). It was also empirically shown that individuals reporting less affection and care from their parents during childhood had more difficulty in integrating split parts of themselves and others (Lopez, Fuendeling, Thomas, & Sagula, 1997). The current study also found that maternal rejection and low paternal warmth contributed to the splitting defense of young adults. In addition to that, maternal overprotection was also related to the increase use of splitting. It may be inferred that mothers are likely to impose their own rules or demands on the child instead of focusing on his/her emotional state but despite that, they do not seem to be satisfied with the child. Moreover, the child could not approach the father as a source of support, who has an important place for the child as being less conflicting figure in rapprochement phase (Applegate, 1987). In such a discredited environment, the child may have difficulty in accepting himself/herself with his/her different aspects and tend to use splitting as a solution.

Regarding differentiation problems, overprotective maternal behaviors and judgmental or rejecting paternal behaviors were found to be significant predictors. The differentiation domain of SII covers items representing one's difficulties in remaining as a distinct being with his/her values, emotions, or identity in the existence of others and showing tolerance to differences between oneself and others. However, gaining differentiation in a mother-child dyad characterized by an overprotective maternal behavior may be difficult since such mothers have difficulty in seeing their child as a separate being with his/her feelings, ideas, and vulnerabilities. Instead, these mothers reflect their wishes, demands, or values upon their child (Lane, 2002). In overprotective parenting, the boundaries between the parent and the child get fused (Jacobvitz et al., 1991), thus the child may have difficulty in discovering their characteristics and distinguishing them from the ones

of the mothers. Moreover, perceived paternal rejection contributed to differentiation problems in the current sample. The perceived distance and negativity of the father may further impel the child to get closer with the mother and thus it may exacerbate the influences of maternal overprotection on the child since the process of separation-individuation is entirely left to the handling of mother (Thomasgard & Metz, 1993). A similar pattern of parental rearing styles was observed in relation to relationship problems arisen from struggles of separation-individuation. That is, participants reporting high paternal criticism, exaggerated maternal protection/control, and high maternal warmth were more likely to experience interpersonal difficulties such as intolerance to be alone; mistrust to others and be suspicious about others; the urge to control others to keep them close or to prevent possible harm from them. It is asserted that relationships formed early with parents tended to be transferred into other relationships in adulthood (Berenson & Andersen, 2006). It was revealed that individuals encountering physical or emotional mistreatment of their parents during childhood took a more mistrustful, vigilant, emotionally distant stance in a new person described in a laboratory task as compared to individuals without an abuse history (Berenson & Andersen, 2006). In accordance with that individuals with overprotective mothers and rejecting fathers may behave in a more controlling and suspicious manner in their relationships. In addition to over-protectiveness of the mother, perceived warmth of her may give the child the sense that affection can be elicited through the fused relationships. In other words, the child may perceive their closeness with the mother as a usual way of relatedness. Thus, individuals may expect this closeness in their later relationships and if it is not the case, they may struggle to ensure it.

After parenting styles, the associations between participants' role confusion history and difficulties in separation-individuation were examined. According to the results, role confusion with both the mother and father uniquely contributed to all domains of separation-individuation difficulties. Specifically, as participants experienced more deviancies in their roles with regard to relationships with their mothers and fathers, they reported more splitting, more struggles in differentiating

boundaries between themselves and others, and more interpersonal problems due to these difficulties. These findings provide further support for the theoretical claims and previous study findings indicating that early role reversal would disrupt the autonomous functioning of the individuals (Kerig, 2005; Mayseless & Scharf, 2009). It was asserted that a child could not find sufficient energy to focus on his/her developing separated functioning because of the dominant needs of his/her parents and also the lack of support provided by the parents for these functions of the child (Macfie, Brumariu, & Lyons-Ruth, 2015). Based on the clinical case studies with mother-infant dyads, Zeanah and Klitzke (1991) suggested that a role confused relational pattern promotes interdependency between mother and child in which both parties need the other in order to sustain a psychological equilibrium. Empirical studies also indicated that early accounts of role reversal conducted in a parentified manner were related to use of splitting, difficulties in separation, undue expectations of nurturance from parents, and denial of needs of relatedness in adulthood period (Mayseless & Scharf, 2009; Wells & Jones, 1998). The present study adds to the existing literature that young adults with early role reversal history also had difficulties in sustaining clear-cut boundaries with others and had problems in controlling others, behaving submissively or suspiciously in relationships. Moreover, in addition to mothers, a confusing role with fathers has a unique importance in separation-individuation struggles.

In the final step of regression analyses, the associations of shame and anger with separation-individuation difficulties were investigated. The results demonstrated that participants with a high tendency to feel shame and anger in their daily life were more likely to have difficulties in all domains of SII. Shame and anger were described as emotions naturally emerging in the process of separation-individuation as a result of the awareness of increasing separateness and individuation (Hadary, 2015; Schore, 1991). Unless these emotions are successfully negotiated with caregivers in a supportive environment, they might prevent the resolution of separation-individuation struggles (Mahler et al., 1975) and may promote the maintenance of them later in life. This study showed that intense feelings of anger

and shame were related to heightened difficulties in separation-individuation in young adulthood. Earlier research also indicated that splitting occurs as a response to alleviate feelings of shame (Gramzow & Tangney, 1992). Similarly, shame is found as an intense emotion that related to increased problems in protecting one's uniqueness and boundaries in the existence of others (Williamson, Sandage, & Lee, 2007). Moreover, Zosky (2006) compared two groups of men that encountered perpetrating violence and not perpetrating violence toward their partners in terms of impairments in separation-individuation revealed that men displaying violent acts toward their partners got significantly higher scores in separation-individuation problems. The author suggested that these problems in violent men might be sourced from the interacting feelings of shame and anger.

To summarize the findings on separation-individuation problems; this study indicated that different patterns of early parental rearing styles predicted the domains of SII. However, maternal overprotection was revealed as a common parental behavior in all themes of SII. Thus, it may have particular importance for the separation-individuation period. Moreover, fathers' parenting either through emotionally distant or rejecting style uniquely contributed to the separation-individuation problems of young adults supporting the assertion of the theory, that fathers have a critical role as less complicated figures in the separation-individuation process (Mahler et al., 1975). Apart from early parental rearing, role reversed history was also contributed to the problems of young adults in sustaining relatedness and individuation concomitantly. Finally, the present findings highlighted the importance of shame and anger proneness in the maintenance of disrupted separation-individuation related themes during young adulthood.

3.3.2.4 Variables Predicting the Personality Disorder Beliefs of Young Adults

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed for three personality disorder belief categories as dependent variables. Demographic variables, parental rearing practices, role reversal with parents, emotions, and separation-individuation struggles were defined to the model, respectively. As for demographic

variables, gender had significant associations with inflated and ambivalent personality features. That is, male participants were more likely to have beliefs pertaining to the inflated and ambivalent personality features. Age also showed significant relations with personality disorder beliefs. Participants with younger ages scored higher on deprecating, inflated, and ambivalent personality beliefs.

After accounting for demographic variables, results concerning deprecating personality beliefs revealed paternal overprotection and rejection, role reversal with mother and father, shame and anger proneness, and differentiation and relationship problems as significant predictors. As for parental rearing practices, participants reporting to have overly controlling/protecting and rejecting fathers tended to develop deprecating personality beliefs in young adulthood. Over-protective, rejecting, and unaffectionate parenting although differentially perceived from mothers and fathers in different studies were commonly found to be related to personality disorders (i.e., borderline, dependent, avoidant PD) in which self is placed more subordinately while others were idealized (Bornstein, 1992; Eikenaes, Egeland, Hummelen, & Willberg, 2015; Zielinski, Borders, & Giancola, 2015). Behaviors of parents that are high in protection and rejection were described as "authoritarian" parenting (Baumrind, 1967) or "affectionless control" (Parker, 1990). It is argued that this kind of parenting induces the fear of failure and hampers the self-confidence of individuals (Parker, 1993). In fact, individuals experiencing more authoritarian parenting from both parents were less likely to attribute positive characteristics to themselves (Klein, O'bryant, & Hopkins, 1996). Such a family environment implies that the parent (i.e., the father) is overly concerned about the capabilities of the child but he also does not seem to provide the emotional support to the child so that the child can develop and trust their abilities. Thus, it may, later on, lead the child to feel insecure about the things she/he can do or cannot do, and may impel him/her to rely on the powerful others. In the current sample, fathers were found more influential in the development of deprecating beliefs in young adults as compared to mothers. Fathers are regarded as more prominent figures in promoting the autonomous behaviors of children rather than mothers. In other words, children

seem to more strongly rely on fathers in exploring novel environments and approaching new individuals (Bögels & Phares, 2006). Thus, the failure of fathers in actualizing this role may be more detrimental for the self-development of the child. Moreover, this may be related to the family structure in Turkish culture. According to the study of Sancar (2009), Turkish fathers display both traditional and modern parental patterns in Turkey. Since disciplinary and authoritarian roles were traditionally attributed to the fathers, individuals may tend to perceive their fathers more authoritarian in Turkish culture. In addition to parental rearing styles, role reversal with both mother and father also contributed to the deprecating personality beliefs in young adults. This finding was consistent with the viewpoint suggesting that childhood parentification promotes the development of a devalued sense of self in individuals (DiCaccavo, 2006). In the absence of genuine interest and affection of authoritarian fathers, children can consider that they are unworthy of being loved on their own and they may gain a sense of worth by devoting themselves to the demands of the parent. However, such relational pattern with the parent may negatively affect later personality development of individuals. For instance, Wells, Glickauf-Hughes, and Jones (1999) found that the child's excessive concern and struggle to comfort the parent during childhood were related to the development of a co-dependent personality characteristics in adulthood in which the person occupies with the needs and demands of the others by ignoring his/her own needs. Thus, individuals may begin to nullify themselves and prioritize others in their adulthood by learning to focus on the needs or affective states of their parents during childhood.

Among emotions, high proneness to feel shame and anger were both related to the deprecating personality beliefs of participants. These findings were in line with the previous research identifying shame as an emotion underlying the unfavorable, faulty self-images of individuals (Gilbert, Pehl, & Allan, 1994). The feeling of shame is regarded as related to an inferior position of one's self in the social order. A high propensity to feel shame therefore would strengthen one's negative self-beliefs. Moreover, shame is likely to trigger the submissive and dependent behaviors of individuals (Gilbert et al., 1994). Thus, subordinate and needy behaviors observed in

individuals with deprecating personality beliefs may be explained by the shame feeling frequently emerged in these individuals. However, these behaviors may intensify their helpless, incapable self-images while increasing the power of the others that they rely on. Moreover, high anger observed in people with deprecating personality beliefs is more likely to be directed to inward since expressing it toward others increases the rejection risk from others that are perceived as important sources of support. In line with that Abi-Habib and Luyten (2013) showed that dependent personality traits of individuals were associated with anger turned to self, which in turn predicted increased depressive features in individuals. Thus, the self-directed anger may further exacerbate the self-contempt in people having deprecating personality characteristics. Most probably in connection with these feelings, difficulties in differentiation and relationship problem domains of SII were positively associated with deprecating personality beliefs. Earlier research also supported this finding by indicating the link between differentiation difficulties of individuals showing symptoms of avoidant and borderline PD (Beeney et al., 2015). This finding is understandable from the perspective of the high interpersonal anxiety of these individuals centered on the fears of rejection, which might be fed by their propensity to feel shame. A heightened state of arousal and other-focused orientation in the interactions of these individuals may withhold them from discovering and expressing their feelings, opinions, or perceptions. They may instead show obedience to others' emotions or thoughts and thus they may continue to keep themselves in a helpless position. Similarly, this sensitivity in relationships may force them to act in a more controlling and demanding manner to ensure closeness, however, these behaviors may lead to negative reactions of others (Overholser, 1996). Thus, in this way, their negative understanding of themselves may be reinforced and sustained.

The results revealed that paternal parental practices including more overprotection, emotional warmth, and rejection, more interactions with parents in a role confused manner, high anger-proneness, and more difficulties in differentiation and relationship problem domains of SII were significant predictors of inflated personality beliefs. In the literature, there were different theoretical views in

parenting practices found to be related to the development of an inflated sense of self (i.e., either over-indulgent or rejecting cold parenting). The findings of the current study, on the other hand, were mostly in line with inconsistent parenting including both negative and positive parenting styles suggested by earlier empirical research (Batool, Shehzadi, Riaz, & Riaz, 2017; Horton, Bleau, & Drwecki, 2006; Otway & Vignoles, 2006). Moreover, it was demonstrated that fathers' parenting behaviors were dominantly influential in the emergence of inflated sense of being in young adults. This finding was largely in line with the previous research highlighting the importance of paternal parenting in the development of grandiose personality characteristics (Cramer, 2015; Valashjardi, MacLean, & Charles, 2020). The paternal pattern observed in this study may indicate an existence of a "conditional regard" in the behaviors of fathers toward their children because fathers seemed to convey their expectations to their children through their protective and controlling acts. They also treated them in both emotionally warm and judgmental manner. It may be inferred that children might encounter to the warmth and supportive parenting as long as their fathers' expectations were satisfied while they may face with harsh and cold parenting if they do not act per their father's standards. It was argued that conditional parental warmth makes children prematurely internalized parents' ideals and induces pressure on them to act according to these standards to preserve their affection (Curran, Hill, & Williams, 2017). Assor and Tal (2012) found that a relationship between this parenting style and adolescents' self-aggrandized features when they imagine a successful situation and shame feelings when they imagine an unsuccessful situation. They also revealed that this parenting style directed them to use compensatory coping mechanisms (e.g., overwork) indicating that they make an excessive effort to sustain these aggrandized self-images and avoid shameful states. Similarly, in another study, late adolescents with parents providing high conditional regard reported to display themselves to others in a more grandiose, entitled fashion, which indicated that they tended to disguise their "imperfections" (Curran, Hill, & Williams, 2017). Thus, a perceived conditional affection from the parent may be a strong incentive to hold inflated personality beliefs. The present results also

documented that role confusion with both the mother and father significantly predicted higher inflated beliefs in young adults. To our knowledge, the link between role reversal as a general construct and personality disorder features consisting of inflated self-perceptions has not been investigated before. However, the caregiving aspect of role reversal (i.e., parentification) was found to be related to both masochistic and grandiose narcissistic personality features (Jones & Wells, 1996). The authors argued that the content of parentification indicating narcissistic traits may be different from the content of parentification indicating self-sacrificing traits in that children developing narcissistic traits may be parentified indirectly through actualizing parental ideals (e.g., "by realizing the parents' dream of becoming a great musician") (p. 146). Considering the parental behaviors reported by individuals with high inflated characteristics (i.e., conditional positive regard of the parent) in the current sample, the association of role confusion with inflated features may also be interpreted from this perspective.

Moreover, a strong association was found between anger proneness and inflated personality beliefs while there was no significant association between shame and inflated features. Previous studies have also revealed that anger is an important emotion in individuals with personality disorder features in which self-perception is exaggerated and glorified (Kolla, Meyer, Bagby, & Brijmohan, 2017; Papps & O'Carroll, 1998). One of the functions of anger in these personalities was found as protecting the "glorious" self-image threatened by external sources through aggressing or derogating the source of threat (Cale & Lilienfeld, 2006; Li et al., 2015). Anger may also be an "umbrella" emotion for individuals with inflated characteristics. That is, other emotions may be sensed or expressed as anger. For instance, people holding extremely positive self-images were likely to react via aggression to the conditions where they were expected to feel sad or shame (Hart, Adams, & Torteriello, 2017; Stucke & Sporer, 2002). It may be related to that they have difficulty in containing these emotions since the contents of them are not congruent with their powerful self-view. Similar to deprecating beliefs, participants with high inflated beliefs also reported having difficulty in differentiation and

relationship domains of SII. However, the motive behind these difficulties may be different in these two personality types. As previously discovered, parents seemed to be important sources for the maintenance of inflated beliefs during childhood. As individuals with these beliefs grow up, they may sustain to depend on external sources to support their inflated views. In their relationships, thus, they may put pressure on others to fulfill this need and they may have difficulty in tolerating and respecting the differences and boundaries of others. In line with that, Akyunus and Gençöz (2020) showed that individuals with inflated beliefs were likely to behave in a dominant and controlling manner in their interpersonal relationships. Similarly, in another study, individuals having grandiose self-views tended to depend on others to preserve high self-esteem and to show intense anger when others do not act in accordance with their entitlement (Di Pierro et al., 2019).

Finally, the results concerning ambivalent personality disorder beliefs (i.e., schizoid, paranoid, and passive-aggressive PB) indicated that participants rating their mothers high in overprotection and their fathers high in rejection and warmth displayed a high tendency to have ambivalent personality beliefs. Moreover, role confused history with the parents, proneness to anger and shame, and splitting and separation-individuation related interpersonal difficulties were positively linked to ambivalent beliefs. The result highlighting the role of maternal protection in ambivalent personality was consistent with the earlier theoretical and empirical research indicating the place of maternal absorption in patients with schizoid and paranoid PDs (Matens, 2010; Paris, Frank, Buonvino, & Bond, 1991). Earlier studies also showed that disapproving stance of both mothers and fathers had a role in these PDs (Johnson et al., 2006). The current findings, on the other hand, indicated that the fathers of individuals with high ambivalent beliefs oscillated between being rejecting and being warmth toward their children. These parental behaviors encountered by the individuals with ambivalent features may shed light on how these individuals construct the perceptions of self and others. Early exposure to excessive maternal involvement may threaten the psychological existence of the child (Mahler et al., 1975) and might impel him/her to reject his/her needs of intimacy or attachment

because these notions might also evoke a "life-threatening" anxiety in the child (Alperin, 2001). Moreover, the unstable acts of fathers may be frightening for the child, thus the child could not perceive the father as a reliable source. Since fathers represent the outside world, the child may learn from him that the other people may be untrustworthy and hostile. To protect himself/herself from the anxiety and unpredictability, the child might withdraw from the social world and build a self-reliant but fragile self. The findings also indicated that role confused behaviors with both parents were significantly related to ambivalent beliefs but role reversal with the father explained most of the variance in ambivalent features of the participants. In the literature, there was a lack of research investigating the relation of childhood role reversal with the ambivalent forms of personality. Although the literature mostly focused on the maternal side of role reversal, it was suggested that maternal and paternal role reversal might have distinctive effects on the individuals (Schier, Herke, Nickel, Egle, & Hardt, 2015). Johnston, Gonzalez, and Campbell (1987) showed that children were more likely to show symptoms like "confused, won't talk, secretive, shy, timid, stares blankly, and withdrawn" as a result of role reversal with the father rather than the mother (p. 497). Thus, it may tentatively support the current findings documenting that individuals experiencing more role reversal with their fathers during childhood are likely to display withdrawn and detached personality characteristics (e.g., social indifference) in adulthood. Fathers are usually considered as powerful figures of the family and they are culturally expected to provide a secure base for the family. However, through role confusion with the father, the child loses an idealized father figure and is also left with a heavy burden of being powerful, which he/she can cope with by developing an emotionally distant and socially indifferent relational manner. In line with that, a previous study indicated that taking over the caregiving responsibility of fathers rather than mothers is a more emotionally difficult and less positively rewarding task for children (Meier & Bureau, 2018). Although these explanations may be plausible, the link between role confusion history and ambivalent personality beliefs and the possible paths between them must be studied more thoroughly in later studies.

Of emotions, both anger and shame proneness contributed to the ambivalent personality beliefs; however, shame explained a small proportion of variance in these beliefs. It was consistent with the earlier research emphasizing that individuals with these personality disorder features experience anger characteristically (DiGiusepe et al., 2012). Such disposition may serve as a shield to repel the potentially dangerous others in individuals with ambivalent beliefs. Although early shame experiences are theoretically shown as having a central place in the development of beliefs in "malevolent others", studies testing the association of shame to these personalities were limited in the literature (Akhtar, 1990; Matens, 2010). This study showed a tentative relationship between shame and ambivalent beliefs. This tentativeness may be explained by these individuals' protective behaviors such as isolating themselves from social environments (Schoenleber & Berenbaum, 2012). Since it would decrease the chance of a challenging situation, they may rarely experience shame. However, it may also indicate that when they encounter such situations, they tend to experience shame deeply. This tendency although blocked through preventive strategies may be one of the reasons underlying their vulnerability. Moreover, splitting and relationship problems were the two domains of SII that were related to ambivalent personality beliefs. In earlier research, splitting was also shown as a prominent defense strategy in people with schizoid and paranoid personality disorders (Matens, 2010; Akhtar, 1990). Different theoretical perspectives agree on that splitting organizes these individuals' complex inner worlds such that they sustain the images of a "good" self and "bad" others (Akhtar, 1987; Akhtar, 1990). It was also asserted that splitting helps them to control their unconscious and inordinate needs of intimacy by compelling them to contrarily behave distantly and indifferently in their interactions (Akhtar, 1987; Akhtar, 1990). Regarding the interpersonal relations of individuals with ambivalent beliefs, the current findings indicated that their relationships were characterized by difficulties in sustaining an optimal distance with others. Previously, it was shown that people with ambivalent personality beliefs acted in an emotionally distant and dominant fashion in their relations with others (Akyunus & Gençöz, 2020). Their controlling urge of others also found in the current

study may have arisen from their fears of being hurt or ridiculed by others rather than ensuring closeness with them. Consequently, these separation-individuation difficulties seem to withhold these individuals from integrating different aspects of themselves and others.

To summarize, different parental rearing practices were found in each personality disorder belief category. Paternal rearing styles were more influential on deprecating and inflated personality beliefs. It does not mean that maternal rearing styles are ineffective in these personality beliefs. This finding may be related to the characteristics of this sample. That is, the education level of fathers was higher than the mothers. It might put fathers to a more influential position in the upbringing of their children and may suppress the mothers' influence on children. Moreover, due to the educational status of fathers, children may have seen their fathers as an authority figure and attributed more importance to them. Moreover, in terms of their early life experiences, role confused behaviors with both mother and father during childhood have importance about all three personality disorder beliefs. Although the nature of the role confused behaviors or whether it occurs dominantly with mother or father might make a difference on the later personality beliefs of individuals, which requires further elaboration by future studies, a role confused history with parents may also indicate an underlying factor that is common to all personality disorders such as disturbances in identity integration. Regarding emotional tendencies, anger proneness was shared by all personality beliefs while shame proneness showed distinguished patterns with them compatible with their nature. Both differences and similarities were found among personality belief categories regarding separation-individuation difficulties. Relationship problems involving difficulties in separation-individuation themes jointly revealed in all personality beliefs. It supports the standpoint that struggles in interpersonal areas are typical features of all personality disorders (APA, 2013) but it also adds that incomplete early developmental difficulties might be one of the aspects triggering them. Despite the expectations, splitting did not have a significant association with deprecating and inflated beliefs; and differentiation problems were not significantly related to ambivalent beliefs. It

would not mean that these difficulties were not relevant to the related personality constructs; however, differentiation problems might be a more central issue for people with deprecating and inflated personality beliefs while splitting might be a more dominant theme for people having ambivalent beliefs.

3.3.3 The Results of the Inter-correlations and Mediation Analyses between Personality Disorder Beliefs of Parents and the Variables of the Offspring

Before conducting mediation analyses, the correlations of maternal and paternal personality beliefs (i.e., deprecating, inflated, and ambivalent) with the perceived parenting styles, role confusion history, and personality beliefs of the female and male offspring were examined. The results of the correlation analyses revealed that maternal and paternal personality beliefs distinctively relate to early parental experiences of female and male offspring. More specifically, maternal personality beliefs had a significant relation with maternal rearing style and maternal role confused history in the female offspring. The corresponding relationships were not found significant for the male offspring. Similarly, paternal personality beliefs were significantly related to paternal rearing styles perceived by the male offspring but paternal personality beliefs were not significantly related to paternal rearing styles perceived by the female offspring. However, a similar relational pattern was found between paternal personality beliefs and role confusion history of both male and female offspring. That is, as fathers showed more disordered personality beliefs, their offspring reported to experience more role reversal with both parents, regardless of the gender of the offspring.

These findings underlined the importance of the gender of the parents and the child in the link between parental personality disorder features and parenting strategies perceived by the offspring. Although earlier research did not show a significant difference in mothers' parenting behaviors toward their daughters and sons (Starrels, 1994), mothers tended to engage in more emotionally closed interactions with their daughters (Suito & Pillemer, 2006). Moreover, daughters were likely to stay in this tied relationship longer than sons since mothers represent

the figure with which daughters are inclined to identify (Boyd, 1989). Thus, these characteristics of the mother-daughter relationships might make daughters more vulnerable to poor maternal behaviors in the face of mothers' personality disorder beliefs. On the other hand, the relationship between daughters and fathers was generally less intimate and less discordant while fathers tended to show more involvement with their sons (Starrels, 1994) and approach them in a more aggressive manner (Chang, Schwartz, Dodge, & McBride-Chang, 2003). Based on this information, the male offspring may be at higher risk for negative paternal parenting concerning fathers' personality dysfunctions. Additionally, the same-sex parent is the key person for the identification process of the child. Thus, even if there would not be differential treatment of the parent across gender, the behaviors of the same sex parent may be more influential for the child.

Moreover, a gender-specific finding was revealed regarding the relationship between maternal personality beliefs and early role confused behaviors of the male and female offspring. That is, as the mothers displayed more personality disorder beliefs, the female offspring had engaged in more role reversal with their mothers during childhood but it was not the case for the male offspring. In a previous study, it was also found that mothers having an emotionally burdened history were likely to behave their daughters like an adult; however, these behaviors were not observed in their relationships with the sons (Macfie et al., 2005). It may be related to mothers' gender stereotypic perception of their daughters in that they assume their daughters to be understanding, emotionally supportive, and more skillful in interpersonal relationships, and hence they may approach their daughters with these expectations (Thomas, 2017). Moreover, females are more sensitive to interpersonal cues most probably due to the types of socialization they encounter. In line with that, it was shown that female children approached in a more thoughtful fashion to their mothers as compared to male children (Butler & Shalit-Naggar, 2008). Thus, female offspring may be more aware of their mothers' emotional difficulties and may engage in behaviors to help them. Thus, there might be a bi-directional interaction between the mother and daughter in the occurrence of role confusion. On the other hand, paternal

personality disorder beliefs were correlated with role reversal with the father and mother in both female and male offspring. These findings might indicate fathers' personality problems may be more overwhelming for all members of the family. The relationship between paternal personality problems and the role confusion of the offspring with the mother seemed to be in line with the qualitative reports of the parentified adults in the study of Thomas (2017). In this study, participants stated that they had engaged in role reversal with their mothers also because their fathers were mostly psychologically absent for their mothers or physically abusive of their mothers. It has already stressed that fathers are regarded as important characters that share the emotional burden of mothers so that mothers can interact with their children more effectively (Lamb & Tamis-LeMonda, 2004). Thus, if the fathers could not provide the necessary support to the mothers, the interaction between the mother and children might worsen such that mothers might ask for assistance from their children. In the case of paternal personality disorder features, fathers would be less likely to attend to the mothers which may, later on, initiate a role confused pattern in the mother-child dyad. These findings all together can be interpreted that while the female offspring was likely to expose to more adverse conditions concerning maternal personality problems, other members of the family did not seem to be burdened by these problems in the mother or they might better cope with this maternal condition. On the other hand, paternal personality problems might be related to more adverse consequences for each member of the family. Thus, it is recommended for future studies to take the gender of parents and the offspring into account while searching the relation between personality disorder features of parents and early experiences of the offsprings with their parents.

Considering the results of the correlations, the mediation analyses were conducted with mother-daughter and father-son dyads. Firstly, the relationship between the deprecating characteristics of mothers and daughters through the mediating role of maternal rearing styles and role confusion history reported by daughters was investigated. The results revealed that maternal deprecating features had both direct and indirect relations with the deprecating beliefs of the daughters.

Four specific indirect relationships were revealed. Specifically, maternal deprecating beliefs were related to increased maternal overprotection and rejection accounts of daughters, which increased their childhood maternal role reversion and that increased their tendency to hold more deprecating beliefs. Moreover, perceived maternal rejection more directly mediated the link between deprecating beliefs of mothers and daughters independent of role confusion. Maternal deprecating beliefs were associated with more rejection perceived from the mother which in turn predicted more deprecating beliefs in daughters. Similarly, role confusion history was also more directly mediated the link between the deprecating beliefs of mothers and daughters independent of perceived maternal parenting. That is, deprecating beliefs in mothers were related to increased role reversal accounts of daughters which in turn predicted more deprecating features in daughters.

Mothers with deprecating beliefs seemed to show both rejecting and overprotective stance toward their daughters that may indicate the instability and authoritarianism in their parenting. Earlier research also revealed a fluctuation in the parenting of mothers showing deprecating features like borderline personality disorder (Reinelt et al., 2014). That is, they showed over concern for their children but they also treated them in a cold and disapproving manner (Eyden, Winsper, Wolke, Broome, & MacCallum, 2016). In their study, Reinelt et al. (2014) showed that borderline features of mothers transmitted to the adult children through this unstable parenting of mothers. In addition to that, the current study highlighted the role of early role confusion in the transmission of maternal deprecating features, which seemed to emerge as a response to poor mothering strategies. This finding largely agrees with the view of the attachment theory which suggested that the role reversed behaviors in children emerge mostly as a result of unforeseeable and frightening acts of parents (Solomon, George, & De Jong, 1995). In the face of such parenting, the child attends to the parent and functions as a regulatory mechanism for the parent so that he/she can feel safe and his/her anxieties are relieved (Solomon et al., 1995). However, this process inevitably requires the child to learn the expectations of the parent and act accordingly. As daughters try to relieve their

mothers through role reversion, their independent functioning might be dampened and they might develop more dependent and inadequate self-beliefs. Even though daughters tried to control mothers' behaviors through role reversion, the rejection perceived from mothers continued to directly associate with daughters' personality beliefs. This finding may indicate the intensity of rejecting tone in the parenting of deprecating mothers toward their daughters. Zalewski et al. (2014) indicated that harsh/punishing behaviors of mothers with borderline personality symptoms toward their daughters emerged as a reaction to their daughters' urge for independence. Increasing autonomy of the daughter, thus, may trigger rejecting attitudes of deprecating mothers. This perceived rejection from the mother might further leave them insecure about their developing independent capabilities as well as exacerbate their negative self-perceptions. Other possible mechanisms underlying the rejecting stance of mothers with deprecating beliefs must be elaborated in future studies since it may be an important agent in the development of rejection sensitivity characterizing personality disorders consisting of deprecating beliefs. Moreover, deprecating characteristics of mothers predicted more role reversion in the daughter, which later on contributed to the deprecating features of daughters. It was an expected finding since previous studies also showed that mothers describing themselves from a negative perspective more directly expected their children's attention, guidance, or companionship (Macfie et al., 2017). However, since the mothers' needs dominated the mother-daughter relationship, the needs and feelings of the daughters regarding recognition or confirmation remained unmet, which may leave them in a needy position in the later years of their lives.

In the second mediation analysis, the mediating roles of early maternal rearing experiences of daughters in the link between inflated personality disorder beliefs of mothers and daughters were examined. Both direct and indirect effects of maternal inflated personality beliefs were revealed. There were three indirect associations between inflated personality disorder beliefs of mothers and daughters. Similar to deprecating mothers, mothers with inflated features were perceived as more rejecting and overprotective by their daughters, which were related to increased

childhood role reversion in daughters and that contributed to the inflated traits of the daughters. Moreover, perceived maternal overprotection more directly mediated the link between inflated beliefs of mothers and daughters independent of role confusion. Similar to the parenting of mothers with deprecating beliefs, mothers displaying inflated features also alternated between being concerned about and controlling for their daughters and being critical, punishing, and disapproving to them. This kind of parenting is likely to initiate role confused behaviors in the daughters since it is distressing for them. Earlier studies conducted with narcissistic parents indicated that these parents insisted on their child to act according to their standards, truths, or rules (Hart, Bush-Evans, Hepper, & Hickman, 2017) and when it is not the case, these parents can take a rejecting and indifferent stance toward the child (Rappoport, 2005). Moreover, these parents were likely to see their children superior to other children and ascribed them at high standards (Coppolo et al., 2020). Thus, in the case of a mother with inflated features, the daughters may learn to comfort their mothers by complying with their demands rather than showing direct emotional care to them. Moreover, the independent mediating role of maternal overprotection in the transmission of inflated beliefs may further indicate the dominance of mothers' demands. As the restrictive and domineering parenting of these mothers increased, the inclination of their daughters to incorporate these maternal ideals to their self also increased. Parents with inflated personality characteristics are less likely to recognize and encourage the more genuine features of their children (Rappoport, 2005). Thus, the daughters of mothers with inflated features might feel compelled to fulfill the expectations of their mothers and hence develop an unrealistic and inflated perception of themselves which take its ground from others rather than their own experiences.

The relationship between the ambivalent personality beliefs of mothers and daughters through the role of early parental experiences of daughters were investigated in the third mediation analysis. Maternal ambivalent beliefs had both direct and indirect effects on the ambivalent beliefs of the daughters. Two specific indirect effects of maternal ambivalent beliefs were revealed. That is, the ambivalent

personality beliefs in the mothers were related to increased maternal rejection accounts of the daughters, which was associated with more role confusion experiences of the daughters, and that contributed to the ambivalent personality features in the daughters. Moreover, ambivalent features of the mother were more directly linked with increasing early role confusion experiences of daughters which in turn, predicted more ambivalent beliefs in them. People having ambivalent personality beliefs construe the self as sufficient in its own right, while they feel insecure and vulnerable in their interactions with other people since they have difficulty to trust on them (Akyunus & Gençöz, 2020). Thus, they mostly interact with other people distantly. The current results indicated that mothers with these characteristics also had difficulty in establishing trusting relationships with their daughters. The daughters reported their mothers as judgmental, discontented, and sometimes punishing in their childhood. It was consistent with earlier studies indicating insensitive and rejecting parenting observed in mothers showing paranoid and schizoid personality symptoms (DeMulder et al., 1995; Wilson & Durbin, 2012). Daughters also remarked that they had experienced more role reversion as a response to the rejecting attitudes and behaviors as well as the ambivalent personality features of the mothers. At first stance, it is difficult to understand why the daughters felt concerned and tried to comfort their mothers having rejective attitudes instead of withdrawing from them. They might engage in role confusion as a way of getting in touch with the mother since they were children and attachment to a parental figure is critical importance at that time. It was argued that through role reversal children meet their safety needs by being close to the parent although their needs for affection remain unmet (West & Keller, 1991). Moreover, the function of a preoccupation with the mother in a role confused manner might be to manage the fear by predicting and preventing the future harsh behaviors of the mother. In line with that, Macfie et al. (1999) showed that children who were exposed to physical misbehaviors of parents showed more attempts to soothe the distress of a parental figure in a story-completion task. Thus, the relatedness of the daughters with their mothers may be characterized by a longing for affection and accompanying fear which may be

transferred to their future relatedness with other people. That is, they try to avoid painful emotions by denying their needs to love and be loved by others and by controlling others to prevent potential harm.

The same mediation models were conducted in order to test the association between personality disorder beliefs of fathers and their sons through the mediating role of early paternal experiences of the sons. The findings indicated that all personality disorder beliefs of the fathers were significantly related to paternal overprotection perceived from the father and role reversion experiences of the son, however, a significant indirect association was observed only in the relationship between the inflated features of fathers and their sons through the role of early role confused accounts of the sons. The non-significant indirect paths might be mostly related to a small number of male participants in the study that might decrease the power of the analyses. However, despite this limitation, the findings underscored that paternal personality disorder beliefs although they showed different configurations were mainly related to restrictive and controlling parenting and role confusion reported by the sons. These associations could point out that paternal personality problems might be detrimental for the sons to gain an autonomous understanding of the self. As underlined earlier, fathers have a much greater role in accustoming and socializing their children to the outer realm (Paquette, 2004). The relinquishment of the father from this role and instead his encouraging behaviors of more restricted functioning might be disappointing especially for the male offspring to gain gender-congruent skills. Thus, this paternal parenting domain might have more importance for males as compared to other parenting strategies of the father. Moreover, the results also highlighted the indirect effect of fathers' inflated personality on their sons' inflated personality beliefs through the role of paternal role reversion experiences of the sons. In other words, inflated beliefs pertaining to the father predicted more experiences of role reversion in their sons which in turn was associated with the increased inflated beliefs in their sons. Coppolo et al. (2020) revealed that fathers displaying entitled, exploitative, and exhibitionistic personality traits were likely to exaggerate the abilities, talents, or skills of their children. This

approach of the fathers, later on, predicted more narcissistic traits in their children. According to the authors, it was related to the struggle of the children to protect the high position assigned by the father. In a similar vein, fathers with inflated characteristics may treat their children more like adults since they may tend to overestimate their capabilities and underestimate their vulnerabilities. Thus, children may start to relate with their fathers from an adult position, however, since this position was too high for the children, they might achieve to stay in this role by adopting entitled or grandiose features.

3.3.4 Strengths of the Study and Implications for Clinical Practice

There are several strengths of the current study. First of all, personality disorder features were conceptualized under three main headings that represent how individuals define their "self" and perceive other people. Since this conceptualization focused on more specific aspects of personality functioning, it allowed us to interpret the results from a more detailed perspective. This perspective may provide helpful insights to better understand and intervene in patients having disrupted self and other perceptions in clinical practice. The results indicated that a distinctive pattern of parental rearing practices was observed in each personality disorder belief. A demanding and dissatisfied father figure was related to the emergence of deprecating personality beliefs in young adults. Deprecating personality beliefs reflect the passive, helpless, and degrading self-views while the others are imagined more dominant, competent, and active. Thus, it can be considered that these individuals seem to maintain a similar relational theme that had been established with the father earlier along with their new encounters. In a similar vein, in psychotherapeutic work, individuals with deprecating beliefs may tend to give a powerful position to the therapist and expect him/her to be directive. While working with these individuals, therapists may avoid being dominant and may encourage them to take initiatives and to express themselves as freely as possible. Since these individuals have difficulty in differentiating their internal states from the ones of others, a dominant therapist may lead these individuals to be easily confused about their feelings and thoughts. Early

parental rearing experiences of young adults with inflated beliefs were characterized by their fathers' demanding, affectionate but also rejecting attitudes toward them. It is considered that children encountering such parenting are likely to internalize paternal demands, expectations, or truths to ensure affection and avoid rejection of the father. Children could achieve the ideals of the fathers by adopting aggrandized and grandiose self-images. In psychotherapy, these individuals may expect the therapist to affirm their aggrandized self. In line with that, they may be unwilling to discuss their vulnerabilities or more negative features. Since they have difficulty in tolerating differentiation, they may try to control the thoughts of the therapist to prevent his/her opinions to be diverted from themselves. Moreover, intense anger may emerge as a result of the interventions of the therapist. Thus, enhancing the capacity to tolerate intrapersonal and interpersonal differences or discrepancies may be one of the major tasks of therapeutic work conducted with these individuals. The early relationships of young adults having ambivalent personality beliefs included a demanding mother figure and unpredictable father figure. These early relational experiences might pave the way for the formation of distant and mistrustful features of individuals with ambivalent beliefs. One of the main goals of the psychotherapeutic work conducted with these individuals may be establishing a trusting relationship with them. A more supportive and non-judgmental stance of the therapist may be critical for the initial phases of the therapy. After the therapeutic relationship is consolidated, the factors, that withhold them from interacting effectively with others such as their splitting world view, may be worked in psychotherapy.

In the scope of this study, the psychometric utility of "Relationships with Parents Scale" as a more general construct measuring different aspects of emotional role reversion was tested in a Turkish sample and it was found as a reliable and valid construct that can be used in Turkish culture. Moreover, this study examined the association between role reversion and different personality disorder beliefs more extensively. Previously, it was emphasized that childhood role reversion would mostly result in the development of negative self-views in individuals (Macfie et al., 2015); however, this study showed that it also contributed to the inflated and

ambiguous self-beliefs of individuals. These findings may provide tentative support for the suggestions of a few earlier studies indicating that role reversion could occur in different forms (Mayseless et al., 2004; Jones & Wells, 1996) and differential treatments of parents may be an important factor in the emergence of these different forms. Thus, role reversion might be a multidimensional construct in which the dimensions may relate to different outcomes. These dimensions may be identified through qualitative studies and more detailed constructs of role reversion can be developed in future studies. Considering strong associations between role confusion and separation-individuation difficulties, role reversion seemed to be one of the major obstructs that may prevent individuals from forming a cohesive identity, which may later on make them susceptible to personality disturbances. Therefore, developing preventive strategies for the occurrence of role confusion would be an important step to ensure healthy personality development. The results of the current study highlighted that the role confusion with the parent is a family problem since parenting perceived from both the mother and father contributed to it. Over-protectiveness of the parent toward the child appeared to be an important initiator of the process of role confusion. Individuals also reported that they perceived warmth from the parent with whom they engaged in role confusion. It may indicate that role confused behaviors of the child are likely to be praised and reinforced by the parent. Since both parties are content with such a relationship, it may be perceived as a benign form of interaction and could not be intervened until its negative outcomes emerge for the child. The intervention of the other parent, such as developing an attentive and close communication with the child may prevent role confusion in the overprotective parent-child dyad. Therapists working with families must also be alert to this familial pattern and may inform the family members about potential adverse outcomes of the role confused relational pattern for the child.

Another important aspect of the current study was that personality disorder beliefs of parents have an important place in shaping early parental experiences of the offspring in a gender-specific way. Moreover, these early parental experiences of the offspring in relation to their parents' personality played a significant role in the

formation of similar personality disorder beliefs in the offspring. According to the results, in the case of maternal personality disorder features daughters were at higher risk of encountering adverse parenting practices of the mothers. The mediation analyses showed that the daughters were likely to show similar personality disorder beliefs with their mothers by encountering adverse maternal parenting and more role confusion with the mother during childhood. The main theme of these adverse childhood experiences concerning mothers with deprecating and inflated features was that mothers seemed to be unable to recognize the distinctiveness of their daughters and appeared to control them through rejecting or overprotective parenting styles. On the other hand, mothers having ambivalent features seemed to have difficulty in forming a trusting relationship with their daughters without their hostile attributions intruding it. Thus, therapists working with the mothers displaying personality disorder features may be more attentive to the interactions between these mothers and their daughters. Therapists may focus on mother-daughter interactions in therapy by considering given relational themes specific to the personality tendencies of the mothers. Role confusion observed in daughters of mothers with personality disorder beliefs seemed to emerge mostly as a way of protecting themselves from the mothers; however, it appeared to be a dysfunctional strategy since it facilitated the formation of personality disorder features in daughters similar to their mothers. Thus, addressing the function of role confusion and its effects on the personality may be an important topic in psychotherapy while working with daughters of mothers displaying personality disorder beliefs.

In the case of paternal personality disorder beliefs, the sons reported perceiving more problematic behaviors from their fathers, especially in terms of overprotection. Mediation analyses revealed that male offspring were more likely to have inflated beliefs by engaging in role confusion with the father displaying inflated characteristics. Thus, while working with fathers displaying personality disorder beliefs in clinical practice, their overprotective parenting style toward their male offspring may be an important topic for intervention. Therapists may also further focus on father-son interaction when fathers displaying inflated features since these

characteristics may initiate a role confused relationship between them. The role reversed pattern in fathers with inflated features may be easily unnoticed because the general notion about role reversion is that it mostly occurs in parents displaying helpless, inadequate, or indifferent features. However, the results indicated that the dominant personality characteristics of the parents may also initiate role confusion in the child. The personality disorder features of the fathers were also related to role confusion of both male and female offspring with their mothers. That is, when fathers experienced personality problems, mothers were more likely to turn to their children for emotional support. In such situations, encouraging mothers to seek support from other sources such as their adult friends, relatives or psychotherapy may be a critical step to protect children from an undue burden.

3.3.5 The Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Studies

The above-mentioned findings need to be evaluated considering the certain limitations of the study. First of all, the data used in the study has a cross-sectional nature, which prevents us from making causal inferences and conclusive statements about the directionality of the relationships among the variables. Moreover, participants' early relationships with the parents were assessed based on their retrospective accounts. This kind of assessment may not reflect the reality properly as memory errors, the current mood of the person or current relationships with the parents may distort the person's evaluation of the past. Furthermore, the study is based on the assumption that personality beliefs of the parents would be similar when their children were younger and older. Although the core beliefs of individuals are settled at early ages and they are resistant to alter over time (Bienenfeld, 2007), the intensity of these beliefs might decline with age. Future studies using longitudinal data, observational methods, and informant reports (e.g., parents, siblings) would be valuable to increase the reliability of the current findings.

There are also limitations concerning the characteristics of the sample. The sample was representative of the mostly non-clinical group of university students. Thus, the generalizability of the findings was restricted to this group. Future studies

conducted with clinical samples (e.g., parents diagnosed with a personality disorder) and individuals having lower socioeconomic levels may provide different results extending the scope of current findings. Moreover, there was an inequality in terms of the distribution of gender. It decreased the power of the mediation analyses conducted with male offsprings. Some indirect associations could not be revealed due to the small sample size of the male participants. Thus, future studies may investigate the indirect effect of parental personality disorder features on male offspring with a more adequate number of male participants. Lastly, in the current study, the mediating roles of perceived parenting and role reversal history were taken into consideration. However, the direct associations between the personality beliefs of parents and the offspring indicate the existence of other mediating factors. Similarly, the transmission of personality features in mother-son and father-daughter dyad may occur through the role of other mediating mechanisms. Future studies may also focus on revealing these possible mediators.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM OF STUDY 1

Sayın Katılımcı;

Bu çalışma, Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz danışmanlığında, ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü doktora öğrencisi İrem Akıncı'nın doktora tezi kapsamında yürütülmektedir. Araştırmanın amacı, bazı ailesel faktörler ve kişilik özellikleri arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesidir.

Bu amaç doğrultusunda sizden bazı soruları yanıtlamanız istenecektir. Soruları yanıtlamanız yaklaşık olarak 45 dakikanızı alacaktır. Çalışmanın objektif olması, elde edilecek sonuçların güvenilirliği ve değerlendirilebilmesi açısından, anket sorularını içtenlikle ve eksiksiz doldurmanız çok önemlidir. Çalışmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Bu çalışma kapsamında vereceğiniz tüm bilgiler tamamen gizli kalacaktır. Çalışmada, isminizi ve kimliğinizi ortaya çıkaracak herhangi bir soru yer almamaktadır. Anket genel olarak, kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında herhangi bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz, cevaplama işini bırakmakta serbestsiniz. Verdiğiniz bilgiler gizli tutulacak, sadece araştırmacılar tarafından toplu olarak değerlendirilecek ve elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayınlarda kullanılacaktır. Katılımınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü doktora öğrencisi İrem Akıncı (E-posta: iremakincimetu@gmail.com) ve tez danışmanı Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz (E-posta: tgencoz@metu.edu.tr) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

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

Tarih

İmza

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APPENDIX B: DEMOGRAPHIC FORM OF STUDY 1

Lütfen aşağıda istenilen bilgileri yazınız ve seçenekli sorularda size uygun olan seçeneğin yanındaki () ile gösterilen alana X işareti koyarak belirtiniz.

1. Cinsiyetiniz:

2. Yaşınız:

3. Eğitim Düzeyiniz:

Okur-Yazar () İlkokul mezunu () Ortaokul mezunu () Lise mezunu ()

Üniversite öğrencisi () Üniversite mezunu () Yüksek lisans mezunu ()

Doktora mezunu ()

4. Gelir Düzeyiniz: Düşük () Orta () Yüksek ()

5. Çalışıyor musunuz? Evet () Hayır ()

6. Bölümünüz veya Mesleğiniz:

7. **Medeni Haliniz:**

Bekar () İlişkisi var () Evli () Diğer

8. Anneniz hayatta mı? Evet () Hayır ()

Cevabınız hayır ise annenizi kaybettiğinizde siz kaç yaşındaydınız?

9. Babanız hayatta mı? Evet () Hayır ()

Cevabınız hayır ise babanızı kaybettiğinizde siz kaç yaşındaydınız?

10. Anne ve babanız hayatta ise Birlikte () Boşanmış ()

Cevabınız boşanmış ise **boşandıklarında siz kaç yaşındaydınız?**

11. Kardeşiniz var mı? Evet () Hayır ()

Cevabınız evet ise siz dahil kaç kardeşsiniz?

Ailenizin kaçınıcı çocuğusunuz?

12. 18 yaşınızdan önce (çocukluk ve ergenlik dönemlerinizde) sizin

sorumluluğunuzu alarak bakımınızı üstlenen kişi veya kişiler kimdi? (Birden

fazla seçeneği işaretleyebilir veya kişi yazabilirsiniz)

Annem () Babam () Diğer

13. Bugüne kadar herhangi bir istismara uğradınız mı? Evet () Hayır ()

Cevabınız evet ise bu ne tür bir istismardı? (Birden fazla seçeneği

işaretleyebilirsiniz.)

Fiziksel () Psikolojik () Cinsel ()

Bu durum sizi ne ölçüde etkiledi?

Pek etkilemedi			Orta düzeyde etkiledi			Çok etkiledi
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. Ailenizde psikolojik rahatsızlığı olan biri var mı?

Anne Evet () Hayır () Rahatsızlığı nedir?

Baba Evet () Hayır () Rahatsızlığı nedir?

Kardeş(ler) Evet () Hayır () Rahatsızlığı nedir?

15. Şu anda **tanı aldığınız** herhangi bir psikolojik/psikiyatrik rahatsızlığınız var

mı? Evet () Hayır () Evetse; belirtiniz.....

Bu durum ne kadar süredir var?

Yardım/televi görüyor musunuz? Evet () Hayır ()

Son 6 aydır kullandığınız psikiyatrik bir ilaç var mı? Evet () Hayır ()

APPENDIX C: RELATIONSHIPS WITH PARENTS SCALE

Aşağıdaki maddeler çocukluk ve ergenlik dönemlerinizde, her bir ebeveyninizle olan ilişkiniz hakkındadır. Aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak her madde için sizi en iyi yansıtan rakamı daire içine alınız.

1 Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	2 Pek katılmıyorum	3 Kararsızım	4 Biraz katılıyorum	5 Kesinlikle katılıyorum	
Çocukluk ve ergenlik çağlarımda,					
1) babam, evin sorumluluğunu üstlenmekte zorlanıyor gibiydi.	1	2	3	4	5
2) bir aile ile ilgilenmek babama ağır geliyor gibiydi.	1	2	3	4	5
3) babam, ona ne yapacağını söylemem konusunda bana bel bağlardı.	1	2	3	4	5
4) babam, benim tavsiyelerime ihtiyaç duyardı.	1	2	3	4	5
5) babam, onu yeterince sevmediğimi düşünürdü.	1	2	3	4	5
6) babam, bir tartışma sırasında onun tarafını tutmamı beklerdi.	1	2	3	4	5
7) babamı bırakıp arkadaşlarımla oynamaya gittiğimde kendimi kötü hissedirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
8) birileriyle çıkmaya/flört etmeye başladığımda babam kıskançlık gösterirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
9) babam duygusal destek için bana ihtiyaç duyardı.	1	2	3	4	5
10) babamı, annemden korumaya çalışırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
Lütfen bu soruyu boş bırakınız.	1	2	3	4	5
11) babamın nasıl hissettiğinden sorumlu hissedirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
12) canımı acıttığımda, kendi durumumdan daha çok babamın tepkisinden endişe duyardım.	1	2	3	4	5
13) babam herkesten çok bana güvenirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
14) babam, yanına arkadaş istediği ya da konuşmak için birine ihtiyaç duyduğu gecelerde beni ayakta tutardı.	1	2	3	4	5
15) babam ona arkadaşlık etmemi beklerdi.	1	2	3	4	5
16) babam daha çok benim yaşımdaymış gibi davranırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
17) babam kendi arkadaşlarından ziyade benim arkadaşlarımla vakit geçirmekten hoşlanırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
18) babamın duygu durumunu anlamaya çalışmak zihnimi çok sık meşgul ederdi.	1	2	3	4	5
19) babam, ne hissettiğini bilmemi beklerdi.	1	2	3	4	5
20) babamın ne istediğini ondan daha iyi bilirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
21) babamın aklını okuyabiliyor gibiydim.	1	2	3	4	5

1	2	3	4	5
Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	Pek katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Biraz katılıyorum	Kesinlikle katılıyorum

Çocukluk ve ergenlik çağlarımda,					
1) annem, evin sorumluluğunu üstlenmekte zorlanıyor gibiydi.	1	2	3	4	5
2) bir aile ile ilgilenmek anneme ağır geliyor gibiydi.	1	2	3	4	5
3) annem, ona ne yapacağını söylemem konusunda bana bel bağlardı.	1	2	3	4	5
4) annem, benim tavsiyelerime ihtiyaç duyardı.	1	2	3	4	5
5) annem, onu yeterince sevmediğimi düşünürdü.	1	2	3	4	5
6) annem, bir tartışma sırasında onun tarafını tutmamı beklerdi.	1	2	3	4	5
7) annemi bırakıp arkadaşlarımla oynamaya gittiğimde kendimi kötü hissederdim.	1	2	3	4	5
8) birileriyle çıkmaya/flört etmeye başladığımda annem kıskançlık gösterirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
9) annem duygusal destek için bana ihtiyaç duyardı.	1	2	3	4	5
10) annemi, babamdan korumaya çalışırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
Lütfen bu soruyu boş bırakınız.	1	2	3	4	5
11) annemin nasıl hissettiğinden sorumlu hissederdim.	1	2	3	4	5
12) canımı acıttığımda, kendi durumumdan daha çok annemin tepkisinden endişe duyardım.	1	2	3	4	5
13) annem herkesten çok bana güvenirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
14) annem, yanına arkadaş istediği ya da konuşmak için birine ihtiyaç duyduğu gecelerde beni ayakta tutardı.	1	2	3	4	5
15) annem ona arkadaşlık etmemi beklerdi.	1	2	3	4	5
16) annem daha çok benim yaşımdaymış gibi davranırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
17) annem kendi arkadaşlarından ziyade benim arkadaşlarımla vakit geçirmekten hoşlanırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
18) annemin duygu durumunu anlamaya çalışmak zihnimi çok sık meşgul ederdi.	1	2	3	4	5
19) annem, ne hissettiğini bilmemi beklerdi.	1	2	3	4	5
20) annemin ne istediğini ondan daha iyi bilirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
21) annemin aklını okuyabiliyor gibiydim.	1	2	3	4	5

**APPENDIX D: EĞNA MINNEN BETRAFFANDE UPPFOSTRAN- MY
MEMORIES OF UPBRINGING (S-EMBU)**

Aşağıda çocukluğunuz ile ilgili bazı sorular yer almaktadır.

Anketi doldurmadan önce aşağıdaki yönergeyi lütfen dikkatle okuyunuz:

1. Anketi doldururken, anne ve babanızın size karşı olan davranışlarını nasıl algıladığınızı hatırlamaya çalışmanız gerekmektedir. Anne ve babanızın çocukken size karşı davranışlarını tam olarak hatırlamak bazen zor olsa da, her birimizin çocukluğumuzda anne babamızın kullandıkları prensiplere ilişkin bazı anılarımız vardır.
2. Her bir soru için anne ve babanızın size karşı davranışlarına uygun seçeneği yuvarlak içine alın. Her soruyu dikkatlice okuyun ve muhtemel cevaplardan hangisinin sizin için uygun cevap olduğuna karar verin. Soruları anne ve babanız için ayrı ayrı cevaplayın.

		Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, Çoğu zaman
1. Anne ve babam, nedenini söylemeden bana kızarlardı ya da ters davranırlardı.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
2. Anne ve babam beni överlerdi.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
3. Anne ve babamın yaptıklarım konusunda daha az endişeli olmasını isterdim.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
4. Anne ve babam, bana hak ettiğimden daha çok fiziksel ceza verirdi.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
5. Eve geldiğimde, anne ve babama ne yaptığımın hesabını vermek zorundaydım.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
6. Anne ve babam ergenliğimin uyarıcı, ilginç ve eğitici olması için çalışırlardı.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
7. Anne ve babam, beni başkalarının önünde eleştirirlerdi.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
8. Anne ve babam, bana bir şey olur korkusuyla başka çocukların yapmasına izin verilen şeyleri yapmamı yasaklardı.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
9. Anne ve babam, her şeyde en iyi olmam için beni teşvik ederlerdi.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4

		Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, Çoğu zaman
10. Anne ve babam davranışları ile örneğin üzgün görünerek, onlara kötü davrandığım için kendimi suçlu hissetmeme neden olurlardı.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
11. Anne ve babamın bana bir şey olacağına ilişkin endişeleri abartılıydı.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
12. Benim içim bir şeyler kötü gittiğinde, anne ve babamın beni rahatlatmaya ve yüreklendirmeye çalıştığını hissedirdim.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
13. Bana ailenin 'yüz karası' ya da 'günah keçisi' gibi davranılırdı.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
14. Anne ve babam, sözleri ve hareketleriyle beni sevdiklerini gösterirlerdi.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
15. Anne ve babamın, erkek ya da kız kardeşimi(lerimi) beni sevdiklerinden daha çok sevdiklerini hissedirdim.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
16. Anne ve babam, kendimden utanmama neden olurlardı.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
17. Anne ve babam, pek fazla umursamadan, istediğim yere gitmeme izin verirlerdi.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
18. Anne ve babamın, yaptığım her şeye karıştıklarını hissedirdim.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
19. Anne ve babamla aramda sıcaklık ve sevecenlik olduğunu hissedirdim.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
20. Anne ve babam, yapabileceklerim ve yapamayacaklarımla ilgili kesin sınırlar koyar ve bunlara titizlikle uyarlardı.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
21. Anne ve babam, küçük kabahatlerim için bile beni cezalandırırlardı.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
22. Anne ve babam, nasıl giyinmem ve görünmem gerektiği konusunda karar vermek isterlerdi.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4
23. Yaptığım bir şeyde başarılı olduğumda, anne ve babamın benimle gurur duyduklarını hissedirdim.	Anne	1	2	3	4
	Baba	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX E: PARENTIFICATION INVENTORY

YÖNERGE: Aşağıdaki sorular siz büyürken, kendiniz ve ailenizle ilgili sahip olduğunuz düşünceleriniz, davranışlarınız ve duygularınız ile ilgilidir. Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyun. Cümlelerin 1 (hiçbir zaman doğru değil) ve 5 (her zaman doğru) arasında sizin için ne kadar doğru olduğuna dayanarak bir cevap seçin. Her soruyu mümkün olduğunca doğru yanıtladığınızdan emin olun.

BU SORULARIN SİZİN BÜYÜDÜĞÜNÜZ DÖNEM HAKKINDA OLDUĞUNU UNUTMAYIN.

Yanıt Seçenekleri:

(1) Hiçbir zaman (2) Nadiren (3) Kimi zaman (4) Sık sık (5) Her zaman

	Durum	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Kimi zaman	Sık sık	Her zaman
1	Üzgün olduklarında ya da duygusal zorluklar yaşadıklarında, kardeş(ler)imi rahatlatmam beklendi.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Anne babam sık sık diğer aile üyeleri hakkındaki sırları benimle paylaştı.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Benim yaşadığım yerdeki çoğu çocuk aile bütçesine katkıda bulunurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Aile üyelerimle ilgilenmek zorunda olduğumda bile, mutlu ya da üzgün olabilecek zamana sahiptim.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Anne babama önemli kararlar almalarında yardım ettim.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Her gece kardeşlerimin yattığından emin olmak benim görevimdi.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Ailem tarafından takdir edildiğimi hissettim.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Benim yaşındaki çoğu çocuk benimle aynı rol ve sorumluluklara sahipti.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Ailevi sorumluluklarım olsa da oyun ya da okul ödevleri için zamanım olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5

10	Çalıştım ve aile bütçesine katkıda bulundum.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Kardeşlerimin (kız ya da erkek) ev ödevlerini tamamlamalarına yardımcı olmaktan sorumluydum.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Ailemde bir anlaşmazlık olduğunda aile üyelerimin yardım istediği ilk kişiydim.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Kardeşlerimi disipline eden esas kişi bendim.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Sık sık anne babamın (ya da ailedeki bakım veren yetişkinlerin) arasındaki sorunları çözmeye yardım ettim.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Aile içindeki rolümden gerçekten keyif aldım.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Üzgün olduklarında ya da duygusal zorluklar yaşadıklarında, anne babamı rahatlatmam beklendi.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Haftanın çoğu günü ailenin çamaşırlarını yıkamaktan ben sorumluydum.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Ailem için hakem rolünü üstlendim.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Aile üyelerimin sırlarını paylaştığı kişi bendim.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Ailemizin bir takım olduğunu ve birlikte iyi çalıştığımı hissettim.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Market alışverişinin yapılması diğer aile üyelerinden daha fazla benden talep edildi.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Aile üyelerim için çevirmen rolünü üstlendim.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX F: TRAIT SHAME AND GUILT SCALE

Aşağıda geçen ay süresince kendinizle ilgili hislerinizi tanımlamaya yönelik ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Bu ifadelerin sizin bu süre içindeki duygularınızı ne ölçüde anlatıp anlatmadığını her bir ifade için 5'li derecelendirme ölçeğini kullanarak belirtiniz.

1-----2-----3-----4-----5

Bu şekilde hissetmedim. Bu şekilde hissettiğim oldu. Bunu çok güçlü bir şekilde hissettim.

1. ____ Kendimi iyi hissettim.
2. ____ Yerin dibine girip, yok olmak istedim.
3. ____ Vicdan azabı ve pişmanlık hissettim
4. ____ Kendimi değerli ve kıymetli hissettim
5. ____ Kendimi önemsiz hissettim.
6. ____ Daha önce yaptığım şeylerle ilgili gerginlik hissettim
7. ____ Kendimi yetenekli ve işe yarar hissettim.
8. ____ Kendimi kötü bir kişiymiş gibi hissettim.
9. ____ Yaptıklarım ile ilgili düşünmekten kendimi alıkoyamadım.
10. ____ Kendimle gurur duydum.
11. ____ Kendimi aşağılanmış ve rezil olmuş hissettim.
12. ____ Kendimi özür diliyor ve itiraf ediyormuş gibi hissettim.
13. ____ Yaptıklarım dan memnun oldum.
14. ____ Kendimi değersiz ve güçsüz hissettim.
15. ____ Yaptıklarım hakkında kendimi kötü hissettim.

APPENDIX G: STATE TRAIT ANGER INVENTORY

YÖNERGE: Aşağıda kişilerin kendilerine ait duygularını anlatırken kullandıkları bir takım ifadeler verilmiştir. Her ifadeyi okuyun, sonra da **genel** olarak nasıl hissettiğinizi düşünün ve ifadelerin sağ tarafındaki sayılar arasında sizi en iyi tanımlayanı seçerek üzerine (x) işareti koyun. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Herhangi bir ifadenin üzerinde fazla zaman sarf etmeksizin, **genel** olarak nasıl hissettiğinizi gösteren cevabı işaretleyiniz.

Sizi ne kadar tanımlıyor ?

	Hiç	Biraz	Oldukça	Tümüyle
1- Çabuk parlam.	1	2	3	4
2- Kızgın mizaçlıyım.	1	2	3	4
3- Öfkesi burnunda bir insanımdır.	1	2	3	4
4- Başkalarının hataları, yaptığım işi yavaşlatınca kızarım.	1	2	3	4
5- Yaptığım iyi bir işten sonra takdir edilmemek canımı sıkır.	1	2	3	4
6- Öfkelenince kontrolümü kaybederim.	1	2	3	4
7- Öfkelenildiğimde ağızma geleni söylerim.	1	2	3	4
8- Başkalarının önünde eleştirilmek beni hiddetlendirir.	1	2	3	4
9- Engellendiğimde içimden birilerine vurmak gelir.	1	2	3	4
10- Yaptığım iyi bir iş kötü değerlendirildiğinde çılgına dönerim.	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX H: SPLITTING SCALE

Aşağıdaki cümleleri okuyup sizin için ne derece doğru olduklarını aşağıdaki 1 ile 7 arasındaki ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz. Size uyan derecenin rakamını soruların yanındaki boş kutulara yazınız. Lütfen soruları hiç boş bırakmadan eksiksiz cevaplayınız.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hiç doğru değil	Çok az doğru	Biraz doğru	Bir dereceye kadar doğru	Oldukça doğru	Çok doğru	Tam doğru
DERECE						

1. Bana yakın birinin eleştirildiğini duymaktan nefret ederim.	
2. Ne zaman gerçekten harika bir insanın yanında olsam kendimi aptal gibi hissederim.	
3. Kızgın ve öfkeli olduğumda etrafımdaki herkes çok kötü, berbat ve rezil gibi görünür.	
4. İnsanların bana hayran olmasından ne kadar hoşlandığımı arkadaşlarım bilmez.	
5. Sevdiğim insanlara öfkelenmek benim için zordur.	
6. Birinin beni hayal kırıklığına uğratması benim için çok acı vericidir.	
7. Çocuklarını suistimal edenler için kesinlikle hiçbir sempati hissim yoktur.	
8. Bazen dünyadaki her şeyi yapabileceğimi hissederim.	
Lütfen bu soruyu boş bırakınız.	
9. Eşim (sevgilim ya da nişanlım) bana bazı zamanlar demir gibi güçlü, bazı zamanlar da bir bebek kadar aciz görünür.	
10. Genelde kişiliğimin farklı parçalarını bir araya getiremeyip tek bir "ben" olamadığımı hissederim.	
11. Bazen sevgimin tehlikeli olduğunu hissederim.	
12. Yeni bir ortama girdiğimde orada çoğu kez gerçekten hiç hoşlanmadığım biri olur.	
13. Depresif olduğum zamanlarda ya da canım sıkın olduğunda cinsel olarak uyarılmak benim için zordur.	
14. Bazı insanların benim üzerimde çok fazla nüfuzu, gücü veyahut etkisi vardır.	

APPENDIX I: DEMOGRAPHIC FORM – YOUNG ADULTS

Lütfen aşağıda istenilen bilgileri yazınız ve seçenekli sorularda size uygun olan seçeneğin yanındaki () ile gösterilen alana X işareti koyarak belirtiniz.

1. Cinsiyetiniz:
2. Yaşınız:
3. Eğitim Düzeyiniz:
Okur-Yazar () İlkokul mezunu () Ortaokul mezunu () Lise mezunu ()
Üniversite öğrencisi () Üniversite mezunu () Yüksek Lisans Mezunu ()
4. Gelir Düzeyiniz: Düşük () Orta () Yüksek ()
5. Çalışıyor musunuz? Evet () Hayır ()
6. Bölümünüz veya Mesleğiniz:
7. **Medeni Haliniz:**
Bekar () İlişkisi var () Evli () Diğer
8. Kimlerle yaşıyorsunuz?
Evde Ailemle () Evde Arkadaşlarla () Yurtta () Evde Tek Başıma ()
Diğer
9. Anneniz hayatta mı? Evet () Hayır ()
Cevabınız hayır ise annenizi kaybettiğinizde siz kaç yaşındaydınız?
10. Babanız hayatta mı? Evet () Hayır ()
Cevabınız hayır ise babanızı kaybettiğinizde siz kaç yaşındaydınız?
11. Anne ve babanız hayatta ise Birlikte () Boşanmış ()
Cevabınız boşanmış ise **boşandıklarında siz kaç yaşındaydınız?**
12. Kardeşiniz var mı? Evet () Hayır ()
Cevabınız evet ise siz dahil kaç kardeşiniz?
- Ailenizin kaçınıcı çocuğusunuz?
13. 18 yaşınızdan önce (çocukluk ve ergenlik dönemlerinizde) sizin sorumluluğunuzu alarak bakımınızı üstlenen kişi veya kişiler kimdi? (Birden fazla seçeneği işaretleyebilir veya kişi yazabilirsiniz)
Annem () Babam () Diğer
14. Bugüne kadar herhangi bir istismara uğradınız mı? Evet () Hayır ()
Cevabınız evet ise bu ne tür bir istismardı? (Birden fazla seçeneği işaretleyebilirsiniz.)
Fiziksel () Psikolojik () Cinsel ()
Bu durum sizi ne ölçüde etkiledi?

Pek etkilemedi			Orta düzeyde etkiledi			Çok etkiledi
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

15. Ailenizde psikolojik/psikiyatrik rahatsızlığı olan biri var mı?

Anne Evet () Hayır () Rahatsızlığı nedir?.....

Baba Evet () Hayır () Rahatsızlığı nedir?

Kardeş(ler) Evet () Hayır () Rahatsızlığı nedir?

16. Şu anda **tanı aldığınız** herhangi bir psikolojik/psikiyatrik rahatsızlığınız var mı? Evet () Hayır () Evetse;belirtiniz.....

Bu durum ne kadar süredir var?

Yardım/tedavi görüyor musunuz? Evet () Hayır ()

Son 6 aydır kullandığınız psikiyatrik bir ilaç var mı? Evet () Hayır ()

17. Daha önce **tanı aldığınız** herhangi bir psikolojik/psikiyatrik rahatsızlığınız oldu mu? Evet () Hayır () Evetse; belirtiniz.....

Bu durum kaç yaşınızda başladı?..... Bu durum ne kadar sürdü?

Yardım/tedavi gördünüz mü? Evet () Hayır ()

Herhangi bir psikiyatrik ilaç kullandınız mı? Evet () Hayır ()

APPENDIX J: DEMOGRAPHIC FORM – PARENTS

Lütfen aşağıda istenilen bilgileri yazınız ve seçenekli sorularda size uygun olan seçeneğin yanındaki () ile gösterilen alana X işareti koyarak belirtiniz.

1. Cinsiyetiniz:
2. Yaşınız:
3. Eğitim Düzeyiniz:
Okur-Yazar Değil () Okur-Yazar () İlkokul mezunu () Ortaokul
mezunu () Lise mezunu () Üniversite mezunu () Yüksek Lisans
Mezunu ()
Doktora Mezunu ()
4. Gelir Düzeyiniz: Düşük () Orta () Yüksek ()
5. Çalışıyor musunuz? Evet () Hayır ()
6. Mesleğiniz:
7. Medeni Haliniz:
Bekar () Evli () Diğer
8. Şu anda **tanı aldığınız** herhangi bir fiziksel rahatsızlığınız var mı? Evet ()
Hayır () Evetse; belirtiniz.....
Bu durum ne kadar süredir var?
Yardım/televaı görüyor musunuz? Evet () Hayır ()
9. Daha önce tanı aldığınız herhangi bir fiziksel rahatsızlığınız oldu mu?
Evet () Hayır () Evetse; belirtiniz.....
Bu durum ne kadar sürdü?
Yardım/televaı gördünüz mü? Evet () Hayır ()
10. Şu anda **tanı aldığınız** herhangi bir psikolojik/psikiyatrik rahatsızlığınız var
mı? Evet () Hayır () Evetse; belirtiniz.....
Bu durum ne kadar süredir var?
Yardım/televaı görüyor musunuz? Evet () Hayır ()
Son 6 aydır kullandığınız psikiyatrik bir ila var mı? Evet () Hayır ()
11. Daha önce **tanı aldığınız** herhangi bir psikolojik rahatsızlığınız oldu mu?
Evet () Hayır () Evetse; belirtiniz.....
Bu durum ne kadar sürdü?
Yardım/televaı gördünüz mü? Evet () Hayır ()
Herhangi bir psikiyatrik ila kullandınız mı? Evet () Hayır ()

APPENDIX K: SEPARATION-INDIVIDUATION INVENTORY

Aşağıdaki cümleler genel olarak insanlarla ve kendimizle ilgili düşüncelerimizi yansıtmaktadır. Her ifadeyi aşağıda verilen 10 dereceli ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz. Yaptığınız derecelendirmeyi cümlenin yanındaki boş kutuya yazınız. Lütfen hiçbir soruyu boş bırakmayınız.

Hiç katılmıyorum	Kararsızım										Tamamen katılıyorum
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		

1. İnsanlar birine gerçekten çok değer verip bağlandığında, sıklıkla kendileri hakkında daha kötü hissederler.	
2. Bir kişi, başka birine duygusal olarak aşırı yakınlaştığında, çoğu zaman kendini kaybolmuş hisseder.	
3. İnsanlar birine gerçekten öfkelenildiğinde genelde kendilerini değersiz hissederler.	
4. İnsanların birine karşı duygusal olarak çok fazla yakınlaşmaya başladıkları zaman, büyük bir olasılıkla incinmeye en açık oldukları zamandır.	
5. İnsanlar zarar görmemek için başkaları üzerindeki kontrolü elinde tutmaya ihtiyaç duyar.	
6. İnsanları tanıdıkça değişmeye başladıklarını hissederim.	
7. Hem iyi hem kötü yanlarımı aynı anda görebilmek benim için kolaydır.	
Lütfen bu soruyu boş bırakınız.	
8. Bana öyle geliyor ki insanlar benden ya gerçekten hoşlanıyor ya da nefret ediyorlar.	
9. İnsanlar bana karşı çoğu zaman sanki ben yalnızca onların her isteğini yerine getirmek için oradaymışım gibi davranıyor.	
10. Kendimden gerçekten hoşlanmak ile kendimi hiç beğenmemek arasında ciddi anlamda gidip geliyorum.	
11. Kendi başıma olduğumda bir şeylerin eksik olduğunu hissederim.	
12. İçimde bir boşluk hissetmemek için etrafımda başka insanların olmasına ihtiyaç duyarım.	
13. Başka biriyle aynı fikirde olduğumda bazen kendime ait bir parçamı kaybetmiş gibi hissederim.	
14. Herkes gibi ben de, ne zaman gerçekten saygı duyduğum ve hürmet ettiğim biriyle karşılaşsam kendimi daha kötü görürüm, kendimle ilgili daha kötü hissederim.	

15. Kendimi ayrı bir birey olarak görmek benim için kolaydır.	
16. Anne babamdan ne kadar farklı olduğumu anladığım zamanlarda çok rahatsızlık duyarım.	
17. Önemli bir karar almadan önce neredeyse her zaman anneme danışırım.	
18. Diğer insanlarla bağıllık kurup bunun gereklerini yerine getirmek benim için oldukça kolaydır.	
19. Duygusal yönden biriyle yakınlaştığımda ara sıra kendime zarar veriyormuşum gibi hissediyorum.	
20. Ya birini çok sevdiğimi ya da kimseye katlanamadığımı hissediyorum.	
21. Sıklıkla, düşmekle ilgili beni korkutup tedirgin eden rüyalar görürüm.	
22. Gözlerimi kapatıp, benim için anlamı olan kişileri zihnimde canlandırmak bana zor geliyor.	
23. Birden fazla kere nasıl ya da neden olduğunu anlayamadığım şekilde, uykudan uyanır gibi kendimi biriyle bir ilişkide buldum.	
24. Kabul etmeliyim ki kendimi yalnız hissettiğimde çoğunlukla sarhoş olmak isterim.	
25. Ne zaman biriyle kavgalı ya da birine çok kızgın olsam kendimi değersiz hissederim.	
26. En derin düşüncelerimi söyleyip paylaşacak olsaydım içimde bir boşluk hissederdim.	
27. İnsanların benden hep nefret edermiş gibi olduklarını hissederim.	
28. Anne-babama ne kadar çok benzediğimi fark ettiğim zamanlarda kendimi çok rahatsız hissediyorum.	
29. Biriyle yakın bir ilişki içinde olduğumda sıklıkla kim olduğum duygusunun kaybolduğunu hissederim.	
30. Başkalarını aynı anda hem iyi hem kötü özelliklere sahip insanlar olarak görmek benim için zordur.	
31. Bana öyle geliyor ki kendim olabilmenin tek yolu diğerlerinden farklı olmaktır.	
32. Duygusal açıdan birine aşırı yakınlaştığımda, benliğimin bir parçasını kaybettiğimi hissediyorum.	
Lütfen bu soruyu boş bırakınız.	
33. Ne zaman ailemden uzakta olsam kendimi çok rahatsız hissediyorum.	
34. Fiziksel yakınlığı ve şefkati almak, kendi başına, onu bana kimin verdiğiinden daha önemliymiş gibi olabiliyor.	
35. Bir başka insanı gerçekten iyi tanımak bana zor geliyor.	
36. Bir karar vermeden önce annemin onayını almak benim için önemlidir.	
37. İtiraf etmeliyim ki, başka birinin kusurlarını gördüğümde kendimi daha iyi hissediyorum.	
38. Diğer insanları yakınımında tutabilmek için, içimde onları kontrol etme dürtüsü duyarım.	
39. İtiraf etmeliyim ki birine duygusal olarak yakınlaştığımda, bazen ona acı çektirme isteği duyarım.	

APPENDIX L: PERSONALITY BELIEFS QUESTIONNAIRE

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyunuz ve HER BİRİNE NE KADAR İNANDIĞINIZI maddelerin yanında sizi ifade eden bir rakamı işaretleyerek belirtiniz. Her bir ifadeyle ilgili olarak ÇOĞU ZAMAN nasıl hissettiğinize göre karar veriniz.

4	3	2	1	0
Tamamen inanıyorum	Çok fazla inanıyorum	Orta derecede inanıyorum	Biraz inanıyorum	Hiçbir şekilde inanmıyorum

	NE KADAR İNANIYORSUNUZ?				
	Tamamen	Çok Fazla	Orta Derecede	Biraz	Hiç
1. İnsanlarla ilişkilerde beceriksiz, işte veya sosyal hayatta istenilmeyen birisiyim.	4	3	2	1	0
2. Diğer insanlar eleştirel, soğuk, aşağılayıcı yada dışlayıcı olabilirler.	4	3	2	1	0
3. Rahatsızlık verici duygulara katlanamam.	4	3	2	1	0
4. İnsanlar bana yaklaşırlarsa, benim “gerçekten” ne olduğum ortaya çıkar ve benden uzaklaşırlar.	4	3	2	1	0
5. Aşağılanma veya yetersizlikle karşılaşmak katlanılamaz bir şeydir.	4	3	2	1	0
6. Ne pahasına olursa olsun rahatsızlık vericidurumlardan kaçınmalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
7. Rahatsızlık verici bir şey hisseder ya da düşünürsem bunu zihnimden atmaya çalışmalı veya dikkatimi başka yere vermeliyim (Örneğin, başka şeyler düşünmek, içki içmek, ilaç almak, ya da televizyon seyretmek gibi).	4	3	2	1	0
8. Başkalarının dikkatini çektiğim durumlardan kaçınmalı ve mümkün olduğunca göze çarpmamalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
9. Rahatsız edici duygular giderek artar vektrolden çıkar.	4	3	2	1	0
10. Başkaları beni eleştiriyorsa bunda haklıdırlar.	4	3	2	1	0

11. Başarısız olunacak bir şeyle uğraşmaktansa, hiçbir şey yapmamak daha iyidir.	4	3	2	1	0
12. Bir sorun üzerinde düşünmezsem onunla ilgili bir şey yapmam da gerekmez.	4	3	2	1	0
13. İnsanlarla ilişkilerimde herhangi bir gerginlik işareti bu ilişkinin kötüye gideceğini gösterir, bu nedenle o ilişkiyi bitirmeliyim.	4	3	2	1	0
14. Eğer bir sorunu görmezden gelirim o sorun ortadan kalkar.	4	3	2	1	0
15. Muhtaç ve zayıfım.	4	3	2	1	0
16. İşimi yaparken ya da kötü bir durumla karşılaştığımda bana yardım etmesi için her zaman yanımda birilerinin olmasına gereksinim duyarım.	4	3	2	1	0
17. Bana yardım eden kişi -eğer olmayı isterse-verici, destekleyici ve güvenilir olabilmelidir	4	3	2	1	0
18. Yalnız başıma bırakıldığımda çaresizim.	4	3	2	1	0
19. Temelde yalnızım- kendimi daha güçlü bir kişiye bağlamadığım müddetçe.	4	3	2	1	0
20. Olabilecek en kötü şey terk edilmektir.	4	3	2	1	0
21. Eğer sevilmezsem hep mutsuz olurum.	4	3	2	1	0
22. Bana yardımcı ve destekleyici olanları gücendirecek hiçbir şey yapmamalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
23. İnsanların iyi niyetinin sürmesi için itaatkar olmalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
24. Her zaman birilerine ulaşabilecek durumda olmalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
25. Bir ilişkiyi mümkün olduğunca yakın hale getirmeliyim.	4	3	2	1	0
26. Kendi başıma karar veremem.	4	3	2	1	0
27. Diğer insanlar kadar mücadele gücüm yok.	4	3	2	1	0
28. Karar verirken diğer insanların yardımına ya da bana ne yapacağımı söylemelerine gereksinim duyarım.	4	3	2	1	0

29. Kendi kendime yeterim ancak amaçlarıma ulaşmak için başkalarının yardımına gereksinimim var.	4	3	2	1	0
30. Kendime olan saygımı korumanın tek yolu tepkimi dolaylı biçimde ortaya koymaktır. Örneğin, kurallara tam olarak uymayarak.	4	3	2	1	0
31. Başkalarına bağlanmaktan hoşlanırım ancak biri tarafından hükmedilmek gibi bir bedel ödemek istemem.	4	3	2	1	0
32. Yetkili kişiler sınırlarını bilmeyen, sürekli iş isteyen, müdahaleci ve denetleyicidirler.	4	3	2	1	0
33. Bir yandan yetkili kişilerin hakimiyetine karşı direnmeli ama aynı zamanda takdir ve benimsemelerini sağlamalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
34. Başkalarınca denetlenmek veya hükmedilmek dayanılmazdır.	4	3	2	1	0
35. İşleri kendi bildiğime göre yapmalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
36. Zaman sınırlarına uymak, istenenlere itaat etmek ve uyumlu olmak, onuruma ve kendi yeterliliğime doğrudan bir darbedir.	4	3	2	1	0
37. İnsanların beklediği şekilde kurallara uyarsam bu benim davranış özgürlüğüme engel olacaktır.	4	3	2	1	0
38. En iyisi kızgınlığımı doğrudan ifade etmek yerine, hoşnutsuzluğumu uyumsuzlukla göstermektir.	4	3	2	1	0
39. Benim için neyin en iyisi olduğunu biliyorum ve diğer insanlar bana ne yapmam gerektiğini söylememeliler.	4	3	2	1	0
40. Kurallar keyfidir ve beni sıkır.	4	3	2	1	0
41. Diğer insanlar sıklıkla çok şey isterler.	4	3	2	1	0
42. İnsanlar çok fazla patronluk tasarlarsa onların isteklerini dikkate almamaya hakkım vardır.	4	3	2	1	0
43. Kendimden ve başkalarından tamamen ben sorumluyum.	4	3	2	1	0
44. Bir şeyleri yapabilmek için tamamen kendi gücüme güvenmek zorundayım.	4	3	2	1	0

45. Başkaları çok dikkatsiz, çoğu kez sorumsuz, kendi isteklerinin peşinde koşan ya da yetersiz kişilerdir.	4	3	2	1	0
46. Her şeyde kusursuz iş çıkarmak önemlidir.	4	3	2	1	0
47. Bir işi düzgün yapabilmek için düzene, belirli bir sisteme ve kurallara gereksinimim vardır.	4	3	2	1	0
48. Eğer bir sistemim olmazsa her şey darmadağın olur.	4	3	2	1	0
49. Yaptığım bir işte herhangi bir hata ya da kusur felakete yol açabilir.	4	3	2	1	0
50. Her zaman en yüksek standartlara ulaşmaya çalışmak gereklidir yoksa her şey darmadağın olur.	4	3	2	1	0
51. Her zaman duygularımı tam olarak kontrol etme ihtiyacımdayım.	4	3	2	1	0
52. İnsanlar işleri benim tarzımda yapmalıdırlar.	4	3	2	1	0
53. Eğer en yüksek düzeyde iş yapmıyorsam başarısız olurum.	4	3	2	1	0
54. Kusurlar, eksikler ya da yanlışlar hoş görülemez.	4	3	2	1	0
55. Ayrıntılar son derece önemlidir.	4	3	2	1	0
56. Bir şeyleri yapma tarzım genellikle en iyi yöntemdir.	4	3	2	1	0
57. Kendime dikkat etmeliyim.	4	3	2	1	0
58. Bir şeyi yapmanın en iyi yolu zor kullanmak ve kurnazlıktır.	4	3	2	1	0
59. Vahşi bir ortamda yaşıyoruz ve güçlü olan hayatta kalır.	4	3	2	1	0
60. Eğer ilk önce harekete geçip üstünlük kurmazsam karşımdaki bana üstünlük kurar.	4	3	2	1	0
61. Sözüne sadık olmak ya da borcunu ödemek önemli değildir.	4	3	2	1	0
62. Yakalanmadığın müddetçe yalan söylemek ve aldatmak normaldir.	4	3	2	1	0
63. Genellikle bana haksız davranılıyor. Bu nedenle ne şekilde olursa olsun payımı almak hakkımdır.	4	3	2	1	0
64. Diğer insanlar zayıflar ve aldatılmayı hak ediyorlar.	4	3	2	1	0
65. Eğer başkalarını ben sıkıştırmazsam, onlar	4	3	2	1	0

beni boyun eğmeye zorlar.					
66. Karlı çıkabilmek için elimden gelen her şeyi yapmalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
67. Başkalarının benim hakkımda ne düşündüğü hiç önemli değil.	4	3	2	1	0
68. Eğer bir şey istiyorsam onu elde etmek için ne gerekirse yapmalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
69. Yaptığım yanıma kâr kalacağı için ortaya çıkacak kötü sonuçlar hakkında endişelenmeme gerek yok.	4	3	2	1	0
70. Eğer insanlar kendilerini koruyamıyorlarsa, bu onların sorunudur.	4	3	2	1	0
71. Ben çok özel biriyim.	4	3	2	1	0
72. Çok üstün biri olduğum için çok özel muamele ve ayrıcalıkları hak ediyorum.	4	3	2	1	0
73. Diğer insanlara uygulanan kurallara uymak zorunda değilim.	4	3	2	1	0
74. Tanınmak, övülmek ve hayranlık duyulmak çok önemlidir.	4	3	2	1	0
75. Benim mevkiime saygı göstermeyenler cezalandırılmalıdırlar.	4	3	2	1	0
76. Diğer insanlar benim ihtiyaçlarımı gidermelidir.	4	3	2	1	0
77. Diğer insanlar ne kadar özel biri olduğumu fark etmelidirler.	4	3	2	1	0
78. Hak ettiğim saygının gösterilmemesi veya hakkım olanı alamamak katlanılmaz bir durumdur.	4	3	2	1	0
79. Diğer insanlar elde ettikleri övgü veya zenginlikleri hak etmiyorlar.	4	3	2	1	0
80. İnsanların beni eleştirmeye hakları yok.	4	3	2	1	0
81. Hiç kimsenin ihtiyaçları benimkilere engel olmamalıdır.	4	3	2	1	0
82. Çok yetenekli olduğum için mesleğimde ilerlerken insanlar benim yolumdan çekilmelidir.	4	3	2	1	0
83. Beni ancak benim gibi zeki insanlar anlayabilirler.	4	3	2	1	0
84. Büyük şeyler beklemek için haklı nedenlerim var.	4	3	2	1	0
85. Ben ilginç ve heyecan verici bir kişiyim.	4	3	2	1	0

86. Mutlu olabilmek için diğer insanların dikkatini çekmeye ihtiyacım var.	4	3	2	1	0
87. İnsanları eğlendirmedikçe ya da etkilemedikçe bir hiçim.	4	3	2	1	0
88. Başkalarının bana olan ilgilerini sürdürmezsem benden hoşlanmazlar.	4	3	2	1	0
89. İstedığımı almanın yolu, insanları etkilemek ya da eğlendirmektir.	4	3	2	1	0
90. İnsanlar bana karşı çok olumlu karşılık vermiyorlarsa kötüdürler.	4	3	2	1	0
91. İnsanların beni görmezden gelmeleri berbat bir durumdur.	4	3	2	1	0
92. İlgi merkezi olmalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
93. Bir şeyleri düşünerek kendimi rahatsız etmemeli, içimden geldiği gibi davranabilmeliyim.	4	3	2	1	0
94. Eğer insanları eğlendirirsem benim güçsüzlüğümü fark etmezler.	4	3	2	1	0
95. Can sıkıntısına tahammül edemem.	4	3	2	1	0
96. Eğer bir şeyi yapmaktan hoşlandığımı hissedersen, hemen başlamalı ve yapmalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
97. Sadece abartılı davranırsam insanlar bana dikkat eder.	4	3	2	1	0
98. Hisler ve sezgiler, mantıklı düşünme ve planlamaya göre çok daha önemlidir.	4	3	2	1	0
99. Diğer insanların benim için ne düşündüğü önemsizdir.	4	3	2	1	0
100. Benim için başkalarından bağımsız ve özgür olmak önemlidir.	4	3	2	1	0
101. Diğer insanlarla birlikte bir şeyler yapmaktansa kendi başıma yapmaktan daha çok hoşlanırım.	4	3	2	1	0
102. Çoğu durumda yalnız başıma kaldığımda kendimi daha iyi hissedirim.	4	3	2	1	0
103. Ne yapacağıma karar verirken başkalarından etkilenmem.	4	3	2	1	0
104. Diğer insanlarla yakın ilişkiler kurmak benim için önemli değildir.	4	3	2	1	0
105. Kendi değerlerimi ve amaçlarımı kendim belirlerim.	4	3	2	1	0
106. Özel hayatım insanlara yakın olmaktan çok daha fazla önemlidir.	4	3	2	1	0

107. İnsanların ne düşündüğünü önemsemem.	4	3	2	1	0
108. Herhangi birinin yardımı olmaksızın kendi başıma işleri halledebilirim.	4	3	2	1	0
109. Diğer bir insana “bağlanıp” kalmaktansa yalnız olmak daha iyidir.	4	3	2	1	0
110. Diğer insanlara kendimi açmamalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
111. İlişkiye girmemek koşuluyla, diğer insanları kendi amaçlarım için kullanabilirim.	4	3	2	1	0
112. İnsan ilişkileri karışıktır ve özgürlüğe engeldir.	4	3	2	1	0
113. Diğer insanlara güvenemem.	4	3	2	1	0
114. Diğer insanların gizli amaçları vardır.	4	3	2	1	0
115. Eğer dikkat etmezsem diğer insanlar beni kullanmaya ya da yönlendirmeye çalışır.	4	3	2	1	0
116. Her zaman hazırlıklı olmalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0
117. Diğer insanlara kendini açmak güvenilir değildir.	4	3	2	1	0
118. Eğer insanlar dostça davranıyorlarsa, beni kullanmaya ya da sömürmeye çalışıyor olabilirler.	4	3	2	1	0
119. Eğer fırsat verirsem insanlar beni kullanırlar.	4	3	2	1	0
120. Çoğunlukla diğer insanlar dostça değildir.	4	3	2	1	0
121. Diğer insanlar bilerek beni aşağılıyorlar.	4	3	2	1	0
122. Çoğu kez insanlar bilerek beni rahatsız etmek istiyorlar.	4	3	2	1	0
123. Diğer insanların, bana kötü davranıp sonra da çekip gideceklerini düşünmelerine izin verirsem, başımı ciddi belaya sokmuş olurum.	4	3	2	1	0
124. Eğer insanlar benimle ilgili bir şeyler açığa çıkarırlarsa, bunu bana karşı kullanacaklardır.	4	3	2	1	0
125. İnsanlar sıklıkla söylediğinden farklı bir anlamı kasteder.	4	3	2	1	0
126. Yakın olduğum kişi sadakatsiz veya güvenilirmez olabilir.	4	3	2	1	0

APPENDIX M: ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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06 MART 2019

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Prof. Dr. Tülin GENÇÖZ

Danışmanlığını yaptığınız İrem AKINCI'nın "Ebeveynlerde ve Beliren Yetişkinlik Çağındaki Çocuklarındaki Kişilik Bozukluğu Belirtileri: Erken Dönem Yaşantıların ve Ayrışma Bireyleşme Güçlüklerinin Rolü" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve 087-ODTÜ-2019 protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL
Üye

Prof. Dr. Tülin GENÇÖZ
Başkan

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR (4.)
Üye

Prof. Dr. Yeşar KONDAKCI
Üye

Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK
Üye

Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN
Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ali Emre TURGUT
Üye

APPENDIX N: CURRICULUM VITAE

PERSONAL INFORMATION

Surname, Name: Akıncı İrem

Nationality: Turkish (TC)

Date and Place of Birth: 17 March 1990, Ankara

Marital Status: Single

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EDUCATION

Degree	Institution	Year of Graduation
PhD	METU Clinical Psychology	2020
MS	METU Clinical Psychology	2015
BS	METU Psychology	2013
High School	Batıkent Y.D.A Lisesi	2008

WORK EXPERIENCE

Year	Place	Enrollment
2017-present	Ankara University Department of Psychology	Research Assistant
2014- 2017	METU Department of Psychology	Research Assistant
2015-2018	METU AYNA Clinical Psychology Unit, Ankara	Intern Clinical Psychologist
2011 July – 2011 August	Hacettepe University, Cognitive Psychology Application Laboratory	Intern / Trainee

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

Advanced English

PUBLICATIONS

1. Bozo, Ö., Akıncı, İ., & Akyüz, C. (2017). The psychometric properties of Cancer Behavior Inventory as a predictor of quality of life in Turkish cancer patients. *Current Psychology*, 38(1), 229-238.

SCHOLARSIPS

Achievement Grant for Graduate Studies (2013– 2020) The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TÜBİTAK)

HOBBIES

Music, Dance (Lindy Hop), Movies, Sports

APPENDIX O: TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKE ÖZET

GİRİŞ

Kişilik Bozukluğu Özelliklerinin Kavramsallaştırılması

Kişilik, bireylerin işleyişinin farklı yönlerini (bilişsel, etkileşimsel ve biyolojik) düzenleyen bir yapı olarak düşünülebilir (Millon, Grossman, Millon, Meagher ve Ramnath, 2004). Bu anlamda kişilik, birbiri ile devamlı etkileşim halinde olan birden fazla parçadan oluşur. Kişilik bozuklukları (KB) bu etkileşimli parçalarda meydana gelen benimsenmiş işlev bozukluklarını kapsar (Millon ve ark., 2004). “Ruhsal Bozuklukların Tanısal ve Sayımsal El Kitabı” (DSM) yirminci yüzyılın ikinci yarısından itibaren kişilik bozukluklarının tanımlanmasında belirleyici olmuştur. DSM’in kişilik bozuklukları tanımında kuramsal bir çerçevenin eksikliği, kriterlerin betimleyici olması gibi belirli sınırlılıklar mevcuttur (Farmer, 2000; Krueger, Hopwood, Wright, ve Markon, 2014). Bu sınırlılıkları gidermek amacıyla DSM’in son basımında kategorik yaklaşıma alternatif olarak boyutsal bir yaklaşım önerilmiştir (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2013). Bu yaklaşım, tüm KB’lerin ortak ve ayırt edici özelliklerine odaklanmış (Pincus, Cain, ve Halberstadt, 2020) ve kişinin kendi benliği ve diğerleri ile ilişkilenmesindeki işleyiş, kişiliğin iki temel alanı olarak belirlenmiştir (Krueger ve ark., 2014).

Bu yaklaşım her ne kadar DSM sistemine yakın zamanda dahil edilmişse de birçok farklı kuram (örn., bilişsel, psikodinamik) kişiliğin anlaşılmasında benlik işleyişinin ve diğerleri ile etkileşimin önemini daha önceden vurgulamıştır (Clarkin, 2006). Bilişsel yaklaşım erken dönemde oluşan ve kişilerin çevresel uyaranlara tepkisinde etkili olan şemaların kişilik işleyişinde rol oynadığını belirtir (Beck, 2015). Kişilerin kendilerini, diğerlerini ve dış dünya ile ilgili geliştirdikleri temel inançlar bu şemaların yapı taşıdır (Beck, 2015). Kişilik sorunları ya da bozuklukları söz konusu olduğunda bu inançlar katı ve sınırları belirgin bir biçimde yapılandırılır (Beck, 1998). Bu inançlar sadece bilinç düzeyinde kalmaz, kişilerin

davranışlarını, duygularını ve motivasyonlarını da yönetir (Beck, 1998). Bilişsel teoriye göre, farklı KB'ler benzersiz ve gözlemlenebilir özelliklerini tanımlayan farklı temel inançlar tarafından tanımlanır (Beck, 2015). Kişilerin “kendileri” ve “diğerleri” ile ilgili bakış açılarına dayanarak kişilik bozuklukları konusunda daha sade bir yaklaşımın ortaya çıkabileceği öne sürülmüştür (Beck, 2015). Bununla bağlantılı olarak, Akyunus ve Gençöz (2017) benzer “benlik” ve “diğerleri” temsillerini barındıran farklı KB'lere ait inançları bir arada sınıflandırdıkları üç üst düzey KB inancı tanımlamıştır. Bunlar, “küçümseyen” (deprecating), “yücelten” (inflated) ve de “çelişik” (ambivalent) inançlar olarak adlandırılmıştır. “Küçümseyen” kişilik, benliğin diğerlerine göre daha olumsuz bir bakış açısıyla değerlendirildiği, diğerlerinin ise daha güçlü, yetenekli ve nitelikli olarak görüldüğü, kaçınmacı, bağımlı ve sınır-durum KB'lere ilişkin inançları içerir. “Yücelten” kişilik ise benliğin yüceltildiği veya abartıldığı, diğerlerinin ise küçük görüldüğü, eleştirildiği, anti-sosyal, narsistik, obsesif-kompulsif ve histrionik KB'lere ait inançları kapsar. “Çelişik” kişilik ise benliğe karşı görüşün değişkenlik gösterdiği, başkalarının ise kötücül, tehlikeli ve müdahaleci olarak görüldüğü pasif-agresif, paranoid ve şizoid KB'lere ait inançları barındırır. Bu inanç kategorilerinin olumlu ve olumsuz duygulanım ve de kişiler arası problemler bakımından farklılık göstermesi, bu sınıflamanın geçerliğini destekler niteliktedir (Akyunus ve Gençöz, 2017; Akyunus ve Gençöz, 2020). Dolayısıyla, bu çalışmada kişilik bozukluğu özelliklerinin kavramsallaştırılmasında bu yöntem kullanılmıştır. Ancak bu köklü inançlara daha etkili şekilde müdahale edebilmek için bunların altında yatan gelişimsel dinamiklerin ve bu dinamiklere şekil veren erken dönem aile ilişkilerinin anlaşılması önemlidir.

Ayrışma-Bireyleşme Kuramı

Mahler, Pine ve Bergman (1975) tarafından geliştirilen kuram, kişilerin ileriki yaşamlarında özerk bir işleyişe sahip olabilmeleri için yaşamın ilk yıllarında birinci bakım verenlerinden ayrılmış ve kısmen bireyselleşmiş bir benlik anlayışı kazanmaları gerektiğini öne sürmüştür. Kişi bu anlayışı, bebeklikten ilk çocukluk

yıllarına kadar süren belirli kritik evrelerden geçerek ve bakım verenlerin evreye özgü uygun ebeveynlik tarzı ile edinir. İlk evre beşinci ve dokuzuncu aylar arasını kapsayan farklılaşma evresi olarak adlandırılır (Mahler ve La Perriere, 1965). Bu dönemde, bebek anneyi fiziksel olarak kendi bedensel pozisyonunu ayarlayarak keşfetmeye başlar (Kramer ve Akhtar, 1988; Mahler ve ark., 1975). Bu onun anneyi ayırt etmesine yardımcı olur. Ayrıca, bu dönemde yabancılara karşı tepkiler ilk kez görülür (Mahler ve ark., 1975). Anneye karşı beklentileri güvene dayalı olan bebeklerin yabancılara daha meraklı ve ilgili yaklaştıkları, bu güvenin ortalamanın altında olduğu bebeklerde ise kaygı ve endişenin belirdiği gözlenmiştir (Mahler ve ark., 1975). Bu dönemde annenin davranışlarını, bebeğin gelişen becerilerine göre ayarlamasının önemli olduğu vurgulanır (Mahler ve ark., 1975). Farklılaşmayı takip eden evre, alıştırma olarak adlandırılır ve on ile on beşinci aylar arasını kapsar (Mahler ve La Perriere, 1965). Bu evrenin en belirgin özelliği çocuğun gelişen fiziksel becerilerine ve genişleyen nesne dünyasına yaptığı yatırımdır (Mahler ve La Perriere, 1965). Çocuk büyük ölçüde kendi uğraşlarına odaklanır ve zaman zaman annenin nerede olduğuna ve ne yaptığına dair farkındalığı azalır (Mahler ve La Perriere, 1965). Bu evrede annenin duygusal desteği önemlidir çünkü çocuk aktivitelerinden yorulduğunda, annesi ile fiziksel temasta bulunarak kaybettiği enerjiyi geri kazanır ve dış dünya ile olan meşguliyetine geri dönebilir (Mahler ve La Perriere, 1965; Mahler ve ark., 1975). Bu evrede babaların çocukları fiziksel olarak teşvik eden tutumları onların dış dünyaya olan ilgisinin artmasında ayrıca güvenli bir alan oluşturur (Applegate, 1987). Ayrışma-bireyleşme sürecinin üçüncü evresi, on dördüncü ve yirmi dördüncü ayları kapsayan yeniden yakınlaşma evresidir (Mahler & La Perriere, 1965). Bu evrenin ilk zamanlarında çocuk dikkatini tekrar anneye çevirir ve keşiflerini onunla paylaşmak ister (Mahler ve ark., 1975). Çocuğun gelişen bilişsel becerileri anne ile olan farklılığın daha iyi anlaşılmasına olanak verir ve bu da çocuğun zayıf, huzursuz, öfkeli ve memnuniyetsiz hissettiği “yeniden yakınlaşma krizini” başlatır (Mahler ve La Perriere, 1965; Mahler ve ark., 1975). Çocuk annenin yokluğu ile bölme mekanizmasını kullanarak baş etmeye çalışır (Mahler ve ark., 1975). Bu evre ilerledikçe çocuğun her şeye kadir inançlarından vazgeçmesi, istek ve

fantezilerini sembolik oyunlarla yerine getirmesi ve taleplerini kelimelerle ifade etmesi beklenir (Mahler ve ark., 1975). Çocuğun bunları başarabilmesi için annenin sabırla yaklaşması ve çocuğun özerk becerilerini teşvik etmesi önemlidir (Mahler ve ark., 1975). Daha az karmaşık figürler olan babalar da çocuğun yaşadığı karmaşayı çözmesinde ayrı bir öneme sahiptir (Applegate, 1987). Ayrışma-bireyleşme sürecinin son aşaması, çoğunlukla yirminci ile otuz altıncı aylar arasında gerçekleşen, ancak çocuklar farklı gelişimsel görevlerle karşı karşıya kaldıkça gelişimi devam eden "nesne sabitliği" olarak adlandırılır (Mahler ve ark., 1975). Birincil bakım verenlerin olumlu özellikleriyle giderek gelişen taklitler, içselleştirmeler ve özdeşleşmeler sayesinde çocuklar, sıkıntılı zamanlarda kendilerini rahatlatmalarına yardımcı olan olumlu ve güvenilir bir anne imajı oluşturmayı ve içselleştirmeyi başarırlar (McDevitt, 1979). Bunları başarmakta güçlük çeken çocuklarda ayrışma-bireyleşme sürecinin son evresi bölme mekanizmasının baskınlığını, öfke patlamalarını ve annenin yokluğuna verilen hüsrana uğramış tepkileri içerir (McDevitt, 1979).

Ayrışma-Bireyleşme Güçlükleri ve Kişilik Bozuklukları

Mahler'e (1971) göre, ayrışma-bireyleşme aşamaları, özellikle yakınlaşma aşaması ile ilgili iç çatışmalar çözülmediğinde, bu çatışmalar sonraki gelişim aşamalarını karmaşıklaştırarak ve kişinin yetişkinlikteki kişilik işleyişine etki eder. Yetişkinlikte bu çatışmalar ayrışmaya yönelik huzursuz tepkiler, benliği ve diğerlerini iyi ve kötü özellikleri ile bütünleştirmede güçlük, benliğin ve başkalarının sınırlarını ayırtmada güçlük ve bu konulardan doğan ilişki problemleri olarak kendini gösterir (Christenson ve Wilson, 1985; Mahler, 1971). Geçmişte yürütülen çalışmalar bu güçlüklerin çoğunun sınır-durum kişilikte görüldüğünü ortaya koymuştur (Beeney ve ark., 2016; Coonerty, 1986). Benliğin diğerlerine göre daha değersiz algılandığı kaçınmacı ve bağımlı kişilik bozukluklarında ise ayrışma-bireyleşme dinamikleri ampirik olarak çok çalışılmamış olsa da iki kişilik türünde de belirgin ayrışma kaygısının yaşamın ilk dönemlerinde görüldüğü bulunmuştur (Loas ve ark., 2002; Silove, Marnane, Wagner ve Manicavasagar, 2010). Benliğin yüceltildiği KB'lerde ortak ayrışma-bireyleşme teması benliğin olumsuz yönleri ile

ilgili tahammülsüzlüktür (Bornstein, 1998; Perry ve ark., 2013). Bölme savunmasının, narsistik ve anti-sosyal KB özellikleri gösteren kişilerde diğer savunma mekanizmalarının da yardımıyla saf bir olumlu benlik imgesi sürdürmeye hizmet ettiği belirtilmiştir (Perry ve ark., 2013). Bu kişilik bozukluklarına sahip bireylerin yaşadığı sınır sorunları ile ilgili olarak ise literatürde çelişkili bulgular bulunmaktadır (Beeney ve ark., 2016; Miller, Atlas ve Arsenio, 1993). Ayrışma-bireyleşme problemleri ayrıca benlik ve diğerlerinin temsillerini daha çelişik şekilde inşa eden bireylerde de (örn., şizoid ve paranoid kişilik eğilimleri olan bireyler) gözlenmiştir (Akhtar, 1987; Akhtar, 1990). Vaka çalışmaları, şizoid ve paranoid özellikler gösteren bireylerin, çoğunlukla başkalarını güvenilmez bir konuma koyan yansıtma savunmasının da eşlik ettiği şiddetli bir bölmelemeye başvurduklarını göstermiştir (Rosa, 2015). Bu çalışmalar, farklı KB veya KB özellikleri sergileyen bireylerin benzer ayrışma-bireyleşme güçlüklerini oldukça farklı şekillerde yaşadıklarını göstermiştir. Bu durumu daha iyi anlayabilmek için ayrışma bireyleşme sürecine eşlik eden duyguların nasıl ele alındığını göz önünde bulundurmak önemli olacaktır.

Utanç ve Öfke Eğilimi ve Kişilik Bozuklukları

Kökleri erken dönemlere dayanan duygular olan utanç ve öfke, bireylerin belirli gelişimsel zorluklarla baş etmelerine ve sonraki aşamalara ilerlemelerine yardımcı olur (Lemerise ve Dodge, 2008; Mills, 2005). Utanç duygusunun ilk belirtileri çocuğun yürümeye başladığı iki yaş civarında ortaya çıkar (Mills, 2005). Nesne ilişkileri bakış açısında göre alıştırma evresinde kendini belli etmeye başlayan, anne ile artan duygusal uyumsuzluk ve anne ile birlikteliğin bozulduğuna dair artan farkındalık çocukta utanç hissine benzer duygusal bir durum ortaya çıkarır (Schore, 1991). Bu duygusal durum çocuğun utanç duyma kapasitesini oluşturması için gelişimsel bir öneme sahiptir (Schore, 1991). Çocuğun bu gelişen utanç yaşama kapasitesi, anne ile olan ayrılığı anlamasını sağlar ve yakınlaşma evresinde ayrılığın giderek daha fazla fark edilmesine bir yanıt olarak ortaya çıkan aşırı öfkeyi dengeler (Broucek, 1982). Güvenilir ve düzenleyici bir ebeveyn veya bakım verenin

yokluğunda çok fazla utanç veya çok fazla öfke duygusuna maruz kalmak, ebeveyn figürleriyle özdeşleşmeyi engelleyerek ayrışma-bireyleşme sürecini güçleştirir (Broucek, 1982). Utanç duygusunun düzenlenmemesi ve de tekrarlayan şekillerde fazlaca utanç hissine maruz kalmak, çocuğun anne ile tekrardan sembiyotik şekilde ilişkilene girişimleri ve utancın benliğin bir parçası haline gelmesi ile ilişkilidir (Broucek, 1980). Benzer şekilde, aşırı doz öfke hissi, çocuğun annenin yokluğunda sakin bir zihinsel durum sürdürmesine yardımcı olan "iyi" bir ötekini içselleştirmesini engeller (Winnicott, 1958).

Duygusal-değişkenlik kişilik özelliğinin bir yönü olarak öfke eğilimi, psikolojik sorunlarla ilişkili olarak geniş çapta incelenmiştir ve KB'lerin ortak bir özelliği olarak bulunmuştur (Howells, 2009). Bununla birlikte, KB'ler utanç duygusu açısından benzer özellikler göstermez (Schoenleber ve Berenbaum, 2012). Utanç eğilimi, sınır-durum kişilik bozukluğunda hem örtük hem de açık düzeylerde var olan belirgin bir özelliktir (Rüsch et al., 2007). Sınır-durum kişilik özelliklerine sahip bireylerin olumsuz benlik algılarının şekillenmesinde önemli bir faktördür (Winter, Bohus ve Lis, 2017). Utanç eğilimi, bağımlı ve çekingen kişilik bozukluklarının da gözlemlenebilir özellikleri arasındadır (Schoenleber ve Berenbaum, 2010). Utanç duygusunun “yücelten” ve “çelişik” inançları içeren KB'ler ile ilişkisi bu bozukluklarda utanç duygusuna karşı gelişen önleyici ve dikkat dağıtıcı baş etme şekillerinden dolayı daha karmaşık bir yapıya sahiptir (Schoenleber ve Berenbaum, 2012). Literatürde, narsistik ve anti-sosyal kişilik özelliklerini taşıyan bireylerin utançla ilişkisine dair çelişkili bulgular vardır (Ritter ve ark., 2012; Schoenleber ve Berenbaum, 2012). Şizoid ve paranoid kişilik özelliklerinin utanç ile ilişkisi konusunda ise literatürde bulunan çalışmalar sınırlıdır, ancak bu kişilik özelliklerine sahip kişilerin utanç duygusuna erken dönemde travmatik bir şekilde maruz kalmış olabileceği öne sürülmüştür (Matens, 2010; Schoenleber ve Berenbaum, 2012). Özetlemek gerekirse, utanç eğilimi, benlik ve diğerleri ile ilgili temsillerin nasıl kurulduğunu anlamak için önemli bir faktör gibi durmaktadır.

Ebeveynlere Dair Erken Dönem Yaşantılar ve Kişilik Bozuklukları

Erken Dönem Algılanan Ebeveynlik Biçimleri

Önceki bölümlerde bahsedildiği gibi erken dönemde ebeveynlerden nasıl bir bakım alındığı bireylerin kişilik oluşum süreçlerini şekillendirmede önemlidir. Benlik ve diğerlerine dair temsillerin ebeveynlerle veya bakım verenlerle etkileşimler yoluyla oluştuğu öne sürülmüştür (Otani, Suzuki, Matsumoto, & Shirata, 2018). Ebeveynlerin kontrol edici / koruyucu ve ilgisiz veya soğuk davranışlarının birlikte görüldüğü ebeveynlik, "şefkatsiz kontrol" olarak adlandırılır (Parker ve ark., 1979). Araştırmalar, bu tür ebeveynlik tarzını çocuklukta deneyimlemenin, yetişkinlikte benliğe olumsuz özellikler atfetmekle ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir (Otani ve ark., 2014; Otani ve ark., 2018). Alanyazındaki çalışmalar da bu bulguyu destekler nitelikte müdahaleci, aşırı kontrol edici/koruyucu ve tepkisiz/reddeden ebeveynlik uygulamalarının bir birleşiminin, bağımlı, kaçınmacı ve sınır-durum KB'ler ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir (Head, Baker ve Williamson, 1991; Stravynaski, Elie ve Franche, 1989; Zielinski, Borders ve Giancola, 2015). Literatür, "yücelten" inançları barındıran narsistik, histrionik, anti-sosyal ve obsesif-kompulsif KB'lerde ise çoğunlukla erken dönemde deneyimlenen yetersiz ve çelişkili ebeveyn davranışlarının etkili olduğuna işaret eder (Cater, Zeigler-Hill ve Vonk, 2011; Nordahl ve Stiles, 1997; Schorr ve ark., 2020). Çalışmalar aynı zamanda şizoid, paranoid ve pasif-agresif kişilik bozukluklarında görülen benliğin çelişkili ve başkalarının güvenilmez algılanmasında da ebeveynlik tecrübesinin rolüne dikkat çeker (Lyddon ve Sherry, 2001). Şizoid KB'de erken dönem anne-çocuk ilişkisinin çelişik olduğu vurgulanmıştır (Akhtar, 1987). Guntrip'e (1969) göre, şizoid kişilikte anne ile ayrılıklar ve birleşmeler bebeklik ve erken çocukluk döneminde sert bir şekilde yaşanmıştır (aktaran Matens, 2010). Ebeveynlerin erken dönemdeki duygusal ilgisizliği ve bariz aşağılayıcı tutumları şizoid ve paranoid kişilik bozukluğu belirtilerini yordamıştır (Johnson ve ark., 2006). Sonuç olarak bu çalışmalar, çocukluk dönemlerinde maruz kalınan farklı ebeveyn davranış örüntülerinin

KB'lerde görülen farklı benlik ve diğeri yapılanmalarında etkili olabileceğine işaret eder.

Erken Dönemde Ebeveynlerle Rollerin Tersine Dönmesi

Rollerin tersine dönmesi ebeveynin yetişkin rolünden bilinçli veya bilinçdışı olarak ayrıldığı ve çocuğun bir yetişkin gibi davranmaya başladığı, ebeveyn ve çocuk arasındaki ters ve uygunsuz rolleri ifade eder (Macfie, Mcelwain, Houts ve Cox, 2005). Böyle bir ilişkide çocuk, bakım veren, yatıştırıcı, sırdaş veya arabulucu olmak gibi çeşitli yetişkin rollerini üstlenebilir. Kapsamlı gözden geçirme çalışmasında, Macfie ve ark. (2015) farklı tersine dönmüş rolleri (ebeveyn olarak çocuk, arkadaş olarak çocuk, partner olarak çocuk) anlatmak için geniş ve kapsayıcı olan "rol karmaşası" veya "rollerin tersine dönmesi" terimlerini kullanmayı önermiştir.

Boylamsal ve gözleme dayalı çalışmalar rol karmaşasının çoğunlukla ebeveyn tarafından başlatıldığını ve çocuk tarafından bu davranışlara erken çocukluk döneminde karşılık verildiğini göstermiştir (Bureau, Easlerbrooks ve Lyons-Ruth, 2009). Bebeklik dönemindeki duyarsız veya yetersiz anne davranışları, çocukların sekiz yaşında annelere bakım veren davranışlarını yordamıştır (Bureau ve ark., 2009). Çocuğun sevgisini açıkça talep etme gibi müdahaleci anne davranışlarının da çocuklarda ebeveynin davranışlarını kontrol etme ile ilişkili olduğu, ancak bunun daha çok cezalandırıcı bir şekilde (örneğin ebeveyne hükmetme veya ebeveyne komut verme) olduğu belirtilmiştir (Solomon ve George, 2008). Bağlanma bakış açısı, çocuğun rol karmaşık davranışlara girerek ve odağı ebeveyne çevirerek, kendini güvende hissettiğini ve bir dereceye kadar ebeveynin dikkatini kazandığını ve onun reddedici, soğuk tavrından kaçındığını; ancak bunun, çocukta yetişkinliğe kadar uzayan çocuk için önemli gelişimsel sorunlara neden olabileceğini belirtir (Solomon ve diğerleri, 1995).

Ebeveynlerle yaşamın erken dönemlerindeki rol karmaşası, çocuğun özerkliğinin gelişmesini engeller (Jacobwitz, Morgan, Kretchmar ve Morgan, 1991). Enerjisinin çoğu ebeveynin duygusal durumuyla meşgul olduğu için çocuk, yeteneklerini geliştirmeye ve çevreyi keşfetmeye odaklanmakta güçlük çeker

(Macfie vd., 2015). Karşılanmayan bu gelişimsel ihtiyaçlar, umutsuzca yetişkinlikte karşılanmaya çalışılır (Mayseless ve Scharf, 2009). Rollerin tersine dönme deneyimi ve kişilik problemleri arasındaki ilişki ile ilgili sınırlı sayıda araştırma vardır. Ebeveynleri ile bakım veren konumda etkileşim kuran çocukların, farklı bölme stratejileri kullanarak, kendilikle ilgili olumsuz deneyimleri içe aktararak veya yansıtarak ve farklı ebeveynlik davranışlarına maruz kalarak, mazoşistlik ya da narsistik kişilik özellikleri gösterebileceği belirtilmiştir (Jones ve Wells, 1996; Wells ve Jones, 1998). Daha genel bir yapı olarak tanımlanan rol karmaşası ise genellikle sınır-durum kişilik bozukluğu özelinde çalışılmıştır (Lyons-Ruth, Bureau, Holmes, Easterbrooks ve Brooks, 2013). Hatta, sınır-durum kişilik bozukluğunun bu deneyimden kaynaklandığı ile ilgili görüş de mevcuttur (Macfie ve ark., 2015). Ancak bunun daha iyi anlaşılması için çalışmaların rol karmaşasının diğer kişilik bozuklukları ile ilişkisini de göz önünde bulundurarak daha kapsamlı bir şekilde yürütülmesi önemlidir.

Ebeveynler ve Çocuklarındaki Kişilik Bozuklukları

Ebeveynlerdeki kişilik problemleri, bireylerde kişilik bozukluğu özelliklerinin oluşumunda rol oynayan bir diğer önemli ailesel faktördür. Ebeveynlerdeki KB özelliklerinin, çocuklarda benzer kişilik özelliklerinin ortaya çıkması ile ilişkili olduğu gösterilmiştir (Blazei, Iacono ve Krueger, 2006). Ebeveynlerin ve yetişkin çocuklarının KB özelliklerini karşılaştıran çalışmalar literatürde sınırlı sayıdadır ve bu çalışmalar çoğunlukla sınır-durum ve anti-sosyal KB özelliklerine odaklanmıştır (Auty, Farrington, ve Coid; Barnow ve ark., 2013). Bu araştırmalar hem annelerin hem de babaların KB özelliklerinin sonraki nesillerde de devam ettiğini gösterir. Ancak, bu konuda aktarımın nasıl gerçekleştiği, anne ve babada takip ettiği yollar ve hem ebeveynin hem de çocuğun cinsiyetinin etkisi gibi aydınlatılmayı bekleyen birçok soru vardır. Genetik yatkınlık bu aktarımda rol oynayan önemli bir faktör olsa da çevresel etkilerin rolü de yadsınamaz (Blazei ve ark., 2006; Cadoret, Troughton, Bagford, & Woodworth, 1990). Ebeveynlik davranışları ebeveyndeki KB özelliklerinden etkilenen önemli bir çevresel faktördür (Dutton, Denny-Keys ve

Sells, 2011). Kişilik bozukluğu olan ebeveynlerde gözlemlenen olumsuz ebeveynlik davranışları, benzer kişilik özelliklerinin bir sonraki nesle aktarılmasının olası yolları olarak önerilmektedir (Dogan, Conger, Kim ve Masyn, 2007). Örneğin, Reinelt ve arkadaşları (2014) annelerdeki sınır durum kişilik bozukluğu özelliklerinin, annedeki koruyucu ve reddedici tutum ile ilişkili olduğunu, bu ebeveynlik davranışlarının da çocukta genç yetişkinlik dönemindeki sınır durum kişilik bozukluğu özelliklerini yordadığını göstermiştir. Bu alanda yapılan çalışmaların önemli bir sınırlılığı çoğunlukla annenin ebeveynlik davranışlarına odaklanması ve çocuğun cinsiyetinin çoğunlukla dikkate alınmamasıdır. Ancak son yıllarda yapılan çalışmalar ebeveynlerdeki psikopatolojilerin kız ve erkek çocukları üzerinde farklı ebeveyn davranışları ile etkili olabileceğine işaret eder (Franz ve McKinney, 2018; Verona ve Sachs-Ericsson, 2005). Bu nedenle, bu sınırlılıkları göz önüne alarak daha kapsamlı çalışmalar yapmak önemlidir.

Ebeveynlerdeki kişilik sorunları ayrıca, hem bu sorunlara özgü özellikler (örn., duygusal değişkenlik, benlik karmaşası) hem de eşlik eden olumsuz ebeveynlik davranışlar ile ebeveyn ve çocuk arasındaki rol karmaşık bir ilişki şeklini tetikler (Macfie, 2009). Sınır durum kişilik bozuklukları olan annelerle yapılan araştırmalar, klinik olmayan anne-çocuk çiftleri ile kıyaslandığında, bu anneler ve çocuklarının rolleri konusunda kafalarının karışık olduğunu ortaya koymuştur (Macfie ve Swan, 2009; Macfie, Kurdziel, Mahan ve Kors, 2017). Annedeki sınır durum bozukluğun ve birlikte meydana gelen çocukların rollerinden ayrılmasının, çocuklarda kendilik ve başkalarına ilişkin çarpık bir algıya yol açacağı ve bunun da çocukların yetişkinlikte karşılaşılabileceği sınır durum kişilik işleyişine katkıda bulunabileceği düşünülmüştür (Macfie ve Kurdziel, 2019). Ancak, bu varsayımı henüz deneysel olarak test eden herhangi bir çalışma bulunmamaktadır.

Çalışmanın Amaçları

Yukarıda belirtilen literatür bulguları göz önüne alındığında bu çalışmanın temel amacı genç yetişkinlerde KB'ler ile ilişkili farklı "benlik" ve "diğeri" algılarının/inançlarının oluşmasında ve sürdürülmesinde etkili psikodinamik

(ayrışma-bireyleşme güçlükleri; duygusal yatkınlıklar) ve ilişkili ailesel faktörleri (erken dönem ebeveynlik yaşantıları, ebeveynlerdeki KB inançları) araştırmaktır. Bu amaçla, ilk olarak, genç yetişkinler tarafından rapor edilen ebeveyn yetiştirme biçimleri (“sıcaklık”, “aşırı koruma/kontrol”, ve “reddetme”), erken dönem rol karmaşası deneyimleri, duygusal yatkınlıklar (utanç ve öfke), ayrışma-bireyleşme güçlükleri (bölme savunması, farklılaşma ve ilişki zorlukları) ve KB özellikleri arasındaki ilişkiler araştırılacaktır. Bunun ardından anne ve babalardaki KB inançları (“küçümseyen”, “yücelten”, “çelişik”) ve onların kız ve erkek çocukları tarafından belirtilen yetiştirilme biçimleri, rol karmaşası deneyimleri ve KB inançları arasındaki ilişkiler incelenecektir. Son olarak ise ebeveynlerdeki KB inançlarının çocuklara aktarılmasında çocuğun ebeveynleri ile erken dönemdeki deneyimlerinin (ebeveynin yetiştirme biçimleri ve rol karmaşası) aracılık rolü bir dizi aracı analiz ile test edilecektir.

YÖNTEM

Katılımcılar

Çalışmanın örneklemini yaşları 18 ile 25 aralığında değişen ($Ort. = 20.51$, $SS = 1.75$) 535 genç yetişkin ve anne-babaları oluşturmuştur. Genç yetişkinlerin 381’i kadın, 154’ü ise erkektir. Katılımcılar hakkındaki demografik bilgiler Tablo 3.1, 3.2 ve de 3.3’te detaylı olarak gösterilmiştir.

Ölçüm Araçları

Çalışmada Algılanan Ebeveyn Tutumları-Kısa Formu genç yetişkinlerin çocukluklarında anne-babadan algıladıkları ebeveynlik biçimlerini ölçmek için; Ebeveynlerle İlişki Ölçeği genç yetişkinlerin çocukluk ve ergenlik dönemindeki anne ve babaları ile olan rol karmaşası deneyimini ölçmek için, Sürekli Utanç ve Suçluluk Ölçeği genç yetişkinlerin utanç yatkınlıklarını ölçmek için, Sürekli-Durumsal Öfke Ölçeği genç yetişkinlerin öfke yatkınlıklarını ölçmek için, Ayrışma-Bireyleşme Envanteri genç yetişkinlerin ayrışma-bireyleşme güçlüklerini ölçmek için ve Kişilik

İnançları Ölçeği hem genç yetişkinlerin hem de anne-babalarının kişilik bozukluğu inançlarını ölçmek amacı ile kullanılmıştır. İlk olarak öncül bir çalışma yürütülerek rol karmaşasını ölçen Ebeveynlerle İlişki Ölçeğinin psikometrik özellikleri test edilmiş ve güvenilirlik ve geçerlik bulguları bu ölçeğin Türk kültüründe uygulanabileceğine işaret etmiştir.

İşlem

İlk olarak Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan çalışma ile ilgili etik izin alınmıştır. Veriler, Ankara'daki farklı üniversitelerden (örneğin, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Ankara Üniversitesi) toplanmıştır. Genç yetişkinler derslerinde çalışma hakkında bilgilendirilmiş ve onlardan ailelerini bilgilendirmeleri ve çalışmaya davet etmeleri istenmiştir. Ayrıca, çalışmaya uygun olmayan genç yetişkinlere, bir arkadaş/akraba ve anne-babasını çalışmaya davet edebilecekleri bilgisi verilmiştir. Anketler, bu çalışmaya katılmayı kabul eden genç yetişkinlere ve ebeveynlerine uygulanmıştır. Anketler çocukları aracılığıyla ebeveynlere zarf içinde dağıtılmış ve onlarla kapalı bir şekilde geri gönderilmiştir. Tüm katılımcılardan bilgilendirilmiş onam alınmıştır. Anketleri doldurmak yaklaşık olarak 40-45 dakika sürmüştür.

İstatistiksel Analizler

İlk olarak veri, SPSS 20.0 programı kullanılarak hatalı veri girişi, kayıp veri ve uç değerler açısından gözden geçirilmiştir. Demografik değişkenlerin çalışmadaki değişkenler üzerindeki farklılıklarını test etmek amacı ile Çoklu Varyans Analizleri yürütülmüştür. Genç yetişkinlerin beyan ettiği değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiler regresyon analizleri kullanılarak araştırılmıştır. Aracı analizler ise Hayes (2018) tarafından önerilen ve paralel-seri aracılık analizlerine izin veren Model 80 kullanılarak test edilmiştir.

BULGULAR VE TARTIŞMA

Genç yetişkinlerin beyan ettiği değişkenler arasındaki etkileşimi anlamak amacıyla anne baba ile rol karmaşası, duygusal yatkinlikler (utanç ve öfke), ayrışma-bireyleşme güçlükleri (bölme savunması, farklılaşma ve ilişki güçlükleri) ve kişilik bozukluğu inançları (küçümseyen, yücelten, çelişik) bağımlı değişken olacak şekilde dört set hiyerarşik çoklu regresyon analizleri yürütülmüştür. Varyans analizleri çalışmanın değişkenlerinin yaş ve cinsiyet bakımından farklılık gösterdiğini işaret ettiği için regresyon analizlerinin ilk adımında yaş ve cinsiyet kontrol değişkenleri olarak tanımlanmıştır. Regresyon analizlerinden sonra anne-babaların kişilik inançları ve genç yetişkinler tarafından beyan edilen ebeveynlik tutumları, rol karmaşası ve kişilik inançları arasındaki ilişkiler kız ve erkek çocuklar için ayrı ayrı korelasyon analizleri ile incelenmiştir. Korelasyonların sonucuna dayanarak aracılık analizleri anne-kız çocuk ve baba-erkek çocuk çiftleri arasında test edilmiştir.

Hiyerarşik Çoklu Regresyon Analizleri

Regresyon analizlerinin ilk seti anne ve baba ile rol karmaşası değişkenleri ile ayrı ayrı yürütülmüştür. Kontrol değişkenlerinden sonra ikinci adımda anne ve babadan algılanan ebeveynlik biçimleri regresyon eşitliğine tanımlanmıştır. Sonuçlar kadın katılımcıların anne ile daha fazla rol karmaşası raporladığını ($\beta = -.14, t [533] = -3.23, p < .01$); yaşları daha genç olan katılımcıların ise hem anne ($\beta = -.09, t [532] = -2.02, p < .05$) hem baba ($\beta = -.09, t [533] = -2.15, p < .05$) ile daha çok rol karmaşası yaşadığını göstermiştir. Ebeveynlik biçimleri açısından, anne tarafından aşırı koruma/kontrol ($\beta = .33, t [531] = 8.03, p < .001$), baba tarafından eleştirilme/reddedilme ($\beta = .19, t [530] = 4.48, p < .001$), anne tarafından sıcaklık ($\beta = .12, t [529] = 2.96, p < .01$) ve baba tarafından soğukluk ($\beta = -.18, t [528] = -3.17, p < .01$) algılama anne ile rol karmaşası yaşama deneyimi; baba tarafından aşırı koruma/kontrol ($\beta = .30, t [532] = 7.23, p < .001$), anne tarafından eleştirilme/reddedilme ($\beta = .09, t [531] = 2.12, p < .05$) ve baba tarafından sıcaklık algılama ($\beta = .13, t [530] = 2.96, p < .01$) baba ile rol karmaşası yaşama deneyimi ile

ilişkili bulunmuştur. Bu bulgular her iki ebeveynin de rol karmaşası deneyimine katkıda bulunduğu ailesel bir örüntüyü işaret eder. Temelini aile sistemleri teorisinden alan daha önceki araştırmalar, rol karmaşasının çoğunlukla aile üyeleri arasındaki sınırların belirsizleştiği ve iç içe geçtiği ailelerde meydana geldiğini ileri sürmüştür (Jacobvitz, Hazen, Curran ve Hitchens, 2004). Aşırı koruyucu/kontrol edici ebeveynlik tarzı, çocuğu ayrı bir psikolojik varlık olarak görmezden geldiğinden, sınır karmaşasının başlatıcılarından biri olarak tanımlanmıştır (Jacobvitz, Morgan, Kretchmar ve Morgan, 1991). Bu nedenle, aşırı korumacı ebeveynler, çocuklarının rol karmaşık davranışlarını teşvik edebilir. Dahası, aynı ebeveynin algılanan yakınlığı ve sıcaklığının yanı sıra diğer ebeveynin düşmanca, soğuk ve yargılayıcı tutumları, ebeveyn-çocuk ikilisinde bu rol karmaşık süreci güçlendiriyor görünmektedir.

Regresyonun ikinci seti bağımlı değişkenler utanç ve öfke yatkınlığı olmak üzere yürütülmüştür. Demografik değişkenler kontrol edildikten sonra, anne ($\beta = .17$, $t [532] = 3.02$, $p < .01$) ve babadan ($\beta = .30$, $t [533] = 7.38$, $p < .001$) algılanan reddedici davranışlar ve babadan algılanan soğukluk ($\beta = -.11$, $t [531] = -2.35$, $p < .05$) utanç yatkınlığının yordayıcıları olarak bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçlar, içselleştirilmiş ve sürekli utanç durumlarının ortaya çıkmasında reddetme, eleştirel ve şefkatsiz erken ilişkilerin rolünü vurgulayan teorik değerlendirmeler ve önceki çalışmalarla uyumludur (Luthwak ve Ferrari, 1997; Schore, 1991). Öfke yatkınlığının ise yaşları daha genç olan katılımcılar ($\beta = -.12$, $t [533] = -2.77$, $p < .01$) tarafından daha fazla rapor edildiği ve anneden görülen reddedici davranışların ($\beta = .30$, $t [532] = 7.24$, $p < .001$) ve babanın aşırı koruma veya kontrolünün ($\beta = .17$, $t [531] = 9.87$, $p < .001$) öfke yatkınlığına katkı sağladığı bulunmuştur. Geçmişte yapılan çalışmalar (Muris, Meesters, Morren ve Moorman, 2004; Patock-Peckham ve ark., 2020), öfke duygusunun, sevgi açısından kısıtlı ama kontrol açısından yüksek, “şefkatsiz kontrol” olarak adlandırılan bir aile ortamında oluştuğuna işaret eder. Sevgi ve kabulün sınırlı olduğu bir ortamda yetiştirilen bireyler, kendilerini kanıtlamak için daha güçlü bir arzuya sahip olabilirler, bu da öfkeli bir eğilimin gelişimini kolaylaştırabilir. Demografik değişkenler ve erken dönem yetiştirilme

tarzları kontrol edildikten sonra üçüncü adımda eşitliğe anne ve baba ile rol karmaşası değişkenleri girilmiştir. Sonuçlar, yalnızca anne ile rol karmaşası deneyiminin utanç ($\beta = .12, t [530] = 2.75, p < .01$) ve öfke yatkinliğini ($\beta = .15, t [530] = 3.40, p < .01$) yordadığını göstermiştir. Bu bulgular erken dönemde ortaya çıkan utanç ve öfke duygularının düzenlenmesinde annenin önemli bir figür olduğunu destekler niteliktedir (Feldman ve Klein, 2003).

Üçüncü set regresyon analizleri bağımlı değişkenler ayrışma-bireyleşme güçlüklerinin üç alanı olan bölme savunması, farklılaşma ve kişiler arası ilişkilerde zorluklar olmak üzere dört adıma gerçekleştirilmiştir. Sonuçlar, demografik değişkenlerde, kadınların erkeklere göre daha fazla bölme savunmasını kullandığını ($\beta = -.10, t [532] = -2.31, p < .05$) ve daha fazla ayrışma-bireyleşme temalı ilişki güçlükleri çektiğini ($\beta = -.10, t [532] = -2.24, p < .05$) göstermiştir. Ayrıca yaşları daha genç olan katılımcılar ayrışma-bireyleşme güçlüklerinin bütün alanlarında zorluk yaşadığını belirtmiştir (bölme: $\beta = -.15, t [533] = -3.42, p < .01$, farklılaşma: $\beta = -.11, t [533] = -2.46, p < .05$, ilişkiler: $\beta = -.13, t [533] = -3.02, p < .01$). Algılanan ebeveynlik uygulamaları, ebeveynlerle erken rol değiştirme deneyimleri ve duygular, ayrışma-bireyleşmenin tüm alanları ile anlamlı ilişkiler göstermiştir. Yüksek anne reddi ($\beta = .30, t [531] = 7.20, p < .001$) ve aşırı koruması ($\beta = .11, t [530] = 2.49, p < .05$), düşük baba sıcaklığı ($\beta = -.11, t [529] = -2.55, p < .05$), hem baba ($\beta = .22, t [528] = 5.40, p < .001$) hem anne ($\beta = .13, t [527] = 2.39, p < .05$) ile rol karmaşası deneyimleri ve yüksek utanç ($\beta = .35, t [526] = 8.93, p < .001$) ve öfke yatkinliği ($\beta = .29, t [525] = 7.59, p < .001$) bildiren katılımcılar, günlük yaşamlarında daha fazla bölme savunması kullandıklarını rapor etmiştir. Yüksek baba reddi ($\beta = .31, t [532] = 7.62, p < .001$), anneden aşırı koruma ($\beta = .13, t [531] = 2.92, p < .01$), hem anne ($\beta = .31, t [530] = 7.25, p < .001$) hem baba ($\beta = .15, t [529] = 3.03, p < .01$) ile rol karmaşası yaşantısı, yüksek utanç ($\beta = .26, t [528] = 6.52, p < .001$) ve öfke yatkinliği ($\beta = .22, t [527] = 5.58, p < .001$) bildiren katılımcılar, kendilerini diğerlerinden ayırt etmede daha çok zorluk yaşadıklarını belirtmiştir. Son olarak, daha fazla baba reddi ($\beta = .20, t [531] = 4.74, p < .001$), anneden aşırı koruma ($\beta = .15, t [530] = 3.25, p < .01$) ve sıcaklık ($\beta = .09, t [529] = 2.02, p < .05$), hem anne (β

= .27, t [528] = 6.07, $p < .001$) hem baba ile rol karmaşası ($\beta = .15$, t [527] = 2.94, $p < .01$), yüksek öfke ($\beta = .27$, t [526] = 6.52, $p < .001$) ve utanç yatkınlığı ($\beta = .21$, t [525] = 5.22, $p < .001$) bildiren katılımcılar, ayrışma-bireyleşme zorlukları nedeniyle ilişkilerinde daha fazla sorun yaşadıklarını belirtmiştir. Her ne kadar ayrışma-bireyleşme alanları erken yetiştirilme örüntüleri açısından farklılık gösterse de annenin aşırı koruması/kontrolü ve babanın reddedici veya soğuk davranışları hepsinde belirlemiştir. Anne koruyuculuğu/kontrolü ayrışma-bireyleşme dönemi için özel bir öneme sahip olabilir. Ayrıca, babaların duygusal olarak mesafeli ya da reddedici şekildeki ebeveynlik tarzının, genç yetişkinlerin ayrışma-bireyleşme sorunlarına anneden farklı olarak katkıda bulunması, babaların ayrışma-bireyleşme sürecinde daha az karmaşık figürler olarak kritik bir role sahip oldukları iddiasını destekler niteliktedir (Mahler ve ark., 1975). Sonuçlar ayrıca hem anne hem baba ile rol karmaşası yaşamanın genç yetişkinlik döneminde oluşan artan ayrışma-bireyleşme sorunları ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu bulgular, kuramsal iddialar ve erken rol karmaşası deneyiminin bireylerin özerk işleyişini bozacağını gösteren önceki çalışmalar için ek destek sağlamıştır (Kerig, 2005; Mayseless ve Scharf, 2009). Günlük yaşamlarında utanç ve öfke hissetme eğilimi yüksek olan katılımcıların, ayrışma-bireyleşmenin tüm alanlarında zorluk yaşama olasılığının daha yüksek olduğu da bulunmuştur. Bu sonuçlar, yoğun utanç ve öfke duygularının, ayrışma-bireyleşme güçlüklerini yetişkinlik döneminde de güçleştirdiği yönünde yorumlanabilir.

Regresyon analizlerinin son seti bağımlı değişkenler küçümseyen, yücelten ve çelişik kişilik inançları olmak üzere yürütülmüştür. Demografik değişkenlere yönelik bulgular erkeklerin kadınlara göre daha fazla yücelten ($\beta = .14$, t [533] = 3.28, $p < .01$) ve çelişik ($\beta = .13$, t [533] = 2.95, $p < .01$) inançlar gösterdiğini işaret etmiştir. Ayrıca yaşça daha genç katılımcılar daha fazla küçümseyen ($\beta = -.09$, t [533] = -2.18, $p < .05$), yücelten ($\beta = -.12$, t [532] = -2.75, $p < .01$) ve çelişik ($\beta = -.10$, t [532] = -2.19, $p < .05$) kişilik inançlarına sahip olduklarını bildirmiştir.

Yaş ve cinsiyet kontrol edildikten sonra babanın aşırı koruma/kontrolünün ($\beta = .24$, t [532] = 5.67, $p < .001$) ve reddedici ($\beta = .16$, t [531] = 3.50, $p < .01$)

ebeveynlik tarzının, hem anne ($\beta = .22, t [530] = 5.15, p < .001$) hem baba ($\beta = .11, t [529] = 2.14, p < .05$) ile rol karmaşık ilişkilerin, öfke ($\beta = .34, t [528] = 8.28, p < .001$) ve utanç ($\beta = .19, t [527] = 4.67, p < .001$) yatkınlığının, ayrışma bireyleşme güçlüklerinden ise farklılaşma ($\beta = .39, t [526] = 9.19, p < .001$) ve ilişki sorunlarının ($\beta = .19, t [525] = 4.05, p < .001$) artan küçümseyen inançlara ilişkili olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Koruyuculuk/kontrol ve eleştirel/reddedici özellikler bakımından yüksek ebeveyn tarzı "otoriter" ebeveynlik (Baumrind, 1967) veya "şefkatsiz kontrol" (Parker, 1990) olarak tanımlanmıştır. Bu tür ebeveynliğin başarısızlık korkusunu uyandırdığı ve bireylerin özgüvenini engellediği ileri sürülmüştür (Parker, 1993). Bu çalışmada küçümseyen inançların babanın otoriter yaklaşımı ile ilişkili olması Türk kültüründeki aile yapısı ile ilişkili olabilir. Sancar'ın (2009) çalışmasına göre Türkiye'de babalar hem modern hem de geleneksel ebeveyn kalıplarına göre hareket ederler. Disiplini sağlayan ve otoriter roller geleneksel olarak babalara atfedildiği için bireyler babalarının Türk kültüründe daha otoriter görme eğiliminde olabilirler. Küçümseyen inançlarla ilişkili rol karmaşası da bu kişilerin maruz kaldıkları ebeveynlik bağlamından yorumlanabilir. Otoriter babaların içtenlikten uzak ilgi ve şefkati ile karşılaşan çocuklar, kendi başlarına sevmeye layık olmadıklarını düşünebilir ve kendilerini ebeveynlerinin taleplerine adanarak ve kendi ihtiyaçlarını ikinci plana atarak sevgi ihtiyaçlarını karşılayabilirler. Duygular ile ilişki bulgular da küçümseyen inançların içeriği ile uyumludur. Utanç, bireylerin itaatkâr ve bağımlı davranışlarını tetikleyen bir duygu olarak bulunmuştur (Gilbert ve ark., 1994). Dolayısıyla küçümseyen kişilik inançlarına sahip bireylerde görülen boyun eğici ve bağımlı davranışlar, bu kişilerde sıklıkla ortaya çıkan utanç duygusuyla açıklanabilir. Bununla bağlantılı olarak, küçümseyen inançlara sahip kişilerdeki yüksek öfke kişinin kendisine yönelme eğiliminde olabilir çünkü ifade edilen öfke, önemli destek kaynakları olarak görülen diğer kişileri kaybetme riski taşımaktadır. Ancak kişinin kendisine yönelttiği öfke kendiyile ilgili küçümseyici inançlarını daha da güçlendirecektir. Küçümseyen inançlarla ilişkili ayrışma-bireyleşme güçlükleri bu kişilerin utanç yatkınlıkları tarafından da beslenme ihtimali yüksek, kişilerarası ilişkilerde yaşadığı reddedilme ile ilişkili kaygı hissi çerçevesinden yorumlanabilir.

Babadan algılanan aşırı koruma/kontrol ($\beta = .26, t [531] = 6.29, p < .001$), duygusal sıcaklık ($\beta = .13, t [530] = 3.18, p < .01$) ve reddedici ($\beta = .14, t [529] = 2.76, p < .01$) ebeveynlik biçimi genç yetişkinlerde artan yüceltici inançlarla ilişkili bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, anne ($\beta = .26, t [528] = 6.11, p < .001$) ve baba ($\beta = .13, t [527] = 2.40, p < .05$) ile deneyimlenen rol karmaşası, öfke yatkınlığı ($\beta = .41, t [526] = 10.62, p < .001$) ve de ayrışma-bireyleşme güçlüklerinin ilişki güçlükleri ($\beta = .27, t [525] = 6.96, p < .001$) ve farklılaşma ($\beta = .15, t [524] = 3.16, p < .01$) alt alanları yüceltici inançları anlamlı şekilde yordamıştır. Yüceltici inançlarla ilişkili ebeveynlik tarzına ait bulgu, büyüklenmeci kişilik özelliklerinin gelişiminde babanın ebeveynlik şeklinin önemini vurgulayan önceki araştırmalarla büyük ölçüde uyumludur (Cramer, 2015; Valashjardi, MacLean ve Charles, 2020). Bu çalışmada, babanın ebeveynliğine dair örüntü babanın davranışlarında “koşullu bir sevginin” olabileceğini işaret eder gibidir. Duygusal sıcaklığın ve reddedici davranışların bir arada görülmesi çocuğun babanın kontrolcü/koruyucu tarzda dayatmış olabileceği beklentilerini karşılalıkça sevgi görmesi, onlara uymadıkça ise reddedici bir tutumla karşılaşması ile ilişkili olabilir. Bu görüşü destekler nitelikte, Asor ve Tal (2012) bu tür bir ebeveynliğin ergenlerde kendini yüceltme eğilimi ile ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Anne ve baba ile rol karmaşası deneyimi yüceltici inançlara sahip kişilerin maruz kaldıkları ebeveyn tutumları çerçevesinde değerlendirilebilir. Jones ve Wells’in (1996) de çalışmalarında vurguladığı gibi bu kişiler rol karmaşasına anne-babalarının belirgin ihtiyaçlarını karşılamaktan ziyade onların ideallerini gerçekleştirme motivasyonu ile giriyor olabilirler. Duygusal yatkınlıklardan sadece öfke yatkınlığı yüceltici inançlarla ilişkili bulunmuştur. Önceki çalışmalar bu öfkenin işlevlerinden birisinin dışsal faktörler tarafından tehdit edilen “gösterişli” benlik imajını, tehdit kaynağını küçülterek ya da ona saldırarak korumak olduğuna işaret etmiştir (Cale ve Lilienfeld, 2006; Li ve ark., 2015). Küçümseyen inançlara benzer şekilde ayrışma-bireyleşmenin farklılaşma ve ilişki güçlükleri alanları yüceltici inançlarla da ilişkili bulunmuştur, ancak yetiştirilme uygulamaları ve baskın duygu göz önünde bulundurulduğunda bu güçlüklerin altındaki motivasyon ve oluş şekilleri yücelten inançlarda küçümseyen inançlardan farklı olabilir.

Çelişik kişilik inançlar ile ilişkili ebeveynlik tutumlar anneden aşırı koruma/kontrol ($\beta = .18, t [531] = 4.30, p < .001$), babadan reddedici tutum ($\beta = .09, t [530] = 2.01, p < .05$) ve duygusal sıcaklık ($\beta = .10, t [529] = 2.26, p < .05$) olarak bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, baba ($\beta = .25, t [528] = 5.81, p < .001$) ve anne ($\beta = .15, t [527] = 2.67, p < .01$) ile rol karmaşası yaşantısı, öfke ($\beta = .40, t [526] = 9.85, p < .001$) ve utanç yatkınlığı ($\beta = .09, t [525] = 2.15, p < .05$), ayrışma-bireyleşme alanlarından bölme savunması ($\beta = .37, t [524] = 8.34, p < .001$) ve ilişki güçlükleri ($\beta = .17, t [523] = 3.64, p < .01$) anlamlı olarak çelişik inançları yordamıştır. Çelişik inançlara sahip bireylerin karşılaştığı ebeveyn davranışları, bu bireylerin benlik ve başkalarına ilişkin algılarını nasıl inşa ettiğine ışık tutabilir. Aşırı anne koruma/kontrolüne erken maruz kalma, çocuğun psikolojik varoluşunu tehdit edebilir (Mahler ve ark., 1975) ve onu yakınlık veya bağlanma ihtiyaçlarını reddetmeye sevk edebilir çünkü bu kavramlar çocukta aynı zamanda "varoluşu tehdit eden" bir kaygı hali uyandırabilir (Alperin, 2001). Babaların tutarsız davranışları da çocuk için korkutucu olabilir. Babalar dış dünyayı temsil ettikleri için çocuklar diğer insanların güvenilmez ve zarar verici olduğuna dair bir inanç geliştirebilir. Çelişik inançlar baba ile rol karmaşası ile güçlü bir ilişki göstermiştir. Bu bulgu anne ve babalar ile rol karmaşası yaşamının farklı etkileri olabileceğine ve baba ile rol karmaşası yaşantısının çocuk için duygusal olarak daha zorlayıcı olduğuna işaret edebilir (Meier ve Bureau, 2018; Schier, Herke, Nickel, Egle ve Hardt, 2015). Duygusal yatkınlıklardan ikisi de çelişik duygularla ilişkilidir ancak utanç yatkınlığının etkisi belli belirsizdir. Bu belli belirsizlik, çelişik inançları olan bireylerin kendilerini sosyal ortamlardan izole etme gibi koruyucu davranışlarıyla açıklanabilir (Schoenleber ve Berenbaum, 2012). Bölme şeklinde algılayış ve ilişki sorunları, ayrışma bireyleşmenin çelişik kişilik inançlarıyla ilişkili iki alanı olarak bulunmuştur. Farklı teorik bakış açıları, bölmenin bu bireylerin karmaşık iç dünyalarını "iyi" ben ve "kötü" ötekiler imajını sürdürmeleri için organize ettiği konusunda hemfikirdir (Akhtar, 1987; Akhtar, 1990). Bununla ilişkili olarak, bu kişilerin ilişkilerde çektiği güçlükler başkaları ile fazlasıyla yakınlık kurma ihtiyacından ziyade onlardan kendilerini korumaya yönelik olabilir. Buna paralel olarak, Akyunus ve Gençöz (2020) çelişik kişilik inançları olan

kişilerin ilişkilerde duygusal olarak uzak durma ve baskınlık kurma gibi alanlarda problemler yaşadığını göstermiştir.

Ebeveyn ve Çocuk Değişkenleri Arasındaki Korelasyonlar ve Aracı Analizler

Korelasyon analizlerinin sonuçları, anne ve babaya ait kişilik inançlarının, kız ve erkek çocuklarının erken dönem ebeveyn deneyimleriyle farklılaşan bir şekilde ilişkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Annedeki kişilik bozukluğu inançları kız çocuklarının anneden algıladığı olumsuz ebeveynlik ve anne ile erken rol karmaşası deneyimi ile ilişkiliyken; babadaki kişilik bozukluğu inançları erkek çocuklarının babadan algıladığı olumsuz ebeveynlik ve hem kız hem de erkek çocukların baba ve anne ile rol karmaşası deneyimleri ile ilişki göstermiştir (bkz. Tablo 3.16 ve Tablo 3.17). Bu bulgular, ebeveyn kişilik bozukluğu özellikleri ile çocuğun algıladığı ebeveynlik stratejileri arasındaki bağlantıda ebeveynin ve çocuğun cinsiyetinin önemini vurgulamıştır. Bu durum anne-kız çocuk ve baba-erkek çocuk arasındaki ilişkinin niteliği (Starrels, 1994; Sutor ve Pillemer, 2006) ve aynı cinsiyete sahip ebeveyn ve çocuk arasında oluşan özdeşleşme süreci ile açıklanabilir (Boyd, 1989). Rol karmaşası değişkeni ile ilgili ilişkilere bakıldığında ise sonuçlar, annedeki kişilik bozukluğu özelliklerinin kız çocuk için daha fazla rol karmaşası riski taşıdığını; babada kişilik bozukluğu özellikleri söz konusu olduğunda ise ailenin tüm üyelerinin bu riskle karşılaştığını düşündürtebilir.

Korelasyonların sonuçları dikkate alınarak aracılık analizleri anne-kız ve baba-oğul çiftleri arasında yapılmıştır. İlk olarak, anneden algılanan yetiştirme tarzlarının ve anne ile rol karmaşası yaşantısının, anne ve kızların küçümseyici inançları arasındaki ilişkideki paralel-seri aracılık rolü araştırılmıştır. Bulgular bu ilişkide dört dolaylı etkinin olduğunu göstermiştir. Annedeki küçümseyen inançlar kız çocukların anneden daha fazla reddedici ($B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.002$, 95% CI [0.001, 0.011]) ve koruyucu/kontrolcü ($B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.003$, 95% CI [0.001, 0.014]) bir tutum algılaması ile ilişkilendirilmiş, bu tutumlar kız çocuğun anne ile rol karmaşası deneyimlerini etkileyerek kız çocukların küçümseyen kişilik inançlarını yordamıştır. Ayrıca, anneden algılanan reddedici tutum ($B = 0.02$, $SE = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.002,

0.049]) ve anne ile rol karmaşası deneyimi ($B = 0.03$, $SE = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.008, 0.063]) bu ilişkide tek başına da aracılık rolü üstlenmiştir. Küçümseyen inançlara sahip annelerdeki ebeveynlik tarzı daha çok otoriter ve değişken ebeveynliğe işaret eder. Bağlanma kuramı rol karmaşasının annedeki korkutucu ve tahmin edilemez davranışlar sonucu geliştiğini belirtir (Solomon, George ve De Jong, 1995). Bu bulgular da bu görüşü destekler niteliktedir. Bu tür bir ebeveynlik karşısında, çocuk dikkatini ebeveyne yöneltir ve ebeveyn için düzenleyici bir mekanizma olarak işlev görür, böylece kendini güvende hissedebilir ve kaygıları giderilir (Solomon ve ark., 1995). Ancak bu süreç kaçınılmaz olarak çocuğun ebeveyninin beklentilerini öğrenmesini ve ona göre davranmasını gerektirir. Kız çocukları rol değiştirme yoluyla annelerini rahatlatmaya çalışırken, bağımsız işlevleri azalabilir ve daha bağımlı ve yetersiz benlik inançları geliştirebilirler.

İkinci aracılık analizi anne ve kızlarının yüceltici kişilik inançları arasında gerçekleştirilmiştir. Sonuçlar üç dolaylı etkinin olduğuna işaret etmiştir. Küçümseyen inançlara benzer şekilde, annedeki yüceltici inançlar kız çocukların anneden daha fazla reddedici ($B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.003$, 95% CI [0.000, 0.013]) ve koruyucu/kontrolcü ($B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.004$, 95% CI [0.002, 0.018]) bir tutum algılaması ile ilişkilendirilmiş, bu tutumlar kız çocuğun anne ile rol karmaşası deneyimlerini etkileyerek kız çocukların küçümseyen kişilik inançlarını yordamıştır. Ayrıca, anneden algılanan aşırı koruyucu/kontrolcü tutum ($B = 0.02$, $SE = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.003, 0.045]) bu ilişkide tek başına da aracılık rolü üstlenmiştir. Daha önce narsistik kişilik özellikleri gösteren ebeveynlerle yapılan çalışmalar, bu kişilerin çocuklarına kendi doğrularına, kurallarına veya standartlarına uymaları konusunda ısrarcı olduklarını göstermiştir (Hart, Bush-Evans, Hepper ve Hickman, 2017). Ayrıca bu ebeveynlerin kendi çocuklarını diğer çocuklardan üstün gördükleri ve onlara yüksek standartlar atama eğiliminde oldukları bulunmuştur (Coppolo ve ark., 2020). Yüceltici kişilik inançlarına sahip bir anne söz konusu olduğunda, kızlar, annelerine doğrudan duygusal bakım göstermek yerine, taleplerine uyararak annelerini rahatlatmayı öğrenebilirler. Annenin aşırı koruma/kontrolünün tek başına aracılık rolü de annelerin taleplerinin baskınlığına işaret edebilir.

Üçüncü aracılık analizi anne ve kızlarının çelişik kişilik inançları arasında yürütülmüştür. Sonuçlar iki dolaylı etki olduğunu göstermiştir. Annedeki çelişik inançlar kız çocukların anneden daha fazla reddedici bir tutum algılaması ile ilişkilendirilmiş, bu tutumlar kız çocuğun anne ile rol karmaşası deneyimlerini etkileyerek kız çocukların çelişik kişilik inançlarını yordamıştır ($B = 0.01$, $SE = 0.003$, 95% CI [0.000, 0.014]). Ayrıca, kızların anne ile rol karmaşası deneyimi ($B = 0.03$, $SE = 0.01$, 95% CI [0.001, 0.061]) bu ilişkide tek başına da aracılık rolü üstlenmiştir. İlk bakışta kızların neden anne için endişelendiklerini ve reddedici tutum gösteren anneden geri durmak yerine onu teselli etmeye çalıştıklarını anlamak zor olabilir. Kızlar anneleri ile temas halinde kalabilmek veya olası sert davranışların önüne geçmek için rol karmaşası yaşamış olabilirler. Buna uygun olarak Macfie ve ark. (1999), ebeveynlerinin fiziksel olarak kötü davranışlarına maruz kalan çocukların, bir hikâye tamamlama görevinde ebeveyn figürünün sıkıntısını yatıştırmak için daha fazla girişimde bulunduğunu göstermiştir. Kızların çocukluklarında anneleriyle olan ilişkilendirme biçimleri, gelecekte diğer insanlarla kurdukları yakınlıklara aktarılabilecek bir şefkat özlemi ve eşlik eden korku ile tanımlanabilir.

Aynı arabuluculuk modelleri oğulların erken dönem babalık deneyimlerinin aracılık rolü üzerinden babaların ve oğullarının kişilik bozukluğu inançları arasındaki ilişkiyi test etmek için uygulanmıştır. Bulgular, babaların tüm kişilik bozukluğu inançlarının babadan algılanan aşırı korumacılık ve oğulların rol değiştirme deneyimleri ile anlamlı düzeyde ilişkili olduğunu, ancak dolaylı etkinin ($B = 0.04$, $SE = 0.03$, 95% CI [0.001, 0.103]) sadece rol karmaşası deneyimi üzerinden babalar ve oğulların yücelten kişilik inançları arasındaki ilişkide ortaya çıktığını göstermiştir. Anlamlı olmayan roller analizlerin istatistiksel gücünü düşüren erkek katılımcı sayısının azlığından kaynaklanmış olabilir. Bu ilişkiler, babaya özgü kişilik sorunlarının, oğulların özerk bir benlik anlayışı kazanmaları konusunda zararlı olabileceğine işaret edebilir. Dolaylı etki ile ilgili olarak ise literatür büyüklenmeci kişilik özellikleri sergileyen babaların çocuklarının yeteneklerini ve becerilerini abartma eğiliminde olduğunu göstermiştir (Coppolo ve ark., 2020). Yücelten

inançlara sahip babalar da çocuklarının yapabileceklerini abartarak ve onların kırılganlıklarını küçümseyerek onlara yetişkin gibi davranabilirler. Böylece çocuklar babalarıyla yetişkin bir pozisyondan ilişki kurmaya başlayabilirler, ancak bu pozisyon çocuklar için çok yüksek olduğundan bu rolde ancak benliklerini yücelterek kalmayı başarabilirler.

Çalışmanın Güçlü Yönleri ve Klinik Uygulamalara Katkısı

Bu çalışmada kişilik bozukluğu özelliklerine dair farklı bir kavramsallaştırma kullanılmıştır. Benlik ve diğerleri ile ilgili inançlar temel alınarak yapılan bu kavramsallaştırma, sonuçların daha detaylı bir perspektiften yorumlanmasına izin verir. Bulgular, kişilerin sahip olduğu çarpık inançların, erken ebeveynlik deneyimlerinin bir yansıması olabileceğine işaret eder. Kişilikleri aracılığı ile bu kişiler ebeveynleri ile çocuklukta karşılaştıkları ilişkileri yetişkinlikte başkaları ile sürdürebilirler. Bu ayrıca psikoterapide, terapistle kurulan ilişki için de geçerlidir. Terapistlerin müdahalelerini bu kişilik örüntülerinin özelliklerini göz önünde bulundurarak uygulaması önemlidir.

Bu çalışmanın başka önemli bir katkısı da erken dönem rol karmaşasını hem anne hem baba ile ayrı ayrı ve daha genel bir perspektiften ölçen “Ebeveynlerle İlişkiler Ölçeğinin” Türkçe uyarlamasının gerçekleştirilmiş olmasıdır. Ayrıca bu çalışma kapsamında rol karmaşasının kişilik bozukluğu özellikleri ile ilişkisi daha ayrıntılı bir şekilde araştırılmış ve sonuçlar bu kavramın çok boyutlu bir yapısının olabileceğine ve farklı ebeveyn örüntülerinin bu farklı boyutların çıkmasında etkili olabileceğine işaret etmiştir. Bu boyutlar, nitel araştırmalarla tespit edilebilir ve gelecekteki çalışmalar rol karmaşasını daha detaylı olarak ölçen ölçüm araçları geliştirilebilir.

Aracı analizler, kızların çocukluk döneminde olumsuz anne ebeveynliği ve anne ile daha fazla rol karmaşası ile karşılaşarak annelerine benzer kişilik bozukluğu inançları gösterme olasılıklarının yüksek olduğunu göstermiştir. Bu durum yücelten inançlara sahip babalar ve oğulları arasındaki ilişkide rol karmaşası üzerinden oluşmuştur. Kişilik bozukluğu özellikleri gösteren ebeveynler söz konusu olduğunda

kilinisyenler anne-kız ve baba-oğul çiftleri arasındaki ilişkiye ve ebeveynlerin kişilik bozukluğu özelliklerine özgü ilişkisel zorluklara daha fazla odaklanabilirler. Kişilik bozukluğu inancına sahip annelerin kızlarında gözlenen rol karmaşası, daha çok kendilerini annelerden korumanın bir yolu olarak ortaya çıkmış; ancak kızlarda da annelerine benzer kişilik bozukluğu özelliklerinin oluşumunu kolaylaştırdığı için işlevsel olmayan bir strateji olduğu görülmüştür. Dolayısıyla kişilik bozukluğu inancı gösteren annelerin kızları ile çalışırken, rol karmaşasının işlevi ve kişilik üzerindeki etkilerinin ele alınması psikoterapide önemli bir konu olabilir.

Araştırmanın Sınırlılıkları ve Gelecek Çalışmalar İçin Öneriler

Çalışmanın bulguları, çalışmanın belirli sınırlılıkları dikkate alınarak değerlendirilmelidir. İlk olarak, çalışma kesitsel bir yapıya sahiptir ve ebeveyn ile olan deneyimler geriye dönük ölçüm araçları ile ölçülmüştür. Ayrıca, ebeveynlerin kişilik özelliklerinin geçmişte ve şu anda benzer olacağı varsayılmıştır. Bu nedenle, boylamsal verileri, gözleme dayalı yöntemleri ve bilgilendirici raporları (örneğin; ebeveynler, kardeşler) kullanan gelecekteki çalışmalar değerli olacaktır.

Bunlara ek olarak, çalışmanın örneklemini çoğunlukla üniversite öğrencileri temsil etmiştir ve cinsiyet konusunda eşit olmayan bir dağılım söz konusudur. Daha farklı grupları temsil eden örneklem ve daha fazla erkek katılımcının yer aldığı gelecekteki çalışmalar mevcut sonuçları genişletecektir.

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