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OBJECT RELATIONS, PERCEIVED PARENTAL REARING STYLES, AND DEFENSE MECHANISMS IN RELATION TO PERSONALITY TRAITS AND SYMPTOMS OF PERSONALITY DISORDERS

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OBJECT RELATIONS, PERCEIVED PARENTAL REARING STYLES, AND DEFENSE MECHANISMS IN RELATION TO PERSONALITY TRAITS AND SYMPTOMS OF PERSONALITY DISORDERS

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ABSTRACT

OBJECT RELATIONS, PERCEIVED PARENTAL REARING STYLES, AND DEFENSE MECHANISMS IN RELATION TO PERSONALITY TRAITS AND SYMPTOMS OF PERSONALITY DISORDERS

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The purpose of the current study was to examine the relations among object relations (i.e., alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, & social incompetence), defense styles (immature, neurotic, & mature), and personality patterns (i.e., symptomatology & trait). Additionally, the role of perceived parental rearing styles (i.e., overprotection, rejection, & emotional warm) on defense use and developing personality patterns was also investigated. Sample size of the current study was 823 (557 females, 264 males, & 2 not reported) whose age ranged between 18 and 67 (M = 28.10, SD = 8.94). The data were collected through a questionnaire package including Informed Consent, Demographic Information Form, Egna Minnen Betraffande Uppfostran – My Memories of Upbringing, Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory, Defense Style Questionnaire, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory L and K Subscales, Personality Belief Questionnaire, and Basic Personality Traits Inventory. In order to examine the significant associates of personality patterns two sets of hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. Furthermore, two

path analyses were run to test the mediating effect of defense styles between object relations and personality patterns. Results of the study support hypotheses in which variables of object relations and defense styles are associated with personality patterns. Besides object relations, perceived parental rearing styles were also found as related factor of defense styles and personality patterns. Moreover, the mediation effects of defense styles between object relations and personality patterns were found via path analyses. Lastly, results, clinical implications, and limitations of the current study were discussed depending on the current literature.

Keywords: Object Relations, Perceived Parental Rearing Styles, Defense Mechanisms, Personality Disorders, Personality Traits

ÖZ

NESNE İLİŞKİLERİ, ALGILANAN ANNE-BABA TUTUMLARI VE SAVUNMA MEKANİZMALARININ KİŞİLİK ÖZELLİKLERİ VE SEMPTOMATİK DÜZEYDE KİŞİLİK BOZUKLUKLARIYLA İLİŞKİSİ

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Bu çalışmanın amacı nesne ilişkileri (yabancılaşma, güvensiz bağlanma, benmerkezcilik ve sosyal yetersizlik), savunma mekanizmaları (ilkel, nevrotik ve gelişmiş) ve kişilik örüntüleri (semptomları ve özellikleri) arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektedir. Buna ek olarak, mevcut çalışma, algılanan anne-baba tutumlarının (aşırı korumacılık, reddedicilik ve duygusal sıcaklık) kullanılan savunma mekanizmalarında ve kişilik örüntülerinin gelişimindeki rollerini de araştırmaktadır. Çalışmaya, yaşları 18 ile 67 (O = 28.10; SS = 8,94) arasında değişen 823 (557 kadın, 274 erkek ve 2 rapor edilmemiş) kişi katılmıştır. Çalışma kapsamında katılımcılara Bilgilendirilmiş Onam Formu, Demografik Bilgi Formu, Algılanan Ebeveyn Tutumları Ölçeği, Bell Nesne İlişkileri ve Gerçeği Değerlendirme Envanteri, Savunma Biçimleri Ölçeği, Minnesota Çok Yönlü Kişilik Envanteri L ve K Alt-ölçekleri, Kişilik İnanç Ölçeği ve Temel Kişilik Özellikleri Ölçeği uygulanmıştır. Çalışmanın değişkenleri arasındaki anlamlı ilişkileri belirleyebilmek amacıyla iki set hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Çalışmanın sonuçları hem nesne ilişkileri hem de algılanan anne-baba tutumları

temelli iki farklı model bazında değerlendirilmiş ve hipotezleri destekler nitelikte bulunmuştur. Buna ek olarak, savunma mekanizmalarının nesne ilişkileri ve kişilik örüntüleri arasındaki aracı değişken olduğu, model testi yapılarak bulunmuştur. Son olarak, çalışmanın sonuçları, klinik alana katkıları ve kısıtlılıkları güncel literatür ışığında tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Nesne İlişkileri, Algılanan Anne-Baba Tutumları, Savunma Mekanizmaları, Kişilik Bozuklukları, Kişilik Özellikleri

To my father, my source of beliefs

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPENDICES

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Personality Symptomatology

Personality is defined as ongoing mental, emotional, and behavioral trait patterns of individuals. In fact, each individual has a consistent and unique personality pattern. However, when this distinctive personality pattern cannot adapt to societal norms and expectations, these individuals experience difficulties in cognition, emotiveness, interpersonal functioning or control of impulses; as a result of which they are diagnosed with personality disorders (PDs) (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 2000). Patients with PDs who feel and behave in hostile, detached, needy, antisocial or obsessive ways constantly throughout their life (APA, 2000) are common in clinical settings. Although there are a few number of studies demonstrating different percentages about prevalence rates of PDs, in clinical population average prevalence of PDs is accepted as approximately 27% (cited in Adel, Grimm, Mogge, & Shart, 2006) which is also consistent with Adel and his colleagues' study (2006). Since these patients' interpersonal relationships, and social and occupational functioning are pervasively affected by their symptoms (APA, 2000), and they have low insight about their problems, they are usually reluctant to receive professional help. Besides, caring for these patients can also be difficult and frustrating for the mental health professionals due to the problematic relationship patterns specific to PDs (Ward, 2004). In clinical settings, it was observed that patients with PDs or PDs comorbidity have poorer treatment outcomes and health conditions, and higher rates of health care use and cost (Ward, 2004). Since these patients have chronic difficulties in interacting with physicians and the health care system, different theoretical approaches were presented by clinical investigations and

applications in order to develop a functional relationship with those patients to help them receive the best therapy. However, PDs are still one of the major concerns in clinical investigations with respect to understanding symptoms caused by combinations of genetic and temperamental traits, and environmental and developmental events (Ward, 2004).

In general, patients with PDs apply for psychotherapy or to psychiatry clinics because of their depression or anxiety, but not due to their personality problems. Those patients having poor insight into the causes of their problems sense that their social, occupational or functional problems are not related to their own behaviors or attitudes. They also believe that they are the one and only victim of the system or others' behaviors. Therefore, these patients' problems would usually endure throughout their life time (Beck, Freeman, Davis, & Associates, 2004).

According to Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM) - IV (APA, 1994), the diagnosis of a PD depends on the patient's behaviors over time across different situations. In other words, patients with these disorders have consistent patterns of attitudes and coping styles throughout their adult lives (Ward, 2004). DSM-IV-TR (APA, 2000) defines PDs as:

A. An enduring pattern of inner experience and behavior that deviates markedly from the expectations of the individual's culture. This pattern is manifested in two (or more) of the following areas:
   (1) cognition (i.e., ways of perceiving and interpreting self, other people, and events)
   (2) affectivity (i.e., the range, intensity, lability, and appropriateness of emotional response)
   (3) interpersonal functioning
   (4) impulse control
B. The enduring pattern is inflexible and pervasive across a broad range of personal and social situations.
C. The enduring pattern leads to clinically significant distress or impairment in social, occupational, or other important areas of functioning.
D. The pattern is stable and of long duration and its onset can be traced back at least to adolescence or early adulthood.

E. The enduring pattern is not better accounted for as a manifestation or consequence of another mental disorder.
F. The enduring pattern is not due to the direct physiological effects of a substance (e.g., a drug of abuse, a medication) or a general medical condition (e.g., head trauma).

In fact, diagnostic criteria for PDs have evolved dramatically throughout the different versions of DSM. Particularly, major changes involving radically different treatment modalities, theories, conceptualizations, criteria, and assessment methods of PDs have been suggested in the past century. For instance, the criteria for PDs were so primitive in DSM-I that PDs were categorized roughly under five main headings; namely, personality pattern disturbance, personality trait disturbance, sociopathic personality disturbance, special symptom reactions, and transient situational personality disorders (APA, 1952). In DSM-II, subheadings of PDs were eliminated, and the categorization and brief description of each disorder were provided (APA, 1968). Yet, these descriptions were still not based on clinical trials in DSM-II (Sperry, 2003). With DSM-III, the distinction between symptom disorders (Axis I) and personality disorders (Axis II) was established (APA, 1980). In DSM-IV, diagnostic criteria were clarified substantially (APA, 1994). In order to diagnose a PD, any five or more criteria pertaining to each specific PD subtype are needed. Therefore, specific character or temperamental features of patients cannot be clearly identified due to lack of specificity; as a result of which, understanding the etiology of a patient and formulating psychotherapy phase efficiently could be hindered (Sperry, 2006). In other words, these criteria are useful only in the assessment phase, but not in the planning of treatment strategies (Sperry, 2003), and DSM-IV (APA, 1994) has given insufficient information about the nature of PDs (Wakefield, 2013). This knowledge indicates that theoretical speculations about PDs still continue (Sperry, 2006).

In order to fulfill the gap on PDs' diagnosis and treatment, in DSM-5, a "personality disorder - trait specified" model in which an individual's personality traits within the parameters set by the general definition is

emphasized for diagnosis (Wakefield, 2013). According to DSM-5, to diagnose a trait specified personality disorder, impairments in personality functioning and the presence of pathological personality traits has to be observed on patients, and also following criteria must be met (APA, 2013):

A. Significant impairments in self (identity or self-direction) and interpersonal (empathy or intimacy) functioning.
B. One or more pathological personality trait domains OR trait facets within domains, considering ALL of the following domains:
   (1) negative affectivity vs. emotional stability
   (2) detachment vs. extraversion
   (3) antagonism vs. agreeableness
   (4) disinhibition vs. compulsivity
   (5) psychoticism vs. lucidity
C. The impairments in personality functioning and the individual's personality trait expression are relatively stable across time and consistent across situations.
D. The impairments in personality functioning and the individual's personality trait expression are not better understood as normative for the individual's developmental stage or sociocultural environment.
E. The impairments in personality functioning and the individual's personality trait expression are not solely due to the direct physiological effects of a substance (e.g., a drug of abuse, medication) or a general medical condition (e.g., severe head trauma).

With the help of DSM-5 personality trait model, behavioral tendencies of patients with PDs or specific personality features could be better operationalized in work groups or clinical research (Kruger & Markon, 2014). In DSM-5, 25 specific elements (e.g., anhedonia, depressivity, grandiosity, impulsivity etc.) have been used to define maladaptive personality traits which are also referred to as trait facets. Additionally, five broad domains were identified to capture the significant elements of the basic structural organization of these 25 primary traits into broader personality domains. These five broad domains, presented with definitions in Table 1.1., include (1) negative affectivity vs. emotional stability, (2) detachment vs. extraversion, (3) antagonism vs. agreeableness, (4) disinhibition vs. compulsivity, and (5) psychoticism vs. lucidity (APA, 2013). The aim of these domains is to describe the personality characteristics of all

patients, independent of whether a patient has a personality disorder or not (Wakefield, 2013).

All in all, from the past century to the present, PDs have become one of the most important topics of clinical researchers with regard to finding an efficient way for the treatment of patients with PDs. However, understanding PDs and establishing a treatment plan for them is a major challenge for both clinicians and researchers due to the complex nature of these disorders. In order to eliminate those challenges, researchers have developed various theories and treatment approaches for PDs. In the following section, a theoretical review of personality traits within the framework of the Five Factor Model and the psychodynamic view of personality patterns, which is also a well-established approach in understanding personality organization, will be presented.

Table 1.1. *Definitions of DSM-5 Personality Disorder Trait Domains*

Domains	Definitions
Negative Affectivity vs. Emotional Stability	Frequent and intense experiences of high levels of a wide range of negative emotions (e.g., anxiety, depression, guilt/shame, worry, anger) and their behavioral (e.g., self-harm) and interpersonal (e.g., dependency) manifestations.
Detachment vs. Extraversion	Avoidance of socioemotional experience, including both withdrawal from interpersonal interactions (ranging from casual, daily interactions to friendships to intimate relationships) and restricted affective experience and expression, particularly limited hedonic capacity.
Antagonism vs. Agreeableness	Behaviors that put the individual at odds with other people, including an exaggerated sense of self-importance and a concomitant expectation of special treatment, as well as a callous antipathy toward others, encompassing both an unawareness of others' needs and feelings and a readiness to use others in the service of self-enhancement.
Disinhibition vs. Compulsivity	Orientations toward immediate gratification, leading to impulsive behavior driven by current thoughts, feelings, and external stimuli, without regard for past learning or consideration of future consequences.
Psychoticism vs. Lucidity	Exhibiting a wide range of culturally incongruent odd, eccentric, or unusual behaviors and cognitions, including both process (e.g., perception, dissociation) and content (e.g., beliefs).

Note: Reprinted from *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders*, by American Psychiatric Association. (5th ed.), 2013, Washington, D.C: Author.

1.2. Five Factor Model

As mentioned above, DSM-5 includes five-domain models of general personality (APA, 2013). Before the publication of DSM-5, a number of

personality trait models were developed in the context of DSM personality disorders. However, researchers and theoreticians have focused mainly on the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality which has received the most research attention and empirical support in this context (Trull, 2012). According to Clark (2007), both normal and abnormal personality traits are widely represented by FFM. On the DSM-5 Web site, the final version of the manual stated that "the proposed model represents an extension of the Five Factor Model (FFM; Costa & Widiger, 2002) of personality that specifically delineates and encompasses the more extreme and maladaptive personality variants" (APA, 2012b). Briefly, to define major personality traits, FFM of personality is a widely accepted and popular trend in clinical applications and research (Trull, 2012).

FFM is defined as a hierarchical model of the structure of personality traits which are long-lasting tendencies related to consistent cognitive, emotional and behavioral patterns that show variations among individuals (Costa & Widiger, 2002). McCrae and Costa (1997) stated that it is better to describe personality traits with natural language adjectives because unlike physical characteristics, personality traits are so abstract and have complex patterns of overt and covert behaviors that they cannot be directly measured. In other words, to make inferences from personality characteristics, human judges are needed. Therefore, FFM has originated from a lexical approach to personality structure. This lexical approach hypothesized that natural language consists of all important personality traits which are central to human interactions (Goldberg, 1981, as cited in McCrae & Costa, 1997). According to this hypothesis, to understand and communicate individual differences in each culture, every language produces its own trait descriptive adjectives (McCrae & Costa, 1997). Thanks to FFM, personality theorists, and clinical, educational and industrial/organizational psychologists from different cultures have acquired a common language to explain basic phenomenon of personality, to organize research, and to guide comprehensive assessment of individuals (McCrae & John, 1992). For this purpose, a personality inventory which is called Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO-PI-R) was developed based on FFM (Costa & McCrae, 1995).

According to NEO-PI-R, there are five traits, namely neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness with six facets presented in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2. *Facets of Five Factors Model Traits*

Neuroticism	Extraversion	Openness	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness
Anxiety	Warmth	Fantasy	Trust	Competence
Angry Hostility	Gregariousness	Aesthetics	Straightforwardness	Order
Depression	Assertiveness	Feelings	Altruism	Dutifulness
Self-Consciousness	Activity	Actions	Compliance	Achievement Striving
Impulsiveness	Excitement Seeking	Ideas	Modesty	Self-Discipline
Vulnerability	Positive Emotions	Values	Tender-Mindedness	Deliberation

Note: Domains and facets of Five Factor Model obtained from the "Revised NEO Personality Inventory" by Costa and McCrae (1995).

As can be seen in Table 1.2. higher order dimensions of the FFM are defined by many more specific facets or traits. Costa and Widiger (2002) briefly described these dimensions in their review. According to them, neuroticism (N) is related to the "chronic level of emotional adjustment and instability". Neuroticistic individuals with unreasonable thinking, excessive cravings or difficulty in coping with disappointments are prone to psychological distress. Extraversion (E) concerns with interpersonal interactions. While individuals with high extraversion level are more likely to be sociable, active, talkative, person oriented, optimistic, funny, and affectionate; individuals with low extraversion level, who are also called as introverts, are more likely to be quiet, withdrawn, single, and aloof but not unhappy or pessimistic. Openness to experience (O) corresponds to active seeking and appreciation of experiences. In that respect, open people are defined as curious, imaginative, and willing to implement new decisions and values; whereas, closed people are known as conventional and more dependent on their beliefs and attitudes. Agreeableness (A) is related to interpersonal interactions, just like E, but individuals with high A, which differ from E, are softhearted, good natured, honest, charitable,

merciful, responsive, empathic, and altruistic. However, antagonistic people who are low in A are misanthropic, rude, mistrustful, disobliging, and irritable and they can also be manipulative, vindictive, and ruthless. Conscientiousness (C) refers to occupational and goal-directed behaviors. While organized, reliable, hardworking and punctual people are high in C; purposeless, unreliable, lazy, careless, relaxed, and pleasure oriented people have low levels of C (Costa & Widiger, 2002). Although FFM as its name would suggest originally consists of 5 domains, Gençöz and Öncül's study (2012) with Turkish participants indicated that neuroticism (N) is separated from Negative Valence (NV) because of the differences in cultural characteristics. Therefore, they claimed that there are six dimensions of FFM in Turkish context. Thanks to FFM's psycholexical characteristic, this six-factor solution was supported by studies in different cultures (Ashton et al., 2004). According to Gençöz and Öncül (2012), N is associated more with anxiety and insufficient problem focused coping while NV is more associated with insufficient emotion focused and indirect coping, and negative self-attributions. Therefore, NV is a separate dimension and negatively correlated with psychological well-being.

Digman (1997) suggested a "higher-order factor solution" for FFM (Big Five). Estimated factor correlations from 14 independent studies indicated that there are 2 metatraits. DeYoung, Peterson, and Higgins (2002) labelled these metatraits as *Stability* including Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Emotional Stability (reversed Neuroticism), and *Plasticity* including Extraversion and Openness based on biological studies. According to them, both Stability and Plasticity are related to conformity. In this regard, individuals with more stable traits tended to be more conforming while individuals who were more plastic tended to be less conforming. Conformity protects individuals from distress, uncertainty, hostility, etc. with increased Stability, but inhibits them from adapting to different situations with decreased Plasticity (DeYoung et al., 2002). Actually, this conformity which predicts socially desirable behaviors of individuals might be helpful in order to provide social integration; however,

higher conformity threatens individuals' uniqueness because it prevents the exploration of the individual's own capacity (DeYoung et al., 2002).

In the literature, there are so many studies that investigate the clinical utility of FFM on personality disorders and the DSM diagnostic categorization of these. DSM-IV-TR claimed that guiding to clinical practice is the highest priority of them (APA, 2000). Furthermore, the DSM diagnostic system for personality disorders is more preferred by clinicians because of its familiarity (Widiger, Trull, CZarhin, Sanderson, & Costa, 2002). However, Verheul (2005) defends that the categorical system has the least contribution to clinical practices in term of comprehensiveness, reliability, and clinical judgments. Moreover, the study of Samuel and Widiger (2006) indicated that the clinical utility of FFM overshadows the criteria of DSM-IV-TR personality disorders by providing a global definitions of the individuals' personality, making communication easy with clients, covering personality difficulties of all individuals, and supporting clinicians in planning treatment interventions. Therefore, clinicians and researchers reconceptualize DSM-IV-TR personality disorders with respect to FFM personality traits (Lynam & Widiger, 2001; Samuel & Widiger, 2004). To diagnose an individual as having one of the personality disorders through FFM perspective, Widiger, Costa, and McCrae (2002) suggested 4 steps which include identifying the elevated personality traits of individuals in terms of domains and facets of the FFM, obtaining problematic issues on these person-specific personality traits, deciding whether the impairment level is sufficient for a diagnosis, and determining whether these personality traits meet the criteria of a personality disorder. Currently, as mentioned above, DSM-5 defines personality disorders with 25 pathological traits grouped into 5 broad domains, namely, negative affectivity, detachment, antagonism, disinhibition, and psychoticism (APA, 2013). Obviously, this domain model of personality disorders represents the extension of FFM (Costa & Widiger, 2002). DSM-5 negative affectivity corresponds with FFM neuroticism, DSM-5 detachment corresponds with FFM extraversion, DSM-5 antagonism corresponds with FFM agreeableness, DSM-5 disinhibition corresponds with FFM conscientiousness, and DSM-5 psychoticism corresponds with FFM openness to experience

(Suzuki, Samuel, Pahlen, & Krueger, 2015). In DSM-5, the "hybrid dimensional-categorical model" which covers both trait dimensional and DSM-IV categorical models was proposed (APA, 2013). This methodology includes six personality types, namely, Borderline, Obsessive-Compulsive, Avoidant, Schizotypal, Antisocial, and Narcissistic Personality Disorders. Table 1.3 presents DSM-5 personality traits onto these defined personality disorder types in the hybrid model. These changes in the diagnostic system also reveal positive effects on treatment planning and hence on the outcome (First et al., 2004). Unfortunately, empirical studies for the treatment of DSM-IV-TR personality disorders are limited (Mullins-Sweatt & Lengel, 2012) except only for borderline and avoidant personality disorders (Matusiewicz, Hopwood, Banducci, & Lejuez, 2010). Treatment guidelines of the DSM-IV-TR personality disorders have not yet been developed because of lengthy, costly, and difficult treatment protocols (Smith & Zapolski, 2009). Moreover, individuals with the same personality disorder diagnosis may have different personality traits (Trull & Durrett, 2005). FFM, however, could provide consistent and empirically coherent treatment manuals (Costa & McCrae, 1995) with specific treatment implications (Mullins-Sweatt & Lengel, 2012).

Table 1.3. *DSM-5 Personality Traits onto PD Types* (APA, 2012a)

DSM-5 Facet Traits	BPD	OCPD	AVPD	STPD	ASPD	NPD	GDPD
Emotional Lability	✓						
Anxiousness	✓		✓				✓
Separation Anxiety	✓						
Perseveration		✓					
Submissiveness							✓
Hostility	✓				✓		✓
Restricted Affectivity				✓			
Depressivity	✓						
Suspiciousness				✓			
Withdrawal			✓	✓			✓
Anhedonia			✓				
Intimacy Avoidance			✓				
Manipulativeness					✓		
Deceitfulness					✓		
Grandiosity						✓	
Attention Seeking						✓	
Callousness					✓		
Irresponsibility					✓		
Impulsivity	✓				✓		✓
Rigid Perfectionism		✓					
Distractibility							✓
Risk Taking	✓				✓		✓
Unusual Beliefs and Experiences				✓			
Eccentricity				✓			
Cognitive and Perceptual Dysregulation				✓			

Note: **BPD:** Borderline Personality Disorder; **OCPD:** Obsessive-Compulsive Personality Disorder; **AVPD:** Avoidant Personality Disorder; **STPD:** Schizotypal Personality Disorder; **ASPD:** Antisocial Personality Disorder; **NPD:** Narcissistic Personality Disorder; **GDPD:** General Definition of Personality Disorder

As mentioned above, in order to establish effective treatment methods for personality pathology, FFM became a ray of hope for clinicians and researchers. In the literature, there are many studies that sustain personality traits which have significant relationships with psychological well-being (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Steel, Schmidt, & Shultz, 2008; Kokko, Tolvonen, & Pulkkinen, 2013). However, studies investigating the predictors of personality traits are limited. In the next part, some psychodynamic theories that may clarify the development of personality traits will be presented.

1.3. Defense Mechanisms

According to Freud (1894) individuals develop defense mechanisms to protect the ego from unacceptable impulses by controlling or modulating impulse expression as reactions to both external and internal sources of stress (cited in Bowins, 2004). In other words, similar to the immune system of the body, individuals utilize defense mechanisms to guard psychological well-being from negative emotional input (Bowins, 2004). In defense use and development, interpersonal relations, of which mostly childhood experiences, are emphasized. For instance, when a child has unacceptable feelings or needs aroused from negative reactions of his/her caregivers, to maintain his/her relationship with the caregivers these feelings are tended to be kept out of awareness. Therefore, he/she could protect him/herself from separation anxiety. In addition to this, defenses also serve to protect the self and the sense of self-esteem threatened by empathic failure of family or friends. Thus, defense mechanisms have two basic functions: to protect the self from experiencing exaggerated anxiety, and to protect self-integration (Cramer, 2006). However, when these mechanisms are observed predominantly in individuals' life, they could be devastating for the individuals' daily functions and interpersonal relationships (Bowins, 2010). This can be explained through such an example: Although having a heartbeat is necessary to be alive, the individual may have cardiac problems when it is too rapid or too irregular. Therefore, when some mechanisms show more intense

frequency than the range of normality, they interfere in daily healthy adaptation (Cramer, 2006).

Cramer (1998) determined six definitional characteristics for defense styles: (1) they occur in unconscious level, (2) they function to protect self-esteem through keeping unacceptable thoughts, impulses, and wishes out of awareness, (3) they operate to protect the individual from pathological anxiety, (4) they ensure normal personality functioning, (5) they can induce the pathology in excessive use, and (6) they are different from each other. Although there exists not a single view about a certain number of defense mechanisms or their classifications, Vaillant's (1977) proposal about hierarchical defense levels has been widely accepted (Furnham, 2012). According to Vaillant (1977), there are four levels, and the most primitive ones are *pathological mechanisms* which enable the individuals to change their perception of reality (e.g., denial & distortion). In the second level, there are *immature defenses* which reduce the severity of individuals' negative feelings like psychological distress and exaggerated anxiety (e.g., acting out & fantasy). Individuals with problems in their relationships, work, and life satisfaction tend to use *neurotic defenses*, which is the third level, for short-term benefits (e.g., intellectualization, displacement). Lastly, individuals utilize *mature defenses* to balance external reality and inner psychological pressures through different life circumstances (e.g. sublimation, humour, and altruism) (Vaillant, 1977; Koenigsberg et al., 2000). In Table 1.4, defense levels and mechanisms (Vaillant, 1977) are listed. Levels of defense maturity could be evaluated depending on the age of the defender. For instance, denial as a defense mechanism is labelled as immature when used by a 25-year-old, but is appropriate when used by a 5-year-old (Cramer, 2006). Primitive defenses which are infants' first psychological attempts at coping problems continue to function during adulthood when psychological maturation development is forbidden. Although these defenses can reduce anxiety to some degree, they are seen as inflexible ways of experiencing the self and others due to their rigidity and crudity (Koenigsberg et al, 2000). Additionally, it is also important that behaviors should be evaluated in its certain context because

depending on these factors, the use of defenses can be functional (Cramer, 2006).

Table 1.4. *Defense Levels and Defense Mechanisms* (Vaillant, 1977)

Defense Level	Defense Mechanism	Definition
Pathological	Denial	Refusal to accept unpleasant aspects of an external situation because one finds it too threatening.
	Distortion	Changing and reshaping reality as one sees fit.
	Projection	Lessens anxiety by expressing undesirable desires without being consciously aware; shifting these undesirable thoughts, feelings, and impulses to someone else.
Immature	Acting out	Unconscious expressions/impulses without being aware of the emotion behind it.
	Fantasy	Tendency to escape reality to resolve internal and external conflicts e.g. excessive day dreaming.
	Idealisation	Perceiving individuals to possess more positive qualities than they actually have.
	Passive aggression	Expressing anger or frustration through indirect methods onto other people.
	Identification	Role modelling; taking on behavioural patterns of another person
Neurotic	Displacement	Shifting emotions onto another target considered more acceptable or less threatening.
	Hypochrondriasis	Perceptions of an unknown illness as a reaction to negative feelings toward others.
	Intellectualisation	Using logic and intellectual components of a situation to distance oneself.
	Isolation	Separating emotions from events i.e. talking about a situation without displaying any feelings.
	Rationalisation	Convincing oneself that things are fine through false rationale e.g. ‘‘making excuses’’.
	Reaction formation	Behaving in a manner that is opposite of how one truly feels to avoid anxiety.
	Regression	Reverting to an earlier stage of development rather than handling the unpleasant situation in a way concurrent with ones current development stage
	Repression	Preventing uncomfortable thoughts streaming into the conscious
Mature	Altruism	Behaviour that brings pleasure to others and internal satisfaction.
	Anticipation	Knowing and accepting that future discomfort may occur.

Table 1.4. *(cont.'d) Defense Levels and Defense Mechanisms* (Vaillant, 1977)

Defense Level	Defense Mechanism	Definition
	Humour	Expressing unpleasant thoughts in a humorous way i.e. making fun of uncomfortable situations.
	Introjection	Identifying with a person or object so much that it becomes part of the individual.
	Sublimation	Turning negative emotions into more positive actions, behaviour, or emotions.
	Thought suppression	Consciously pushing thoughts into the unconscious i.e. not paying attention to an emotion in order to cope with the present situation.

Having knowledge about the relationship between FFM personality traits and defense mechanisms is beneficial to predict outcome variables like well-being or life success (McCrae & Costa, 1986). However, although there are many studies indicating the relationship between FFM traits and defense mechanisms (Cramer, 2003), in the literature there is no consensus about this relationship. The longitudinal study of Costa, Zonderman, and McCrae (1991) revealed that Extraversion and Openness are positively associated with mature or adaptive defenses. Moreover, Neuroticism is related to neurotic or maladaptive defenses, Agreeableness is related to the self and self-sacrificing defenses, and lastly, Conscientiousness is related to principalization, repression, and denial. Another study with patients in a group psychotherapy indicated that while Neuroticism is positively associated with immature defenses, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness have a negative correlation with immature defenses. Extraversion and Openness, similar to the previous study, are associated with mature defenses (Soldz, Budman, Demby, & Merry, 1995). According to Cramer (2003), mature defenses are related to low Neuroticism, high Agreeableness in males, and high Conscientiousness in female participants while high Neuroticism and low level of Extraversion and Agreeableness are predicted by immature defenses (Cramer, 2003). In brief, individuals who tend to use more mature defenses indicate more positive traits (Cramer, 2003). The study of

Furnham (2012) indicated that individuals with Neuroticism have a tendency to use more pathological, immature, and neurotic defenses consistent with other studies' findings. This means neuroticistic individuals have a tendency to unconsciously distort the stressful reality (Vaillant, 1994). Moreover, according to Furnham (2012), the trait of Openness increases along with the maturity level of defenses. He suggested that because open people are more flexible, when they encounter an inauspicious condition, they try to identify, accept or redefine it. Therefore, they can cope with this adverse situation by means of this new perspective (Furnham, 2012).

The categorical view of personality disorders, as mentioned before, does not suggest effective therapeutic strategies to clinicians. Therefore, although defense mechanisms occur at the unconscious level, researchers conduct empirical studies to illustrate the possible relationships between defense mechanisms and personality disorders for clinical utility (Bowins, 2010). According to Vaillant (1994), individuals diagnosed with personality disorders mostly use immature defenses like projection, dissociation, devaluation, splitting, and autistic fantasy. Moreover, studies with normal control group and patients diagnosed with neurosis, and high or low level personality disorders indicated that maturity of defenses negatively predicts the severity of psychopathology and personality functioning (Camacho, Chavez-Leon, Uribe, Jimenes, & Lopez, 2010; Sammallahti, Aalberg, & Pentinsaari, 1994). In other words, low level of personality organization is associated with immature or primitive defenses, and neurotic defenses (Camacho et al., 2010). Furthermore, DSM-IV-TR clusters of personality disorders (APA, 2000) are separated from each other through various types of defenses (Sinha & Watson, 2004). Studies revealed that individuals with one of the personality disorders in DSM *odd* cluster (Cluster A) are more likely to use fantasy and projection defenses; acting out, splitting, devaluation, and dissociation are more common in DSM *dramatic* cluster (Cluster B); and lastly, passive-aggression, hypochondriasis, isolation, and displacement are mostly observed in DSM *anxious* cluster (Cluster C) (Camacho et. al., 2010; Sinha & Watson, 2004; Vaillant, 1994; Vaillant & McCullough, 1998). Even if these

clusters were defined by some defensive styles, distinctive pattern of defenses could be altered depending on type of the disorders (Sinha & Watson, 2004).

According to psychoanalytic theory, narcissistic, histrionic and antisocial disorders are clustered in borderline personality organization (DSM-IV-TR Cluster B) because all of them derive from this deviant, and primitive or immature personality structure (Cramer, 2006). In the literature, three criteria were specified in order to differentiate antisocial, narcissistic, and histrionic personality disorders from one another, namely, degree of self-focus or egocentricity, adaptational strategies used to satisfy needs, and presence of conscious (Kernberg, 1975; Millon, 1996; Svrakic & McCallum, 1991). Developmental levels of these personality syndromes are determined through these criteria (Cramer, 1999). Histrionic personality is seen at the highest level because these individuals have the ability to empathize with others. Furthermore, although they may manipulate others to reach their own goals and to fulfill their own needs, they have a conscience and can show ethically appropriate behaviors. Narcissistic personality is at the next level. Narcissistic people who are known to be self-oriented, can be seductive and exploitative to meet their own needs, but they may feel guilt due to negative consequences of these behaviors. Antisocial personality has the lowest developmental level among these three syndromes. Individuals with antisocial characteristics are self-focused, choose aggression as a strategy to satisfy their own needs, and experience no guilt due to their destructive acts (Cramer, 1999). Since borderline personality underlies each of these three personality disorders, it has the lowest developmental level compared to others (Kernberg, 1975). Although origins of these three personality patterns overlap with each other in this borderline aspect, there are also differences in using defense mechanisms that shape perception, cognition, and behaviors of individuals (Cramer, 2006). Borderline personality includes the most immature level of defenses such as splitting, idealization, and denial. Although other personality disorders may also use these low-level defenses which underline borderline pattern, there are theoretical differences as for the use of these mechanisms. For instance, since the defense of projection is

pervasive for antisocial people, they attribute their hostile impulses to others, and they have a tendency to blame their victims for their own harmful behaviors (Cramer, 2006). Moreover, they also deny harmful consequences of their behaviors by using mechanism of denial. People with narcissism are more likely to use rationalization; but, if it fails, they may focus on their own wishful fantasy, or use denial or projection as a defense (Millon, 1996). In addition to these, defenses of dissociation, neurotic denial, and identification are mostly characterized by histrionic personality (Millon, 1996).

Understanding what defenses are and how they function is very important due to the knowledge that human thinking is not only logical, not only reality based, and not only objective but unconscious as well (Cramer, 2006). It is also important to know how defense mechanisms develop. Defense mechanisms are mental operations which occur without consciousness and operate outside of awareness. They work through the changing of internal processes of individuals including their feelings, perceptions or interpretation of a situation (Cramer 2006). Defense mechanisms are automatically triggered by anxiety that is experienced in a range from mild discomfort to intolerable panic, in order to preserve emotional well-being and limit the degree of functional impairment (Berzoff, Flanagan, & Hertz, 2008). According to Freud (1926), there are different types of anxiety, namely, “automatic anxiety” experienced in response to frustration, “fear of loss of the object” which means fear of being abandoned by a primary caregiver, “fear of loss of the object’s love” associated with the threat of losing the caregiver’s love and self-esteem, and “castration anxiety” related to fear of bodily harm or loss of physical or mental capacity. These different levels of anxiety mostly threaten little children because of their instinctual impulsive (id) attitudes which are not appreciated by adults. Thus, to protect themselves from punishment children internalize parental representations and develop responsibility to obey moral rules. Therefore, superego develops. However, when inner wishes come into conflict with the superego, ego perceives one of these anxieties, and to cope with this undesirable feeling, defenses are activated. After understanding the nature of the danger and reviewing repertoire

of defenses related to the danger, unconsciously, a defense or a set of defenses are employed to manage the condition. As a result, anxiety disappears from conscious awareness (Freud, 1966). This defense repertoire including the type and severity of defenses is established by the complex interaction of at least four factors: (1) one's structural temperament, (2) early childhood stressful experiences, (3) learning through modeling caregivers' defense styles, and (4) learning from one's own experiences (McWilliams, 2010).

1.4. Object Relations

Although there are many differences among object relations theories, in general, the idea of object relations simply refers to interpersonal relations. According to the theory, an individual's current interaction pattern is shaped by inner residues of past relations, especially to that of his/her mother. Object relations theorists suggest that early formation and differentiation of psychological structures including inner images of the self and the other, or the "object" can be investigated through focusing on pre-oedipal development. Therefore, how these inner structures influence current interpersonal relationships and mental processes can be realized. In other words, object relations refers to the internal world where there are representations of the self, which is how the individual represent own-self to own-self, in relation to representations of the object, which refers subjective experiences about objects' gratification and frustration. It is hypothesized that problems in object relations of the person predict mental illnesses or pathology because his/her inner world distorts and influences the real external experiences (St.Clair & Wigren, 2004).

According to Klein (1952a), children are born with instinct or biological drives (id) which dominate the inner world. She claims that there are two primary instincts, life and death. By means of the life instinct, ego and its defenses strengthen, and this power provides integration (Klein, 1952a); whereas, the death instinct or fear of death is the major source of infant's anxiety which causes uncontrollable attachment to the object in the phantasies of the helpless

infant (St.Clair & Wigren, 2004). The infant separates life and death instincts from each other through splitting love (life) and hate (death) (Klein, 1952b). In other words, if love, correspondingly the life instinct, predominates the inner mental world, ego becomes stronger, so the individual is able to cope with the anxiety stemmed from the death instinct or fear (Klein, 1958).

Heimann (1955) defines “unconscious phantasy” as “mental facet of the instinctual urges”. This means phantasy is a form of mental activity. On the basis of phantasies, imaginative representations can occur; therefore, bodily instincts such as hunger, urges, and infant’s reactions toward intense drives and feelings become controllable (Klein, 1959). Although these experiences are psychological, the infant cannot differentiate its own phantasies from the real world. For instance, when s/he feels discomfort or frustration, s/he gets into a panic due to the fear of an external harm. Moreover, when the infant sucks his/her fingers or makes sucking sounds with his/her mouth, actually, s/he supposes that there is a real breast in his/her mouth (Heimann, 1957).

Klein (1952a) claimed that although every instinct is linked with an object, new born babies tend to perceive these objects in parts. For infants, the first part of the object is generally the breast of the mother which is seen as the source of both gratification and deprivation. Depending on the amount of gratification or exposing to deprivation of the breast, the infant thinks the breast is either good or bad (Klein, 1959). For example, while a hungry infant who is satisfied by the mother immediately will experience pleasure or contentment, when the same infant is not satisfied by the mother for what-ever reason, s/he will experience fear, rage or anger due to the frustrated or abandoned self by the withholding depriver. In that early stage, infants tend to categorize the object in two ways: the all-good nurture (good) and the withholding depriver (bad) (Koeningsberg et al., 2000). This is the sign for the beginning of defense use in infancy (McWilliams, 2010).

In order to cope with intense needs, fears, and feelings, defense mechanisms such as projection, introjection, splitting, and projective identification are activated in infants' mental process or phantasies (St.Clair & Wigren, 2004). Firstly, the *projection* defense is activated if infants perceive his/her inner experiences as if they came from the outside. In other words, infants tend to project his/her inner feelings or impulses onto the external world, and experience them as if they belong to the outside (McWilliams, 2010). Therefore, when the infant who reaches gratification through nurturing and is filled with pleasure, she mirrors her good feelings back onto the object, so s/he thinks the breast is good (St.Clair & Wigren, 2004). On the contrary, in introjection, infants tend to take external experiences in. This means that infants believe external experiences belong to the self. Attitudes, affects, and behaviors of caregivers are introjected by the infant (McWilliams, 2010). *Splitting* occurs when the infant protects him/herself from undesirable experiences through separating feelings and aspects of the self as good and bad. Based on this splitting of feelings and aspects of the self, the feeling of gratification of infants are isolated from distorted, dangerous feelings (St.Clair & Wigren, 2004). For example, the relationship between the infant and the mother's breast includes love and hate, and frustration and gratification at the same time. The infant needs to simplify these experiences, so s/he splits the loving breast and the gratified self from the hating breast and the frustrated self. Therefore, infants perceive one person as only good, and another as only bad (St.Clair & Wigren, 2004). Sometimes, the infant cannot cope with inner anxiety. In order to solve this problem, initially, s/he splits off this undesirable part of the self, externalizes the problematic part, and modifies it in the outer world; finally, the infant reinternalizes the good object. This is called *projective identification* (McWilliams, 2010).

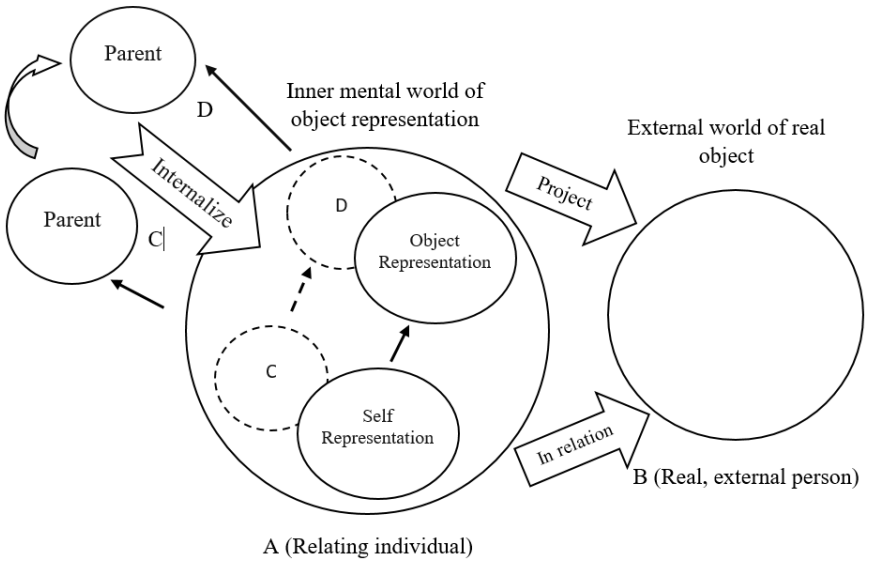

Figure 1.1. *The Inner and External Worlds of Objects*

Note: Figure 1.1. The inner and external worlds of objects. Reprinted from *Object Relations and Self Psychology: An Introduction* (p. 5), by M. St.Clair, & J. Wigren, 2004. Canada: Brooks/Cole. Copyright 2004 by Brooks/Cole-Thomson Learning. Reprinted with permission.

As mentioned before, the term object relations is used for the individual's internal world consisting of the relations between the representation of the self and the object. Figure 1.1. reveales the effect of individual's past interactions with his/her parents on future relations with others. As seen in the figure, the inner mental world of the individuals has a relation with the external world. Person A tends to perceive Person B (St.Clair & Wigren, 2004) according to previous experiences with Parent C and D. Because A internalized past interactions with his/her parents, he/she will replicate this experience in future intimate interpersonal relationships through projectively identified parents to Person B.

Klein (1957) revealed the development of an individual in terms of the relationships between internalized and external objects. According to her, during the first four or five months the infant tends to perceive parts of the objects, but over time s/he is able to focus on the whole object. Klein (1957) refers to this development as the movement from the *paranoid-schizoid position* to the *depressive position*. The first position's name is paranoid-schizoid position

because the infant believed that his/her own ego will be destroyed (St.Clair & Wigren, 2004). Due to these paranoid beliefs preserving the ego from destructive impulses, sadistic anxieties, and extreme emotional reactions become the primary goal of the infant. To feel safe, the infant shows excessive effort to separate the goodness of the needed object from the badness through a splitting mechanism. Therefore, if an object instils fear or anxiety in this infant, s/he perceives this "bad" object as a new object different from the needed one, and to defend the ego from this badness, s/he tries to annihilate it (St.Clair & Wigren, 2004). When the infant begins to integrate the good and the bad parts, and so perceives the object as a whole, the depressive position which lasts throughout life is experienced (Koeningsberg et al., 2000). With the depressive position, the infant discovers that the loved object is separate from the self. Moreover, ambivalent feelings and depressed anxiety about the whole object that is related with the infant appear in the internal process (St.Clair & Wigren, 2004). To protect the ego from guilt, aggression, feelings of annihilation towards the loved object, and despair, the infant develops new defenses such as denial in this depressive position (St.Clair & Wigren, 2004).

Winnicott (1971) claimed that if there is no good-enough mother (not necessarily the infant's biological mother), the infant can never face reality. Good-enough mothers can adapt the infant's needs actively, and gradually this adaptation loses power depending on the infant's growing ability or maturity level which is related to the mother's altruism, not intellectual ability. After birth, the mother begins, with full adaptation, to meet the infant's needs. In times, when her adaptation becomes lesser, the infant has to deal with disappointment on the mother's failure, so due to this incomplete adaptation, objects become real for the infant. It means the hated object and the loved object ensure the integrity in one person.

According to Kernberg (1976), defense use and having psychopathology in adulthood depend on the degree of ego integration, coherence, and realism. The persistence of early introjections and pathological continuity of splitting indicate

the fixation in early object relations. In addition to persistence of splitting, degree of fragmentation and primitive emotional reactions in the representation world also predict the level of developmental spectrum from a low level, near-psychotic organization, to a near-neurotic level of personality organization, namely psychotic, borderline, neurotic, and normal (Kernberg, 1976). The studies of Widiger (1992) and Greene (1996) indicated that primitive defenses such as splitting and denial, and the disorganized and fragmented internalized object relations including insecure, egocentric, and alienated view of self in the world are related with the symptomatologies of borderline and narcissistic personality pathology. Briefly, defense mechanisms possessing fundamental importance particularly in object relations theory, regarding both individual development and personality symptomatology have significant roles in psychoanalytical studies.

1.5. Perceived Parental Rearing Styles

According to both the traditional view and psychological theories (Freud, 1900/1953; Rogers, 1961), characteristic features or personality patterns of adults are significantly related to the attitudes of parents towards them during their infancy and childhood period. Recently, most of the studies revealed that psychological disorders, such as depression and anxiety (Gerlsma, Emmelkamp, & Arrindell, 1990; Parker, 1983), personality pathology (Parker, Tupling, & Brown, 1979; Thimm, 2010), and also personality traits (Lundberg, Perris, & Adolfsson, 2000) are associated with parental rearing styles.

Although studies could not reveal a direct effect of perceived parenting styles on personality patterns, the most common results are that there is a significant correlation between these variables (Lundberg et al., 2000). Thimm (2010) conducted a study with 149 psychiatric outpatients 48% of whom were diagnosed with DSM-IV criteria of at least one Cluster A PDs, 37% of whom were diagnosed with Cluster B PDs, and 67% of whom were diagnosed with Cluster C PDs. The results indicated that individuals with Cluster A and B

personality pathology perceive their parents as rejective, and only mothers as less emotionally warmth, and these features predicted having personality symptoms of these clusters during adulthood. Furthermore, rejection from fathers was only associated with Cluster C personality symptomatology (Thimm, 2010). Although the study of Nordahl and Stiles (1997) with psychiatric outpatients and normal control revealed that higher parental overprotection is related to Cluster B PDs, according to Thimm's study (2010), there is no significant relationship between parental overprotection and personality disorder symptomatology. Specifically, patients with borderline personality disorder tend to perceive both parents as less emotionally warm and overprotective (Parker et al., 1979; Nickell, Waudby, & Trull, 2002) while patients with antisocial personality disorder reported low levels of emotional warmth from both the mothers and fathers (Norden, Klein, Donaldson, Pepper, & Klein, 1995). Less emotional warmth from mothers and overprotection from fathers correlated with schizoid personality symptoms (Norden et al., 1995).

Although most of the researchers investigate the relationship between parental attitudes and personality development, as seen above, there has been no consensus yet. According to McCrae and Costa (1988), attitudes of parents towards children is not the sole effect on children's personality development. Genetic features, environment, socio-economic status, peer groups, and adult life experiences may also influence personality (McCrae & Costa, 1988). Furthermore, personality traits may also induce perceptions of parents' rearing styles. For instance, Agreeable individuals are known as confident, kind, and pleasant; therefore, they may tend to report their parents as more emotionally warm. However, Neuroticistic individuals may perceive their parents as rejective because they tend to complain about all aspects of their life (McCrae & Costa, 1988). In short, since there is no consensus on the relationship between perceived parental rearing styles and personality patterns, and the direction of the effect, future studies focusing on this relationship are needed.

1.6. Aims of the Study

On the basis of the above literature review, the aim of the present study is to understand the relations among object relations (i.e., alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, & social incompetence), defense mechanisms (immature, neurotic, & mature), and personality patterns (i.e., symptomatology & trait) (see Figure 1.2). Moreover, beyond object relations the role of perceived parental rearing styles (i.e., overprotection, rejection, & emotional warm) on defense use and developing personality patterns is also investigated in this study (see Figure 1.3). Considering the analyses, differences indicated by the demographic variables (i.e., gender & age) on these measures of the current study; and associations of the measures with the relevant dependent variables were also analyzed. Finally, the whole suggested model given in Figure 1.2. was tested via path analyses.

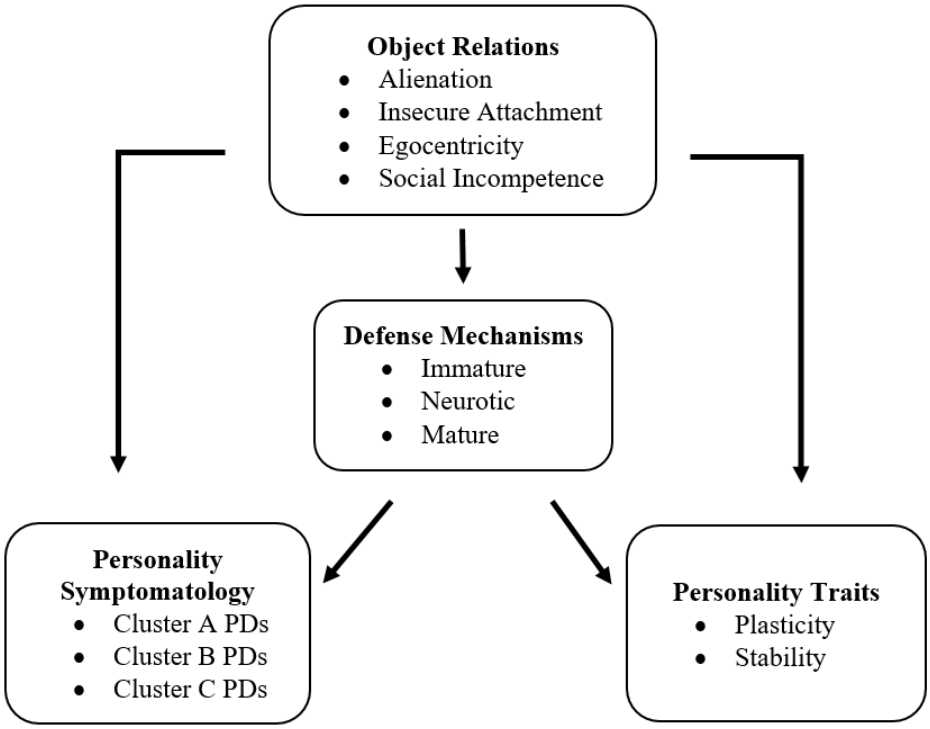

Figure 1.2. *Proposed Model of the Study with Object Relations*

The hypotheses of this first proposed model considering object relations are:

1. Internalized object relations (i.e., alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, & social incompetence) are associated with the maturity of defense mechanisms (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature)
2. Internalized object relations are associated with developing personality patterns (i.e., symptomatology & traits)
3. Maturity level of defenses that are predominantly used by the individuals are associated with the developing personality symptomatology (i.e., DSM-IV-TR: Clusters A PDs, Cluster B PDs, & Cluster C PDs) after controlling for object relations.
4. Defense mechanisms that are utilized by individuals are associated with their personality traits (i.e., plasticity & stability), after controlling for object relations.
5. Defense mechanisms mediate the relationship between object relations and personality symptomatology.
6. Defense mechanisms mediate the relationship between object relations and personality traits.

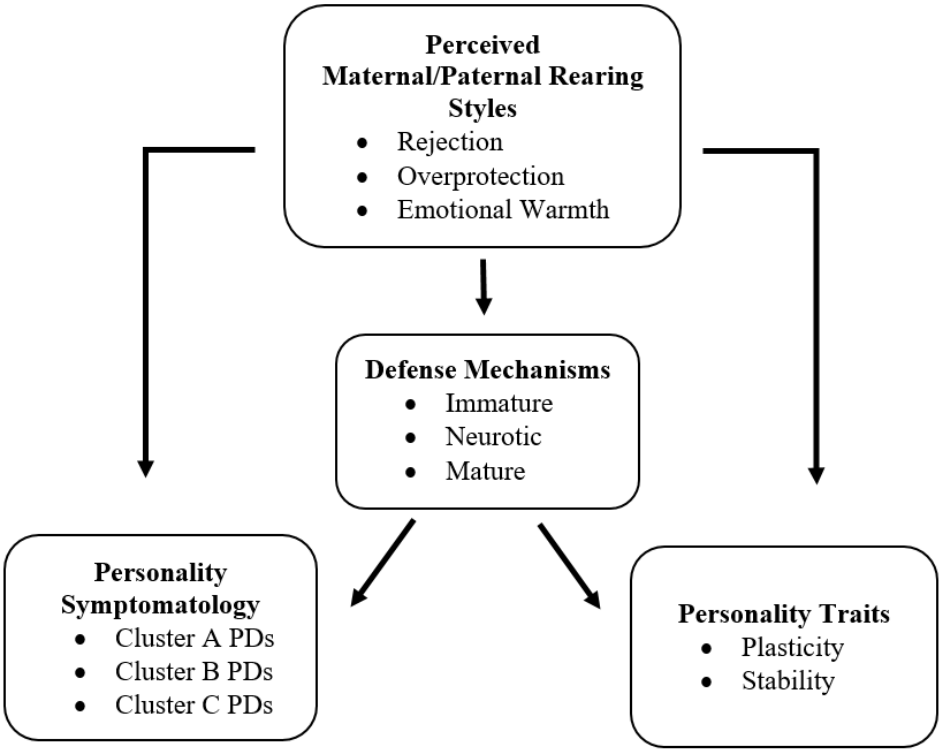

Figure 1.3. *Proposed Model of the Study with Perceived Parental Rearing Styles*

The hypotheses of this second proposed model considering perceived parental rearing styles are:

1. Perceived maternal and paternal rearing styles are separately (i.e., rejection, overprotection, & emotional warmth) associated with the maturity of defense mechanisms.
2. Perceived maternal and paternal rearing styles are associated with developing personality patterns (i.e., symptomatology & traits)
3. The maturity level of defenses that are predominantly used by the individuals are associated with developing personality symptomatology (i.e., DSM-IV-TR: Clusters A PDs, Cluster B PDs, & Cluster C PDs) after controlling for perceived parental rearing styles.
4. Defense mechanisms that are adopted by individuals are associated with their personality traits (i.e., plasticity & stability) after controlling for perceived parental rearing styles.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Participants

This study was conducted with 823 volunteer participants (557 females, 264 males, & 2 not reported) between ages of 18 and 67 (M = 28.10, sd = 8.94). Before the study, the participants were asked to fill out the Demographic Information Form (see Appendix A), which included questions concerning general characteristics, family environment corresponding to first 5 years, and history of health attitudes and conditions. Demographic characteristics of the participants were presented in the Table 2.1.

Taking into account the education levels of the participants, 205 participants (24.9 %) were graduate students or alumni, 527 participants (64.2 %) were undergraduate students or alumni, 78 participants (9.5 %) graduated from high school, 10 participants (1.2 %) completed secondary school, and 2 participants (0.2 %) had a primary school degree (see Table 2.1).

As for the income, 644 of the participants (78.3 %) reported middle level of income; while, 73 of them (8.9 %) reported low level of income, and 98 of them (11.9 %) reported high level of income (see Table 2.1).

In terms of the marital status of the participants, while 587 of them (71.3 %) were single, 201 participants (23.4 %) were married or living together with their partners. Furthermore, 32 participants (3.9 %) were divorced, widowed, or had been living apart from their wife/husband (see Table 2.1).

In terms of family background, participants were asked questions regarding home environment corresponding to their first 5 years. 774 participants (94 %) reported that they had lived with their biological mothers and fathers together during this 5-year period. However, in that stage of life, 28 participants (3.4 %) reported that their mothers and fathers got divorced, and for 11 of the participants (1.3 %) one of the parents passed away (see Table 2.1).

In order to control physiological factors having effect on personality characteristics, participants were asked questions about physical traumas, alcohol consumption, and substance use. Although 32 of the participants (3.9 %) reported having physical traumas, 512 of them (62.2 %) reported that they consumed alcohol, and 40 of them (4.9 %) used illegal substances; none of the participants reported chronic effects of these experiences or consumptions on their psychological well-being (see Table 2.1).

Lastly, with respect to the psychological problems and treatment history, 121 participants (14.7 %) reported psychological problems such as mood disorders, anxiety disorders, Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder, and emotion regulation problems; and 77 of all participants (9.4 %) had gone through psychological treatment including psychotherapy and/or psychotropic medications (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1. *Demographic Characteristics of the Participants*

Variables	**N (823 Participants)**	**%**
Gender	**Total: 821 (2 missing/ 0.2 %)**	
Female	557	67.7
Male	264	32.1
Age	**Total: 816 (7 missing/ 0.9 %)**	
Late Adolescence (ages between 18 and 21)	207	25.2
Emerging Adulthood (ages between 22 and 25)	195	23.7
Adulthood (ages between 26 and 30)	205	24.9
Established Adulthood (ages between 31-67)	209	25.4
Education	**Total: 822 (1 missing/ 0.1 %)**	
Primary School	2	0.2
Secondary School	10	1.2
High School	78	9.5
Undergraduate Students or Alumni	527	64.2
Graduate Students or Alumni	205	24.9
Income	**Total: 822 (7 missing/ 0.9 %)**	
Low Level	73	8.9
Middle Level	644	78.3
High Level	98	11.9
Marital Status	**Total: 820 (3 missing/ 0.4 %)**	
Single	587	71.3
Married or Live Together	201	23.4
Divorced / Widow / Live Apart	32	3.9

Table 2.1. *(cont.'d) Demographic Characteristics of the Participants*

Variables	N (823 Participants)	%
Home Environment for first	**Total: 813 (10 missing/ 1.2 %)**	
5-Year		
With Biological Mother & Father	774	94
Having Divorced Parents	28	3.4
Lost One of the Parents	11	1.3
Health History		
Physical Trauma History	32	3.9
Alcohol Consumption	512	62.2
Substance Use	40	4.9
History of Psychological		
Problems		
Having Psychological Problems	121	14.7
Having Psychological Treatment	77	9.4

2.2. Measures

In the current study, a demographic form mentioned above, Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran - My Memories of Upbringing, Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory, Defense Style Questionnaire, Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory L and K Subscales, Personality Belief Questionnaire, and Basic Personality Traits Inventory were utilized.

Internal consistency coefficients and item-total range for full-scales and subscales of the current study are presented in the Table 3.2.

2.2.1. Egna Minnen Beträffande Uppfostran - My Memories of Upbringing (s-EMBU)

Short-EMBU is developed to measure participants' perceptions of their parents' child rearing behaviors (Arrindell et al., 1999). Although the original version of this scale consists of 81-item (Perris, Jacobsson, Lindstrom, von Knorring, & Perris, 1980), short-EMBU has 23 items with 4-point Likert type scale on which responses range from 1 (never) to 4 (most of the time). The scale has three factors namely rejection (abusive, depriving, punitive, shaming, favouring subjects over the child, and rejecting), emotional warmth (affectionate, tolerant, performance oriented and stimulating), and overprotection/control (interference of parent, fearful and anxious approach) which are calculated for mothers and fathers separately.

The Turkish adaptation of the scale (see Appendix B) was carried out by Karancı et al. (2006) as part of a cross-cultural study. Results of the study showed that the alpha coefficients for mothers' rejection (e.g., Anne ve babam, bana hak ettiğimden daha çok fiziksel ceza verirlerdi), emotional warmth (e.g., Anne ve babam, sözleri ve hareketleriyle beni sevdiklerini gösterirlerdi), and overprotection (e.g., Anne ve babamın yaptığım her şeye karıştıklarını hissederdim) subscales were .80, .76, and .76, respectively. For the fathers, the alpha coefficients for rejection, emotional warmth, and overprotection subscales were .82, .79, and .79 respectively.

2.2.2. Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory (BORRTI)

BORRTI developed by Bell (1995) includes 90 descriptive statements that are answered via true or false responses reflecting individuals' most recent experiences. In this inventory there are two scales, Object Relations including factors of alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, and social incompetence; and Reality Testing with reality distortion, uncertainty of

perception, and hallucinations and delusions factors. Each scale is represented by 45 items corresponding to various levels of Object Relations and Reality Testing ego functioning. Internal consistency was assessed by calculating Cronbach's alpha for each subscale. Results of the analysis revealed that the alpha coefficients for alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, and social incompetence were .90, .82, .78, .79, and for reality distortion, uncertainty of perception, and hallucinations and delusions were .87, .82, .85, respectively (Bell, 1995). In the current study only the Object Relations Scale was utilized in statistical analyses. Thus only the subscales of the Object Relations will be mentioned below.

2.2.2.1. Alienation

In general, high *alienation* scores reveal that individuals experience a basic lack of trust in their relationships. Therefore, they have a tendency to be suspicious or guarded, and isolate themselves from social life. They have serious difficulties with intimacy, and sense of connection or belongingness. Depending on the elevations on this subscale, borderline, narcissistic, histrionic, and schizoid personality patterns can be interpreted (Bell, 1995).

2.2.2.2. Insecure Attachment

Individuals with high *insecure attachment* scores are more likely to be sensitive to being rejected by others. Insecurely attached individuals cannot tolerate separation, loss, and loneliness. Furthermore, because they neurotically concern about being liked or accepted by others, their relationships are dominated by excessive anxiety or worry about potential abandonment. Elevations on this subscale are most commonly found in avoidant, obsessive-compulsive, dependent, or passive-aggressive personality disorders (Bell, 1995).

2.2.2.3. Egocentricity

Individuals with high score on the *egocentricity* often perceive their own selves as the center of the world, and except their own self-centered aims other

individuals should have no personal interests, beliefs, or attitudes. In their relationships, these individuals tend to be self-protective, intrusive, coercive, demanding, manipulating, and controlling. When egocentricity score is elevated, it suggests patterns of antisocial, narcissistic, and histrionic personality disorders (Bell, 1995).

2.2.2.4. Social Incompetence

High *social incompetence* scores suggest shyness, nervousness, uncertainty about interaction with others. According to them interpersonal relationships are unpredictable, thus they tend to avoid and escape from anxiety evoking situations (Bell, 1995).

This inventory was adapted to Turkish by Uluç, Tüzün, Haseldan, and Erbaş (2015) (see Appendix C for sample items). In their study internal consistency coefficients of subscales of Object Relations were found as follows: .80 for alienation (e.g., Birine güvendiğimde genellikle pişman olurum), .74 for insecure attachment (e.g., Birdenbire içime kapanabilir ve haftalarca kimseyle konuşmayabilirim), .70 for egocentricity (e.g., İnsanlar, onları görmediğimde, yoktur), and .73 for social incompetence (e.g., Karşı cinsten olanlarla nasıl tanışılacağı ya da konuşulacağını bilmem).

2.2.3. Defense Style Questionnaire (DSQ-40)

Defense Style Questionnaire composes of 20 defenses each of which is represented by 2 items. As for each item, participants are asked to answer on a 9-point Likert type scale. The questionnaire has 3 factors namely *immature defenses* including acting out, autistic fantasy, denial, devaluation, displacement, dissociation, isolation, passive aggression, projection, rationalization, splitting, and somatization defenses; *neurotic defenses* including idealization, pseudoaltruism, reaction formation, and undoing defenses; and *mature defenses* including anticipation, humor, sublimation, and suppression. Test-re-test

reliability for these factors ranged from .75 to .85 (Andrews, Singh, & Bond, 1993).

The Turkish adaptation of the scale (see Appendix D) was carried out by Yılmaz, Gençöz, and Ak (2007) with 190 participants. The results of the study showed that the internal consistency of the mature (e.g., Endişemin üstesinden gelmek için yapıcı ve yaratıcı şeylerle uğraşırım), neurotic (e.g., Sık sık, kendimi kesinlikle kızmam gereken insanlara iyi davranırken bulurum), and immature (e.g., Bazen bir melek olduğumu, bazen de bir şeytan olduğumu düşünürüm) defense styles were .70, .61, and .83, respectively. Moreover, 3 defense styles had acceptable split-half reliability and test-retest reliability coefficients.

2.2.4. Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI)

MMPI was developed by Hathaway and McKinley in 1940 with the aim of assessing personal and social adjustment. MMPI has 566 items in total. Respondents answers these items via true or false statements. There are three validity measures; namely, lie, validity, and correction. Moreover, MMPI also includes 10 clinical scales that are hypochondriasis, depression, hysteria, psychotic deviate, masculinity-femininity, paranoia, psychasthenia, schizophrenia, hypomania, and social introversion. In the current study, The Turkish version of the inventory adapted by Savaşır in 1978 was used, and only two subscales, namely Lie and Correction scales, were included into the analyses.

2.2.4.1. Lie Scale (MMPI-L Subscale)

The aim of the MMPI Lie Subscale is to measure attitudes and practices that are appropriate for social life; however, these practices are rarely performed. These 15 items tap individuals' efforts of reflecting themselves like a decent person. Test-retest reliability change between .74 and .78, while it varies from .35 to .61 for a longer duration up to one year (Dahlstrom, Welsh, & Dahlstrom, 1972)

2.2.4.2. Correction Scale (MMPI-K Subscale)

The aim of the MMPI-K Subscale can be utilized for the correction for defensiveness of the respondents. K subscale is also considered as an indicator of psychopathology. Although individuals with high K scores often have serious psychological problems, they tend to be defensive about having psychological problems. In other words, high K scores are related with defensive attitudes of individuals with psychological problems. In MMPI-K subscale, there are 30 items. A meta-analytic study covering 72 individual studies revealed internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of the scale as .82 (Hunsley, Hanson, & Parker, 1988).

2.2.5. Personality Belief Questionnaire (PBQ)

Personality Belief Questionnaire developed by Beck and Beck (1991) is a self-report measure with 126 items rated on a 4-point Likert type scale. The aim of the questionnaire is assessing the dysfunctional beliefs associated with personality disorders. There are nine subscales with equal number of items (i.e., 14) corresponding to nine personality disorders namely passive-aggressive, obsessive-compulsive, antisocial, narcissistic, histrionic, schizoid, paranoid, dependent, and avoidant personality disorders on Axis II of the DSM-III-R (APA, 1987). Additionally, a 14-item subscale for beliefs related with borderline personality disorder of DSM-IV was constructed from PBQ's dependent, paranoid, avoidant, and histrionic subscales with a good internal consistency and diagnostic validity (Butler, Brown, Beck & Grisham, 2002). Butler, Beck, and Cohen (2007) investigated psychometric properties of the PBQ among psychiatric outpatients. This study indicated that the internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) of PBQ subscales ranged between .79 to .91.

As mentioned in the Introduction Section, in DSM-IV personality disorders were categorized in three groups, namely Cluster A, Cluster B, and Cluster C Personality Disorders (PDs). Patients with personality disorders in Cluster A

have odd or eccentric characteristics (e.g., İlişkiye girmemek koşuluyla, diğer insanları kendi amaçlarım için kullanabilirim); those with personality disorders in Cluster B have dramatic, emotional or erratic characteristics (e.g., Yaptığım yanıma kar kalacağı için ortaya çıkacak kötü sonuçlar hakkında endişelenmeme gerek yok); and those with personality disorders in Cluster C have anxious or fearful characteristics (e.g., Bir ilişkiyi mümkün olduğunca yakın hale getirmeliyim) (APA, 1994). In the current study, these clusters were also utilized as separate measures. In PBQ, Cluster A includes Schizoid and Paranoid PDs; Cluster B includes Antisocial, Narcissistic, Histrionic, and Borderline PDs; and Cluster C includes Avoidant, Dependent, and Obsessive-Compulsive PDs.

The PBQ was adapted to Turkish by Turkçapar, Örsel, Uğurlu, Sargın, Turhan, Akkoyunlu, et al., (2007) with 232 university students (see Appendix E). The internal consistency reliability for overall scale was .95; whereas, Cronbach's alpha values for the subscales ranged between .67 and .90, and test-re-test reliabilities ranged between .74 and .78.

2.2.6. Basic Personality Traits Inventory (BPTI)

BPTI (see Appendix F) developed by Gençöz and Öncül (2012) for Turkish culture aimed to assess the basic personality traits based on the McCrae and Costa's (2003) five-factor model of personality. BPTI measures six personality types, namely extraversion, openness to experience, conscientiousness, agreeableness, neuroticism, and negative valence with 45 items rated on a 5-point Likert type scale. In psychometric study of the inventory alpha coefficients were found as .89 for extraversion, .85 for agreeableness, .83 for neuroticism, .80 for openness to experience, and .71 for negative valence. Moreover, test-retest reliability scores of these traits were ranged between .71 and .84. Furthermore, the inventory revealed satisfactory correlations with the relevant measures (Gençöz & Öncül, 2012).

DeYoung, Peterson, and Higgins (2002) suggested higher-order factors of the five-factor model of the personality. According to their model there are two general personality factors (Big Two), namely *Stability* (e.g., Paylaşımcı) including emotional stability (reversed neuroticism), agreeableness, and conscientiousness; and *Plasticity* (e.g., Kendine güvenen) including extraversion and openness to experiences. In this study, Big Two was also tested in the statistical analyses.

2.3. Procedure

Initially, necessary permission was taken from Middle East Technical University Ethical Committee. After that, a booklet including previously mentioned demographics form and other measures of the study was prepared. Before filling in the booklet, all participants signed the informed consent (see Appendix G) form which was consisted of brief information about the study. In addition to this booklet form, questionnaires and the informed consent form were responded on an online survey portal, Survey Monkey. The study was announced to social media users and e-mail groups. Moreover, after taking permissions from the instructors of the courses offered at METU Psychology Department, students who filled out the online survey voluntarily took extra credits. It took participants about 30-45 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

2.4. Statistical Analyses

In this study, the data was analyzed through the Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS), version 20.0 for Windows. Before the analyses, the data accuracy was checked. In this step, participants who did not complete most of the questions were excluded from the data. After that, descriptive information of the measures, internal reliability through Cronbach alpha coefficients and item total correlations for each measure, and correlation coefficients among all variables of the study were calculated. To investigate the differences revealed by

the demographic variables on the measures of the study, a series of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and to examine the associations of the measures with the relevant dependent variables (following the path suggested on Figure 1.2 & Figure 1.3) hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted. Furthermore, in order to test the suggested model path analyses (see Figure 1.2) were conducted via LISREL 8.5 for Windows.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Statistical Analyses

In the initial part of the results section, descriptive information regarding Egna Minnen Betraffande Uppfostran – My Memories of Upbringing (short-EMBU), Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory (BORRTI), Defense Style Questionnaire (DSQ), Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory L and K Subscales (MMPI L & K Subscales), Personality Belief Questionnaire (PBQ), and Basic Personality Traits Inventory (BPTI), and the subscales of all these measures are presented. After investigating internal reliability through Cronbach alpha coefficients and item total correlations for each measure, correlation coefficients among all variables of the study were tested. Additionally, in order to investigate how demographic variables make distinction on the measures of the current study separate multivariate analyses were conducted. Moreover, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to examine the significant associates of personality patterns (i.e., symptomatology & general traits). Lastly, in order to test the mediating effect of defense styles between object relations and personality patterns two path analyses were conducted.

Prior these analyses, the data were screened to check for the accurate data entry, and missing values. Initially, participants who had more than half missing answers in the inventory were excluded from the study. Then, in order to prevent confusion in future analyses due to incorrectly entered data, minimum and maximum scores of all variables were checked. After checking for the data entry, to deal with the missing data the cases' mean scores were replaced for the omitted items.

3.2. Descriptive Information for the Measures of the Study

The characteristics of the current study's measures were examined by means of standard deviations, means, minimum and maximum ranges for the variables and their subscales. These were Egna Minnen Betraffande Uppfostran – My Memories of Upbringing (s-EMBU) with subscales of Rejection, Over-protection, and Emotional Warmth for both mother and father; Object Relations scale of Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory (BORRTI) including Alienation, Insecure Attachment, Egocentricity, and Social Incompetence; Defense Style Questionnaire (DSQ) with subscales of Immature, Neurotic, and Mature Defenses; Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory L and K Subscales (MMPI L & K Subscales); Personality Belief Questionnaire (PBQ) with subscales of Avoidant, Dependent, Passive-Aggressive, Obsessive-Compulsive, Antisocial, Narcissistic, Histrionic, Schizoid, Paranoid, and Borderline Personality Disorders (PDs), and also DSM-IV (APA, 1994) diagnostic groups, Cluster A (i.e., Paranoid & Schizoid), Cluster B (i.e. Antisocial, Borderline, Histrionic, & Narcissistic), and Cluster C (i.e., Avoidant, Dependent, & Obsessive-Compulsive); and lastly Basic Personality Traits Inventory (BPTI) with subscales of Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Neuroticism, and Negative Valance. BPTI was also examined with its general factors namely "Plasticity" including Extraversion, and Openness to Experience variables, and "Stability" including Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Neuroticism variables (DeYoung, et. al., 2002) (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1. *Descriptive Information for the Measures*

Measures	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range (Min.-Max.)
s-EMBU				
Mother	*821*	*50.18*	*7.59*	*27-76*
Rejection (Mother)	820	9.78	3.26	7-28
Over-protection/control (Mother)	821	20.47	5.39	10-36
Emotional Warmth (Mother)	820	19.92	4.50	7-28
Father	*816*	*46.73*	*8.16*	*23-73*
Rejection (Father)	815	9.66	3.55	7-28
Over-protection/control (Father)	816	18.93	5.49	9-36
Emotional Warmth (Father)	817	18.12	4.87	7-28
BORRTI				
Object Relations	*822*	*21.78*	*12.62*	*0-61*
Alienation	822	10.57	7.91	0-38
Insecure Attachment	822	9.30	5.11	0-22
Egocentricity	822	6.61	4.88	0-20
Social Incompetence	822	4.06	4.34	0-15
DSQ	*823*	*172.77*	*35.95*	*71-307*
Immature Defenses	823	91.72	26.65	27-72
Neurotic Defenses	823	36.61	10.09	10-69
Mature Defenses	823	44.45	10.49	13-179
MMPI L & K Subscales				
MMPI-L	823	11.02	2.30	2-15
MMPI-K	823	19.00	4.02	4-29
PBQ				
Avoidant PD	823	20.52	8.75	0-55
Dependent PD	823	18.80	9.78	0-56
Passive-Aggressive PD	821	25.89	9.72	0-56
Obsessive-Compulsive PD	822	26.78	10.21	0-56
Antisocial PD	823	14.71	9.08	0-55
Narcissistic PD	823	15.46	10.48	0-56
Histrionic PD	823	17.89	9.65	0-56

Table 3.1. *(cont.'d) Descriptive Information for the Measures*

Measures	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range (Min.-Max.)
Schizoid PD	823	22.75	9.15	0-56
Paranoid PD	821	16.43	11.25	0-55
Borderline PD	822	15.52	9.07	0-54
Cluster A PDs	*821*	*39.18*	*18.08*	*0-111*
Cluster B PDs	*823*	*63.57*	*33.26*	*0-217*
Cluster C PDs	*821*	*66.08*	*23.77*	*0-167*
BPTI	*823*	*146.58*	*14.37*	*97-203*
Openness to Experience	823	21.81	4.16	6-30
Conscientiousness	823	28.73	5.89	8-40
Extraversion	823	28.55	6.84	10-40
Agreeableness	823	33.75	4.44	19-40
Neuroticism	823	24.37	6.69	9-45
Negative Valence	823	9.36	3.01	6-22
Plasticity	*823*	*50.36*	*9.65*	*17-70*
Stability	*823*	*92.10*	*11.83*	*55-123*

Note: **s-EMBU:** short-EMBU (Egna Minnen Betraffande Uppfostran – My Memories of Upbringing); **BORRTI:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory; **DSQ**: Defense Style Questionnaire; **MMPI L & K Subscales:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory L and K Subscales; **PBQ:** Personality Belief Questionnaire; **PD:** Personality Disorder; **BPTI:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory

3.3. Reliability Analyses

The internal consistency coefficients (i.e., Cronbach alpha coefficients) and the ranges for the item-total correlations for the measures of the study are provided in Table 3.2. As can be seen from the table, both full-scales (ranging between .73 and .97), and subscales (ranging between .60 and .95) revealed satisfactory internal reliability coefficients.

Table 3.2. *Internal Consistency Coefficients and Item-Total Range for Full-scales and Subscales*

Scale	N of Items	Item-Total Corr. Range	Cronbach's α
s-EMBU			
Mother (N = 762)	*23*	*.05-.57*	*.73*
Rejection (Mother)	7	.44-.65	.82
Over-protection/control (Mother)	9	.34-.66	.82
Emotional Warmth (Mother)	7	.38-.71	.83
Father (N = 773)	*23*	*.01-.59*	*.76*
Rejection (Father)	7	.44-.67	.85
Over-protection/control (Father)	9	.35-.70	.83
Emotional Warmth (Father)	7	.43-.73	.84
BORRTI			
Object Relations (N = 802)	*37*	*.13-.58*	*.84*
Alienation	22	.24-.58	.78
Insecure Attachment	15	.20-.48	.72
Egocentricity	12	.18-.49	.67
Social Incompetence	6	.27-.66	.74
DSQ (N = 813)	*40*	*.10-.52*	*.84*
Immature Defenses	24	.19-.58	.84
Neurotic Defenses	8	.17-.39	.60
Mature Defenses	8	.28-.51	.68
MMPI L & K Subscales (N = 811)			
MMPI-L	15	.13-.35	.61
MMPI-K	30	.02-.41	.66
PBQ	*126*	*.13-.66*	*.97*
Avoidant PD	14	.20-.58	.83
Dependent PD	14	.25-.60	.87
Passive-Aggressive PD	14	.22-.61	.85

Table 3.2. *(cont.'d) Internal Consistency Coefficients and Item-Total Range for Full-scales and Subscales*

Scale	N of Items	Item-Total Corr. Range	Cronbach's α
Obsessive-Compulsive PD	14	.33-.67	.88
Antisocial PD	14	.13-.70	.87
Narcissistic PD	14	.50-.73	.90
Histrionic PD	14	.28-.70	.88
Schizoid PD	14	.38-.61	.85
Paranoid PD	14	.49-.77	.93
Borderline PD	14	.41-.57	.85
Cluster A PDs (N = 800)	*28*	*.23-.70*	*.93*
Cluster B PDs (N = 787)	*56*	*.17-.70*	*.95*
Cluster C PDs (N = 783)	*42*	*.21-.59*	*.92*
BPTI	45	.01-.59	.79
Openness to Experience	6	.24-.68	.76
Conscientiousness	8	.43-.67	.84
Extraversion	8	.51-.78	.88
Agreeableness	8	.51-.68	.86
Neuroticism	9	.35-.64	.81
Negative Valence	6	.22-.50	.67
Plasticity (N = 823)	*14*	*.23-.73*	*.88*
Stability (N = 819)	*25*	*.13-.50*	*.84*

Note: **s-EMBU:** short-EMBU (Egna Minnen Betraffande Uppfostran – My Memories of Upbringing); **BORRTI:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory; **DSQ:** Defense Style Questionnaire; **MMPI L & K Subscales:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory L and K Subscales; **PBQ:** Personality Belief Questionnaire; **PD:** Personality Disorders; **BPTI:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory

3.4. Pearson Correlation Coefficients among the Measures of the Study

In order to examine the relationship between perceived parental rearing styles, object relations, defense mechanisms including defense styles, tendency to lie, and ego defense, clusters of personality disorders and general personality traits, subscales of both mother and father form of short-EMBU (Egna Minnen Betraffande Uppfostran- My Memories of Upbringing) (i.e., rejection, over-protection/control, & emotional warmth), subscales of Object Relations form of Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory (i.e., alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, & social incompetence), subscales of Defense Style Questionnaire (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature Defenses), Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory L and K Subscales, clusters of Personality Belief Questionnaire (i.e., Cluster A, B, & C Personality Disorders), general factors of Basic Personality Traits Inventory (i.e., stability & plasticity), and demographic variables (i.e., gender & age) Pearson correlation analyses were conducted. Correlation coefficient values greater than .30 were accepted as moderate and values greater than .50 as strong correlations (Field, 2005).

Analysis of correlations (as seen in Table 3.3) between demographic variables (i.e., Gender & Age) and other variables of this study did not reveal even a moderate correlation.

Table 3.3. *Kendall (Gender) and Pearson (Age) Correlation Coefficients between Demographic Variables and Other Measures of the Study*

	Gender (Kendall)	Age (Pearson)
Gender	1	
Age	.01	1
s-EMBU		
M. Rejection	-.13**	.00
M. Over-protection	-.11**	-.03
M. Emotional Warmth	-.06*	-.06
F. Rejection	-.04	-.01
F. Over-protection	-.09**	-.01
F. Emotional Warmth	-.06*	-.02
BORRTI		
Alienation	-.04	-.07*
Insecure Attachment	-.11**	-.07
Egocentricity	-.05	-.07*
Social Incompetence	-.02	-.06
DSQ		
Immature D.	-.01	-.05
Neurotic D.	-.10**	-.02
Mature D.	-.01	-.01
MMPI		
MMPI-L	-.02	-.06
MMPI-K	-.08**	-.11**
PBQ		
Cluster A PDs	.06*	-.06
Cluster B PDs	.03	-.05
Cluster C PDs	-.01	-.04
BPTI		
Plasticity	.02	.05
Stability	-.14**	.19**

$^{*}p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$

Note: **s-EMBU**: short-EMBU (Egna Minnen Betraffande Uppfostran – My Memories of Upbringing); **M. Rejection**: short-EMBU Mother Rejection subscale; **M. Over-protection:** short-EMBU Mother Over-protection/control subscale; **M. Emotional Warmth:** short-EMBU Mother Emotional Warmth subscale; **F. Rejection:** short-EMBU Father Rejection subscale; **F. Over-protection:** short-EMBU Father Over-protection/control subscale; **F. Emotional Warmth:** short-EMBU Father Emotional Warmth subscale; **BORRTI**: Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory; **Alienation:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory Alienation subscale; **Insecure Attachment:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory Insecure Attachment subscale; **Egocentricity:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory Egocentricity subscale; **Social Incompetence:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory Social Incompetence subscale; **DSQ**: Defense Style Questionnaire; **Immature D.:** Defense Style Questionnaire Immature Defenses subscale; **Neurotic D.:** Defense Style Questionnaire Neurotic Defenses subscale; **Mature D.:** Defense Style Questionnaire Mature Defenses subscale; **MMPI:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory; **MMPI-L:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory L Subscale; **MMPI-K:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory K Subscale **PBQ**: Personality Belief Questionnaire; **Cluster A PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster A Personality Disorders subscale; **Cluster B PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster B Personality Disorders subscale; **Cluster C PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster C Personality Disorders subscale; **BPTI**: Basic Personality Traits Inventory; **Plasticity:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory general factor of Plasticity; **Stability:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory general factor of Stability.

Analysis of s-EMBU subscales' correlations with all variables of the study (as shown in Table 3.4) indicated that; mother rejection had strong positive correlation only with s-EMBU-father rejection ($r = .58$, $p < .01$), moderate positive correlation with s-EMBU-mother over-protection/control ($r = .48$, $p < .01$) and s-EMBU-father over-protection/control ($r = .33$, $p < .01$), and moderate negative correlation with s-EMBU-mother emotional warmth ($r = -.48$, $p < .01$) and s-EMBU-father emotional warmth ($r = .32$, $p < .01$); Father rejection had strong positive correlation with s-EMBU-father over-protection/control ($r = .50$, $p < .01$), moderate positive correlation with s-EMBU-mother over-protection/control ($r = .31$, $p < .01$), and moderate negative correlation with s-EMBU-father emotional warmth ($r = -.46$, $p < .01$). Moreover, the correlations were strongly positive between s-EMBU-mother and father over-protection/control ($r = .66$, $p < .01$), and s-EMBU-mother and father emotional warmth variables ($r = .64$, $p < .01$).

Table 3.4. *Pearson Correlation Coefficients between s-EMBU Variables and Other Variables of the Study*

	M. Reject.	**M. Protect**	**M. Warm.**	**F. Reject.**	**F. Protect**	**F. Warm.**
S-EMBU						
M. Reject.	1					
M. Protect.	.48**	1				
M. Warm.	-.48**	-.11**	1			
F. Reject.	.58**	.31**	-.26**	1		
F. Protect.	.33**	.66**	-.07	.50**	1	
F. Warm.	-.32**	-.12**	.64**	-.46**	-.07*	1
BORRTI						
Alienation	.20**	.19**	-.17**	.28**	.20**	-.26**
Insecure Attachment	.27**	.27**	-.11**	.28**	.26**	-.19**
Egocentricity	.22**	.21**	-.08*	.27**	.21**	-.17**
Social Incompetence	.10**	.14**	-.09**	.17**	.14**	-.15**
DSQ						
Immature D.	.21**	.22**	-.09*	.21**	.19**	-.12**
Neurotic D.	-.05	.08**	.16**	-.04	.05	.10**
Mature D.	-.07*	-.01	.20**	-.10**	-.06	.15**
MMPI						
MMPI-L	.15**	.15**	-.02	.10**	.10**	-.08*
MMPI-K	.20**	.24**	-.01	.20**	.23**	-.08*
PBQ						
Cluster A PDs	.17**	.20**	-.05**	.19**	.16**	-.09**
Cluster B PDs	.15**	.19**	.01	.15**	.17**	-.05
Cluster C PDs	.14**	.24**	-.01	.16**	.25**	-.09**

Table 3.4. *(cont.'d) Pearson Correlation Coefficients between s-EMBU Variables and Other Variables of the Study*

	M. Reject.	M. Protect	M. Warm.	F. Reject.	F. Protect	F. Warm.
BPTI						
Plasticity	-.09*	-.14**	.16**	-.14**	-.14**	.19**
Stability	-.21**	-.12**	.20**	-.18**	-.09*	.22**

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

Note: **s-EMBU:** short-EMBU (Egna Minnen Betraffande Uppfostran – My Memories of Upbringing); **M. Reject.**: short-EMBU Mother Rejection subscale; **M. Protect.:** short-EMBU Mother Over-protection/control subscale; **M. Warm:** short-EMBU Mother Emotional Warmth subscale; **F. Reject.:** short-EMBU Father Rejection subscale; **F. Protect.:** short-EMBU Father Over-protection/control subscale; **F. Warm:** short-EMBU Father Emotional Warmth subscale; **BORRTI**: Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory; **Alienation:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory Alienation subscale; **Insecure Attachment:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory Insecure Attachment subscale; **Egocentricity:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory Egocentricity subscale; **Social Incompetence:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory Social Incompetence subscale; **DSQ**: Defense Style Questionnaire; **Immature D.:** Defense Style Questionnaire Immature Defenses subscale; **Neurotic D.:** Defense Style Questionnaire Neurotic Defenses subscale; **Mature D.:** Defense Style Questionnaire Mature Defenses subscale; **MMPI:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory; **MMPI-L:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory L Subscale; **MMPI-K:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory K Subscale **PBQ**: Personality Belief Questionnaire; **Cluster A PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster A Personality Disorders subscale; **Cluster B PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster B Personality Disorders subscale; **Cluster C PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster C Personality Disorders subscale; **BPTI**: Basic Personality Traits Inventory; **Plasticity:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory general factor of Plasticity; **Stability:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory general factor of Stability.

Analysis of correlations between BORRTI variables and other variables except mentioned in previous step revealed that; *alienation* had strong positive correlation with BORRTI-insecure attachment ($r = .66$, $p < .01$), BORRTI-egocentricity ($r = .68$, $p < .01$), BORRTI-social incompetence ($r = .74$, $p < .01$), DSQ-immature defenses ($r = .52$, $p < .01$) and PBQ-Cluster C PDs ($r = .50$, $p < .01$), strong negative correlation with general factor of BPTI, plasticity ($r = -.55$, $p < .01$), moderate positive correlation with MMPI-K subscale ($r = .45$, $p < .01$), PBQ-Cluster A PDs ($r = .45$, $p < .01$), and PBQ-Cluster B PDs ($r = .46$, $p < .01$), and moderate negative correlation with general factor of BPTI, stability ($r = -.42$, $p < .01$); *insecure attachment* had strong positive correlation with

BORRTI-egocentricity (r = .70, p <.01), BORRTI-social incompetence (r = .51, p <.01), DSQ-immature defenses (r = .60, p <.01), MMPI-K subscale (r = .56, p <.01), PBQ-Cluster B (r = .50, p <.01) and Cluster C PDs (r = .57, p <.01), moderate positive correlation with PBQ-Cluster A PDs (r = .41, p <.01) and MMPI-L subscale (r = .30, p <.01), and moderate negative correlation with BPTI-plasticity (r = -.39, p <.01) and BPTI-stability (r = -.43, p <.01; *egocentricity* had strong positive correlation with DSQ-immature defenses (r = .62, p <.01), MMPI-K subscale (r = .55, p <.01), PBQ-Cluster A (r = .51, p <.01), Cluster B (r = .55, p <.01) and Cluster C (r = .55, p <.01) PDs, moderate positive correlation with BORRTI-social incompetence (r = .40, p <.01), and moderate negative correlation only with BPTI-stability (r = -.35, p <.01); and lastly *social incompetence* had strong negative correlation only with BPTI-plasticity (r = -.58, p <.01), moderate positive correlation with DSQ-immature defenses (r = .40, p <.01), MMPI-K subscale (r = .35, p <.01), and PBQ-Cluster A (r = .31, p <.01), Cluster B (r = .33, p <.01) and Cluster C (r = .43, p <.01) PDs, and moderate negative correlation with BPTI-stability (r = -.35, p <.01) (See Table 3.5).

Table 3.5. *Pearson Correlation Coefficients between BORRTI Object Relations Variables and DSQ, MMPI L and K Subscales, PBQ, and BPTI*

	Alienation	Insecure Attachment	Egocentricity	Social Incompetence
BORRTI				
Alienation	1			
Insecure Attachment	.66**	1		
Egocentricity	.68**	.70**	1	
Social Incompetence	.74**	.51**	.40**	1
DSQ				
Immature D.	.52**	.60**	.62**	.40**
Neurotic D.	.13**	.29**	.26**	.16**
Mature D.	-.22**	-.15**	.05	-.15**
MMPI				
MMPI-L	.16**	.30**	.23**	.12**
MMPI-K	.45**	.56**	.55**	.35**
PBQ				
Cluster A PDs	.45**	.41**	.51**	.31**
Cluster B PDs	.46**	.50**	.55**	.33**
Cluster C PDs	.50**	.57**	.55**	.43**
BPTI				
Plasticity	-.55**	-.39**	-.25*	-.58**
Stability	-.42**	-.43**	-.35**	-.35**

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

Note: **BORRTI**: Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory; **Alienation:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory Alienation subscale; **Insecure Attachment:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory Insecure Attachment subscale; **Egocentricity:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory Egocentricity subscale; **Social Incompetence:** Bell Object Relations and Reality Testing Inventory Social Incompetence subscale; **DSQ**: Defense Style Questionnaire; **Immature D.:** Defense Style Questionnaire Immature Defenses subscale; **Neurotic D.:** Defense Style Questionnaire Neurotic Defenses subscale; **Mature D.:** Defense Style Questionnaire Mature Defenses subscale; **MMPI:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory; **MMPI-L:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality

Inventory L Subscale; **MMPI-K:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory K Subscale **PBQ**: Personality Belief Questionnaire; **Cluster A PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster A Personality Disorders subscale; **Cluster B PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster B Personality Disorders subscale; **Cluster C PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster C Personality Disorders subscale; **BPTI**: Basic Personality Traits Inventory; **Plasticity:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory general factor of Plasticity; **Stability:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory general factor of Stability.

Table 3.6 revealed analysis of correlations between DSQ variables and MMPI-L and K subscales, and other variables except mentioned before. According to analysis, *immature defenses* had strong positive correlation with MMPI-K subscale (r = .55, p <.01), and PBQ Cluster A (r = .56, p <.01), Cluster B (r = .62, p <.01) and Cluster C (r = .57, p <.01) PDs, moderate positive correlation with DSQ-neurotic defenses (r = .46, p <.01) and MMPI-L subscale (r = .31, p <.01), and moderate negative correlation with BPTI-plasticity (r = -.31, p <.01) and BPTI-stability (r = -.44, p <.01); *neurotic defenses* had moderate positive correlation with PBQ-Cluster C PDs (r = .36, p <.01); *mature defenses* had moderate positive correlation with BPTI-plasticity (r = .30, p <.01). Additionally, MMPI-L subscale had moderate positive correlation only with MMPI-K subscale (r = .41, p <.01) and moderate negative correlation with BPTI-stability (r = -.32, p <.01), while MMPI-K had moderate positive correlation with PBQ Cluster A (r = .40, p <.01), Cluster B (r = .44, p <.01) and Cluster C (r = .48, p <.01) PDs, and moderate negative correlation with BPTI-stability (r = -.33, p <.01).

Table 3.6. *Pearson Correlation Coefficients of DSQ and MMPI Subscales with PBQ and BPTI Variables*

	Immature Defenses	Neurotic Defenses	Mature Defenses	MMPI-L	MMPI-K
DSQ					
Immature D.	1				
Neurotic D.	.46**	1			
Mature D.	.12**	.28**	1		
MMPI					
MMPI-L	.31**	-.03	-.06	1	
MMPI-K	.55**	.25**	-.04	.41**	1
PBQ					
Cluster A PDs	.56**	.17**	.07	.17**	.40**
Cluster B PDs	.62**	.29**	.01	.27**	.43**
Cluster C PDs	.57**	.36**	-.07*	.20**	.48**
BPTI					
Plasticity	-.31**	-.05	.30**	-.14**	-.28**
Stability	-.44**	.03	.24**	-.32**	-.33**

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

Note: **DSQ**: Defense Style Questionnaire; **Immature D.:** Defense Style Questionnaire Immature Defenses subscale; **Neurotic D.:** Defense Style Questionnaire Neurotic Defenses subscale; **Mature D.:** Defense Style Questionnaire Mature Defenses subscale; **MMPI:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory; **MMPI-L:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory L Subscale; **MMPI-K:** Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory K Subscale **PBQ**: Personality Belief Questionnaire; **Cluster A PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster A Personality Disorders subscale; **Cluster B PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster B Personality Disorders subscale; **Cluster C PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster C Personality Disorders subscale; **BPTI**: Basic Personality Traits Inventory; **Plasticity:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory general factor of Plasticity; **Stability:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory general factor of Stability.

In Table 3.7, results of correlation coefficient analysis among clusters of personality disorders and general personality traits factors were indicated. *Cluster A PDs* had strong positive correlation with PBQ Cluster B ($r = .77$, $p < .01$) and Cluster C ($r = .55$, $p < .01$) PDs; *Cluster B PDs* had strong positive correlation with PBQ-Cluster C PDs ($r = .73$, $p < .01$) and moderate negative

correlation with BPTI-stability (r = --.32, p <.01); *Cluster C PDs* had moderate negative correlation with BPTI-plasticity (r = -.39, p <.01); and lastly *plasticity* had moderate positive correlation with BPTI-stability (r = .48, p <.01).

Table 3.7. *Pearson Correlation Coefficients among Personality Variables*

	Cluster A	Cluster B	Cluster C	Plasticity	Stability
PBQ					
Cluster A PDs	1				
Cluster B PDs	.77*	1			
Cluster C PDs	.55*	.73*	1		
BPTI					
Plasticity	-.20*	-.21*	-.39*	1	
Stability	-.27*	-.32*	-.29*	.48*	1

*p <.01

Note: **PBQ**: Personality Belief Questionnaire; **Cluster A PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster A Personality Disorders subscale; **Cluster B PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster B Personality Disorders subscale; **Cluster C PDs:** Personality Belief Questionnaire Cluster C Personality Disorders subscale; **BPTI**: Basic Personality Traits Inventory; **Plasticity:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory general factor of Plasticity; **Stability:** Basic Personality Traits Inventory general factor of Stability.

3.5. Differences of Demographic Variables on the Measures of the Study

In order to investigate how demographic variables make differences on the measures of the current study, separate multivariate analyses were conducted. In these analyses, independent variables were demographic variables (i.e., gender & age) in which variable of age was categorized into 4 different groups depending on statistical frequencies. Age categories were named as late adolescence (ages between 18-21), emerging adulthood (ages between 22-25), adulthood (ages between 26-30) and established adulthood (ages between 31-67). Information related to this categorization and number of cases in each category with their percentages were given in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8. *Categorization of the Demographic Variables*

Variables	N (823 Participants)	%
Gender		
Female	557	67.7
Male	264	32.1
Age		
Late Adolescence (ages between 18-21)	207	25.2
Emerging Adulthood (ages between 22-25)	195	23.7
Adulthood (ages between 26-30)	205	24.9
Established Adulthood (ages between 31-67)	209	25.6

To be able to examine possible differences of gender and age on perceived parental rearing styles, object relations, defense styles, tendency to lie (MMPI-L) and ego defense (MMPI-K), personality disorder beliefs, and basic personality traits 7 separate between subjects MANOVAs were conducted with 3 perceived rearing styles for both mothers and fathers (i.e., rejection, over-protection/control, & emotional warmth); 4 object relations' variables (i.e., alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, & social incompetence); 3 defense styles (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature defenses); 2 MMPI subscales (i.e., tendency to lie [L] & ego defense [K]), 10 personality disorder beliefs (i.e., Avoidant PD., Passive-Aggressive PD., Obsessive Compulsive PD., Antisocial PD., Narcissistic PD., Histrionic PD., Schizoid PD., Paranoid PD., Dependent PD., & Borderline PD.); 6 basic personality traits (i.e., openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, & negative valence) as dependent variables respectively.

3.5.1. Differences of Gender and Age on Perceived Mothers' Rearing Styles

In order to get differences of gender and age groups on perceived mothers' rearing styles 2 (gender [male & female]) X 4 (age [late adolescence, emerging adulthood, adulthood, & established adulthood]) between subjects MANOVA was conducted with 3 perceived mothers' rearing styles (i.e., rejection, over-protection, & emotional warmth) as the dependent variables.

Results revealed significant gender (as shown in Table 3.9), Multivariate F (3, 801) = 10.49, p <.001; Wilks' Lambda = .96; η2 = .04, and age, Multivariate F (9, 1950) = 8,839, p <.001; Wilks' Lambda = .91; η2 = .03, main effects; however, no Gender x Age interaction effect, Multivariate F (9, 1950) = 1.624, p >.05; Wilks' Lambda = .98; η2 = .01, was observed.

Table 3.9. *Gender and Age Differences on Perceived Mothers' Rearing Styles*

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	df (Multi.)	Multi. F	Multi. η2	Df (Uni.)	Uni. F	Uni. η2
Gender	.96	3, 801	10.49*	.04	-	-	-
M. Reject.	-	-	-	-	1, 803	14.331*	.02
M. Protect.	-	-	-	-	1, 803	13.09*	.02
M. Warmth	-	-	-	-	1, 803	2.706	.00
Age Group	.91	9, 1950	8.839*	.04	-	-	-
M. Reject.	-	-	-	-	3, 803	5.507*	.02
M. Protect.	-	-	-	-	3, 803	.591	.00
M. Warmth	-	-	-	-	3, 803	25.300*	.09
Gender x Age	.98	9, 1950	1.624	.01	-	-	-
M. Reject.	-	-	-	-	3, 803	1.176	.00
M. Protect.	-	-	-	-	3, 803	3.066	.01
M. Warmth	-	-	-	-	3, 803	1.803	.01

*p <.001

Note: **M. Reject.:** Mother Rejection; **M. Protect.:** Mother Over-protection; **M. Warmth:** Mother Emotional Warmth

After the multivariate analyses, univariate analyses were performed for significant effects with the application of the Bonferroni correction. Thus, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .017 (i.e., .05/3) were considered to be significant following this correction. Univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction for main effect of gender yielded a significant effect for mother rejection, F (1, 803) = 14.331, p <.001; η2 =.02, and mother over-protection, F (1, 803) = 13.09, p <.001; η2 =.02, measures (See Table 3.9). According to the mean scores, female participants perceived rearing styles of their mothers as more rejective (Female M = 10.09, Male M = 9.18) and overprotective or overcontrolled (Female M = 20.97, Male M = 19.51) than male participants (as shown in Table 3.17 and Figure 3.1).

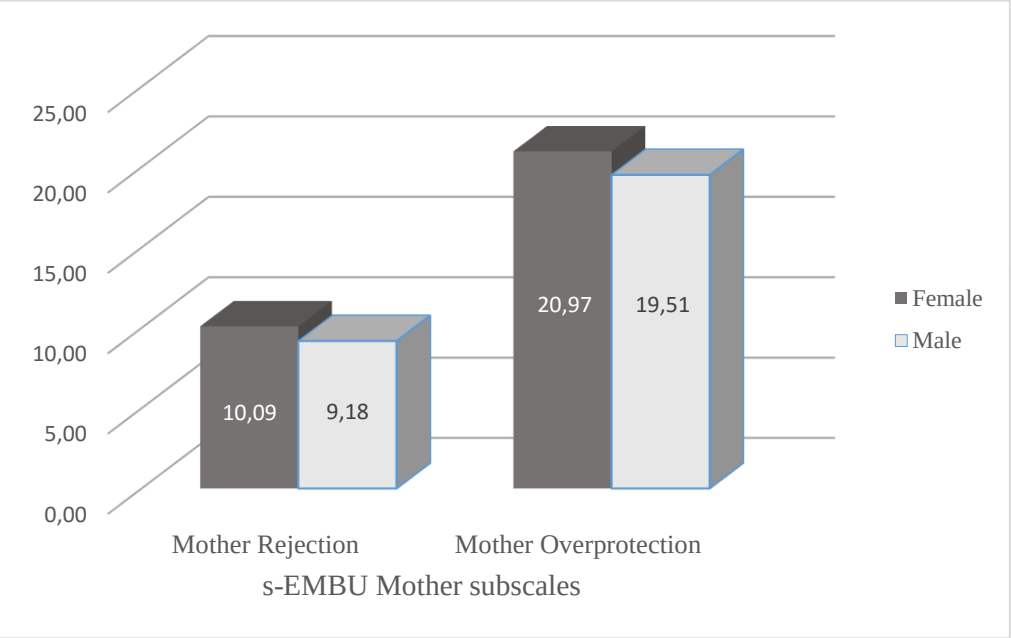

Figure 3.1. *Mean Scores of Gender on Perceived Mothers' Rearing Styles*

Moreover, univariate analyses with the Bonferoni correction for main effect of age groups also indicated a significant effect for both mother rejection, F (3, 803) = 5.507, p <.001; η2 =.02, and mother emotional warmth, F (3, 803) = 25.300, p <.001; η2 =.09, measures but not for mother over-protection. According to the post-hoc comparisons conducted by Bonferroni analysis,

although established adults (*M* = 10.47) perceived their mothers as more rejective than others (Late Adolescent *M* = 9.22; Adult *M* = 9.42; Emerging Adult *M* = 9.41); late adolescents (*M* = 21.12), emerging adults (*M* = 20.76), and adults (*M* = 19.89) perceived their mothers as more emotionally warm than established adults (*M* = 17.53). Moreover, participants in their late adolescence also perceived their mothers as more emotionally warm than adults, whereas they did not show any significant difference from emerging adults (as shown in Table 3.18 & Figure 3.2) in terms of experienced emotional warmth from their mothers.

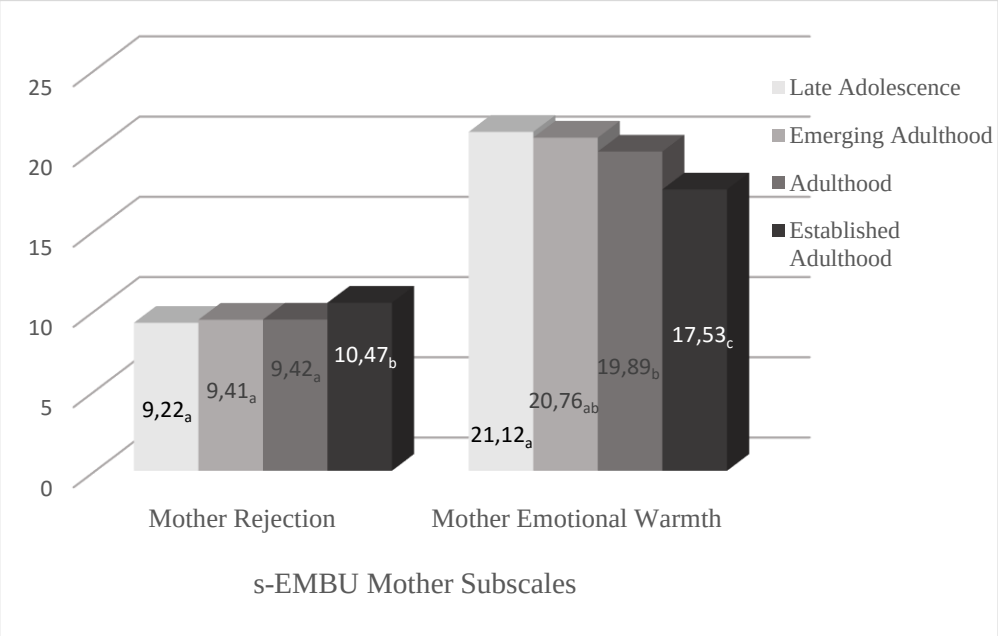

Figure 3.2. *Mean Scores of Age Groups on Perceived Mothers' Rearing Styles*

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript within the each set of bars are significantly different from each other

3.5.2. Differences of Gender and Age on Perceived Fathers' Rearing Styles

In order to revealed differences of gender and age groups on perceived fathers' rearing styles 2 (gender [Male & Female]) x 4 (age [late adolescence, emerging adulthood, adulthood, established adulthood]) between subjects MANOVA was

conducted with 3 perceived fathers' rearing styles (i.e., rejection, over-protection, & emotional warmth) as the dependent variables.

Results (as shown in Table 3.10) revealed significant gender, Multivariate F (3, 797) = 3.538, p <.05; Wilks' Lambda = .99; η2 = .01, and age, Multivariate F (9, 1940) = 3.713, p <.001; Wilks' Lambda = .96; η2 = .01, main effects; however, no gender x age interaction effect, Multivariate F (9, 1940) = 1.575, p >.05; Wilks' Lambda = .98; η2 = .01, was observed.

Table 3.10. *Gender and Age Differences on Perceived Fathers' Rearing Styles*

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	df (Multi.)	Multi. F	Multi. η2	Df (Uni.)	Uni. F	Uni. η2
Gender	.99	3, 797	3.538**	.01	-	-	-
F. Reject.	-	-	-	-	1, 799	.486	.00
F. Protect.	-	-	-	-	1, 799	8.004*	.01
F. Warmth	-	-	-	-	1, 799	1.974	.00
Age	.96	9, 1940	3.713***	.01	-	-	-
Group							
F. Reject.	-	-	-	-	3, 799	2.212	.01
F. Protect.	-	-	-	-	3, 799	.867	.00
F. Warmth	-	-	-	-	3, 799	9.842***	.04
Gender x	.98	9, 1940	1.575	.01	-	-	-
Age							
F. Reject.	-	-	-	-	3, 799	.085	.00
F. Protect.	-	-	-	-	3, 799	2.592	.01
F. Warmth	-	-	-	-	3, 799	1.187	.00

*Significant after Bonferroni Correction, **p <.05, ***p <.001

Note: **F. Reject.:** Father Rejection; **F. Protect.:** Father Over-protection/control; **F. Warmth:** Father Emotional Warmth

After the multivariate analyses, univariate analyses were performed for significant effects with the application of the Bonferroni correction. Thus, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .017 (i.e., .05/3) were considered to be significant with this correction. Univariate analyses with

Bonferroni correction for main effect of gender yielded a significant effect only for father over-protection measure, F (1, 799) = 8.004, p <.017; η2 =.01 (See Table 3.10). According to the mean scores, female participants (M = 19.35) perceived their fathers as more protective or controlling than male participants (M = 18.19) (see Table 3.17 & Figure 3.3).

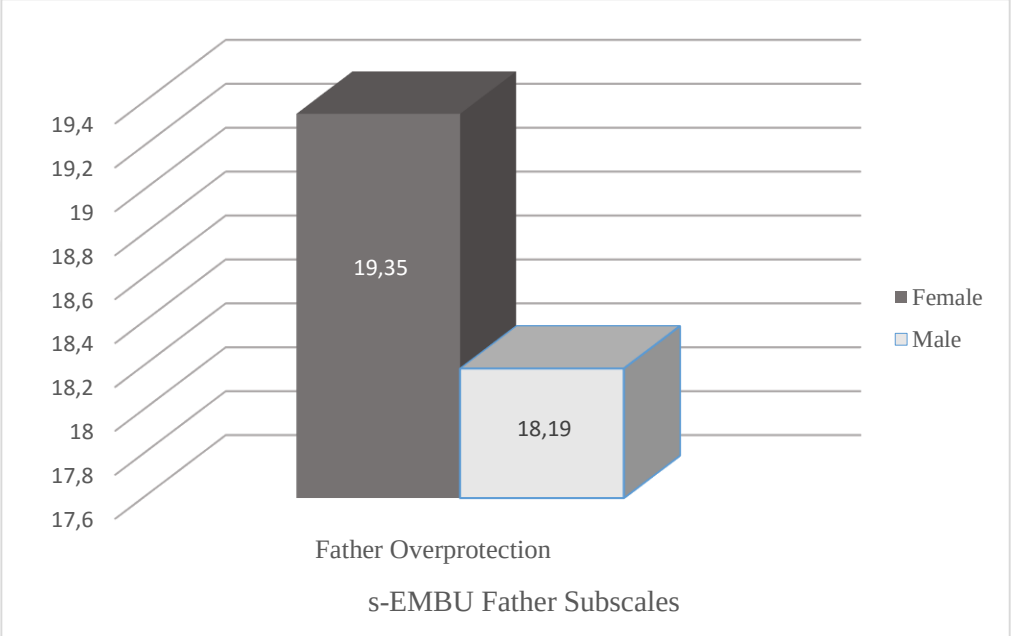

Figure 3.3. *Mean Scores of Gender on Perceived Fathers' Rearing Styles*

Moreover, univariate analyses with this Bonferoni correction for main effect of age groups also indicated a significant effect only for father emotional warmth measure, F (3, 799) = 9.842, p <.001; η2 =.04 (in see Table 3.10). According to the post-hoc comparisons conducted by Bonferroni analysis, established adults (M = 16.49) perceived their fathers as less emotionally warm than others (Adult *M = 17.90;* Emerging Adult M = 18.82; Late Adolescent M = 18.93) (see Table 3.18 & Figure 3.4).

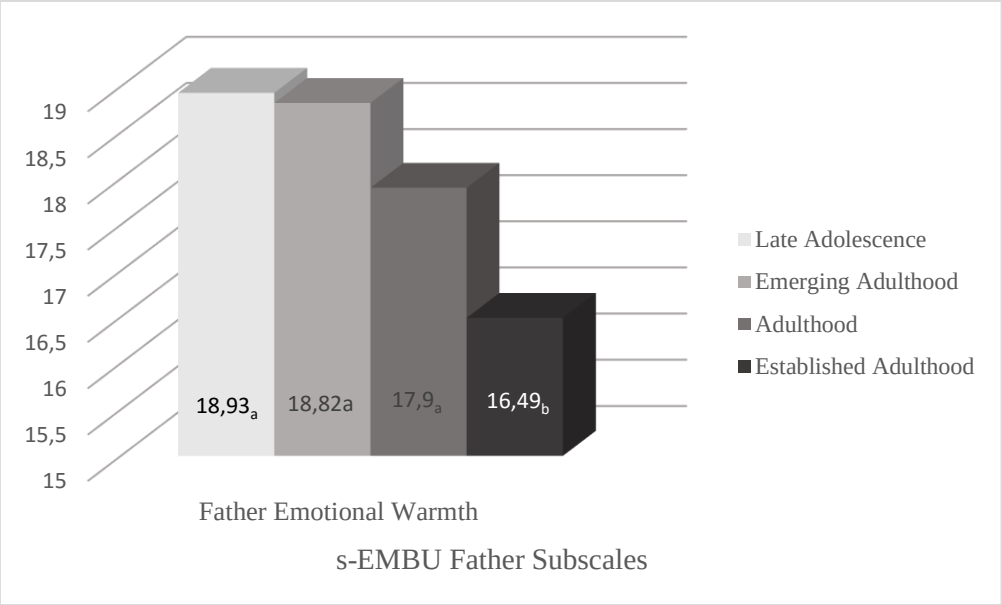

Figure 3.4. *Mean Scores of Age Groups on Perceived Fathers' Rearing Styles*

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript within the each set of bars are significantly different from each other.

3.5.3. Differences of Gender and Age on Object Relations

To be able to examine possible differences of gender and age on the subscales of object relations 2 (gender [male & female]) x 4 (age [late adolescence, emerging adulthood, adulthood, & established adulthood]) between subjects MANOVA was conducted with 4 object relations subscales (i.e., alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, & social incompetence) as the dependent variables.

Results (as shown in Table 3.11) revealed significant gender, Multivariate F (4, 802) = 5.182, p <.001; Wilks' Lambda = .98; η2 = .03, and age, Multivariate F (12, 2122) = 4.985, p <.001; Wilks' Lambda = .93; η2 = .02, main effects, and also gender x age interaction effect, Multivariate F (12, 2122) = 1.834, p <.05; Wilks' Lambda = .97; η2 = .01.

Table 3.11. *Gender and Age Differences on Object Relations*

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	df (Multi.)	Multi. F	Multi. η2	Df (Uni.)	Uni. F	Uni. η2
Gender	.98	4, 802	5.182**	.03	-	-	-
Alienation	-	-	-	-	1,805	1.361	.00
Insecure A.	-	-	-	-	1, 805	13.685**	.02
Egocentric.	-	-	-	-	1, 805	2.591	.00
Social I.	-	-	-	-	1 ,805	.053	.00
Age Group	.93	12, 2122	4.985**	.02	-	-	-
Alienation	-	-	-	-	3, 805	9.524**	.03
Insecure A.	-	-	-	-	3, 805	13.209**	.05
Egocentric.	-	-	-	-	3, 805	8.879**	.03
Social I.	-	-	-	-	3, 805	14.293**	.05
Gender x Age	.97	12, 2122	1.834*	.01	-	-	-
Alienation	-	-	-	-	3, 805	2.225	.01
Insecure A.	-	-	-	-	3, 805	.690	.00
Egocentric.	-	-	-	-	3, 805	.496	.00
Social I.	-	-	-	-	3, 805	*3.160*	.01

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

Note: **Insecure A.:** Insecure Attachment; **Egocentric.:** Egocentricity; **Social I.:** Social Incompetence

After the multivariate analyses, univariate analyses were performed for significant effects following the application of the Bonferroni correction. Thus, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .012 (i.e., .05/4), were considered to be significant with this correction. Univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction for main effect of gender yielded a significant effect only for insecure attachment, F (1, 805) = 13.685, $p < .001$; η2 =.02, measure (See Table 3.11). According to the mean scores, female participants (M = 9.77) had stronger insecure attachment than male participants (M = 8.39) (see Table 3.17 & Figure 3.5).

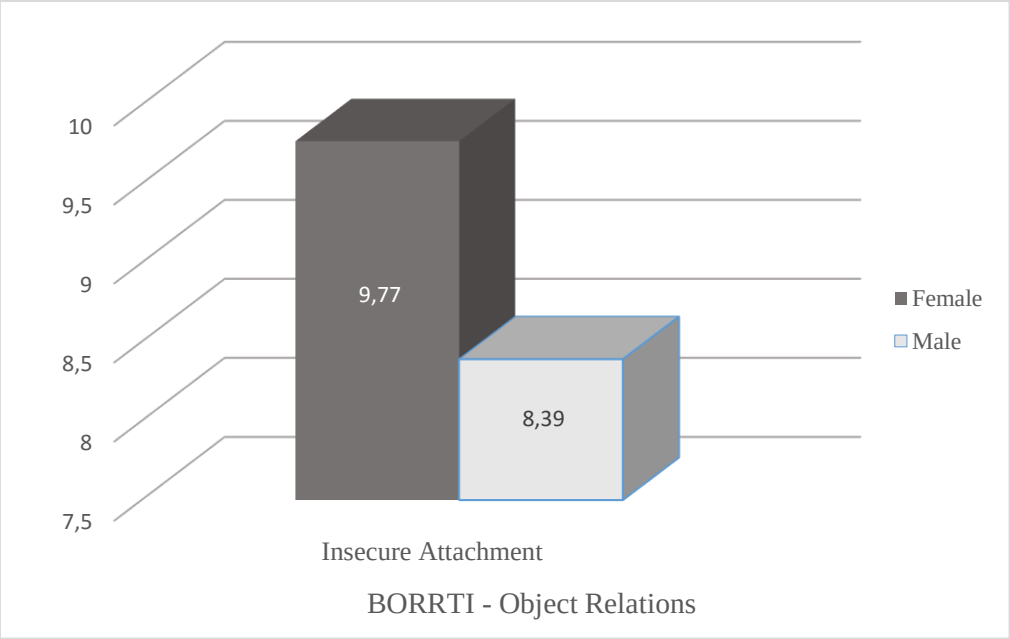

Figure 3.5. *Mean Scores of Gender on Object Relations*

Moreover, univariate analyses with this Bonferoni correction for main effect of Age Groups also indicated significant effects for all object relations' variables, including alienation, F (3, 805) = 9.524, p <.001; η2 =.03, insecure attachment, F (3, 805) = 13.209, p <.001; η2 =.05, egocentricity, F (3, 805) = 8.879, p <.001; η2 =.03, and social incompetence, F (3, 805) = 14.293, p <.001; η2 =.05, measures (See Table 3.11). According to the post-hoc comparisons conducted by Bonferroni analysis, both late adolescents (Alienation M = 12.28; Insecure Attachment M = 10.24; Egocentricity M = 7.35) and emerging adults (Alienation M = 12.28; Insecure Attachment M = 10.24; Egocentricity M = 7.35) showed more alienation, insecure attachment, and egocentricity than adults (Alienation M = 9.33; Insecure Attachment M = 8.41; Egocentricity M = 5.88) and established adults (Alienation M = 8.53; Insecure Attachment M = 7.50; Egocentricity M = 5.31). However, although similar with the other variables, late adolescents (M = 5.36) were more socially incompetent than adults (M = 3.54) and established adults (M = 2.67); moreover, emerging adults (M = 4.64) were more socially incompetent than only established adults (as shown in Table 3.18 & Figure 3.6).

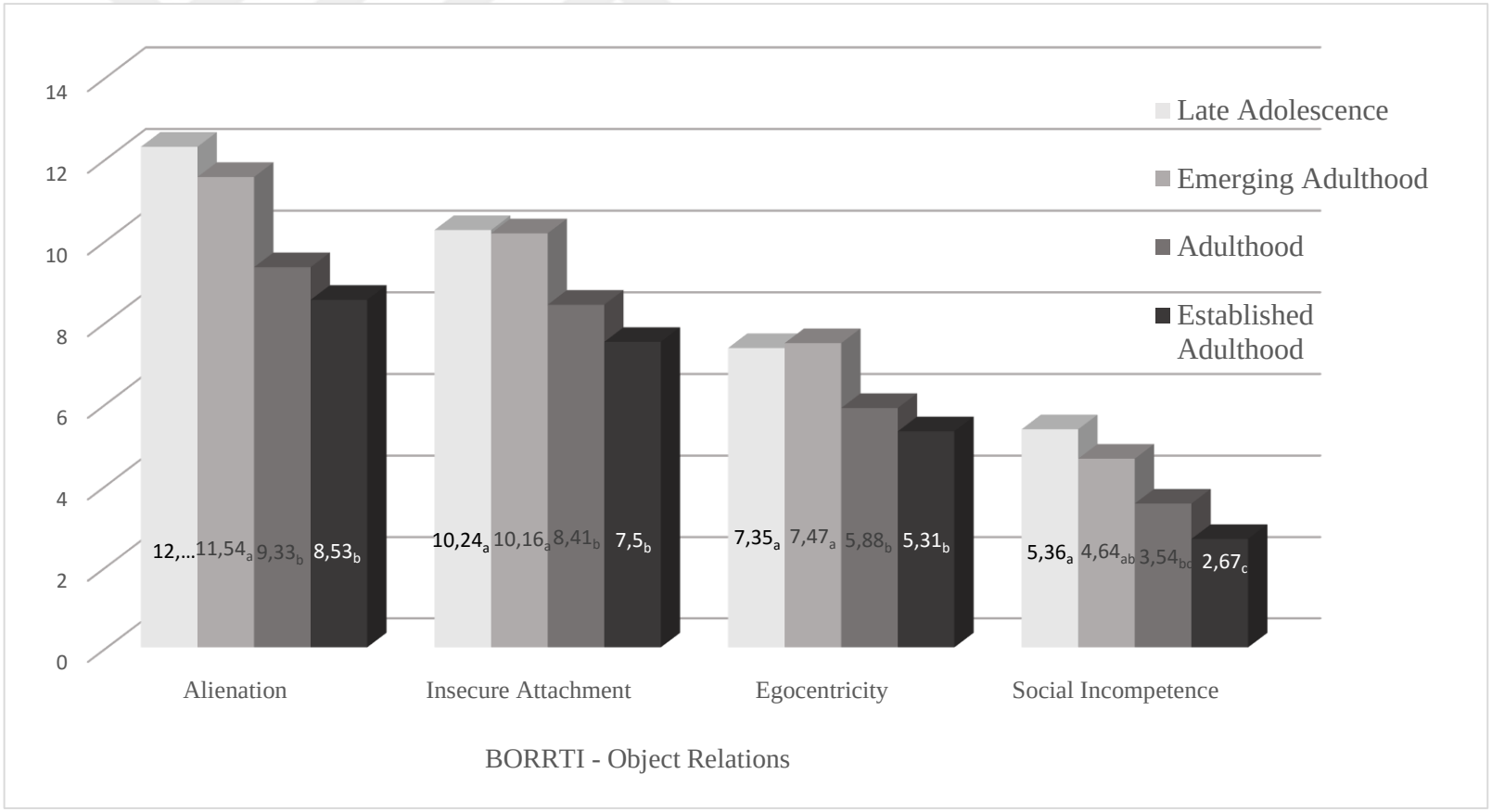

Figure 3.6. *Mean Scores of Age Groups on Object Relations*

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript within the each set of bars are significantly different from each other.

In addition to these findings, although multivariate analyses showed significant interaction effect, following the univariate analyses with Bonferroni Correction gender x age interaction did not reveal any significant results for the measures of the object relations. However, it could be claimed that gender x age interaction was marginally significant for the social incompetence subscale of the object relations, F (3, 813) = 3.160, p = .02; η2 =.01, (see Table 3.11). Therefore, according to mean scores (as shown in Table 3.12) while females had a tendency to reduce social incompetence in their adulthood (M = 2.78), males indicated this tendency in their established adulthood (M = 2.61) (see Figure 3.7).

Table 3.12. *Mean Scores of Gender x Age Interaction for Social Incompetence*

Gender	**Age Groups**			
	Late Adolescence	Emerging Adulthood	Adulthood	Established Adulthood
Females	5.33_a	5.22_a	2.78_b	2.73_b
Males	5.38_a	4.06_a	4.30_a	2.61_b

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript are significantly different from each other.

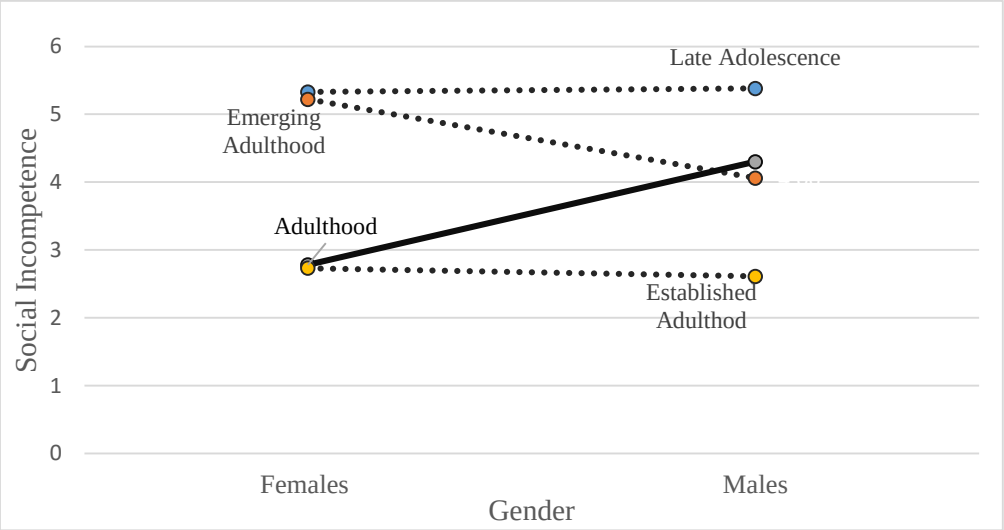

Figure 3.7. *Interaction Effect of Gender and Age Groups on Social Incompetence*

Note: The straight line indicates the only significant difference.

3.5.4. Differences of Gender and Age on Defense Styles

To be able to examine possible differences of gender and age on defense styles 2 (gender [male & female]) x 4 (age [late adolescence, emerging adulthood, adulthood, & established adulthood]) between subjects MANOVA was conducted with 3 Defense Styles (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature) as the dependent variables.

Results (as shown in Table 3.13) revealed significant gender, Multivariate F (3, 804) = 4.708, p <.01; Wilks' Lambda = .98; η2 = .02, and age, Multivariate F (9, 1957) = 6.329, p <.001; Wilks' Lambda = .93; η2 = .02, main effects; however, there was no gender x age interaction effect, Multivariate F (9, 1940) = 1.575, p >.05; Wilks' Lambda = .98; η2 = .01, on defense styles.

Table 3.13. *Gender and Age Differences on Defense Styles*

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	df (Multi.)	Multi. F	Multi. η2	Df (Uni.)	Uni. F	Uni. η2
Gender	.98	3, 804	4.708**	.02	-	-	-
Immature	-	-	-	-	1, 806	.103	.00
Neurotic	-	-	-	-	1, 806	11.504***	.01
Mature	-	-	-	-	1, 806	.009	.00
Age Group	.93	9, 1957	6.329***	.02	-	-	-
Immature	-	-	-	-	3, 806	14.504***	.05
Neurotic	-	-	-	-	3, 806	4.975*	.02
Mature	-	-	-	-	3, 806	2.718	.01
Gender x Age	.99	9, 1957	1.185	.00	-	-	-
Immature	-	-	-	-	3, 806	2.047	.01
Neurotic	-	-	-	-	3, 806	.286	.00
Mature	-	-	-	-	3, 806	.239	.00

*Significant after Bonferroni Correction, **p <.01, ***p <.001

After the multivariate analyses, univariate analyses were performed for significant effects with the application of the Bonferroni correction. Thus, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .017 (i.e., .05/3), were considered to be significant following this correction. Univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction for main effect of gender yielded a significant effect only for neurotic defenses, F (1, 806) = 11.504, p <.001; η2 =.01, measure (see Table 3.13). According to the mean scores, female participants (M = 37.45) used more neurotic defenses than male participants (M = 34.92) (see Table 3.17 & Figure 3.8).

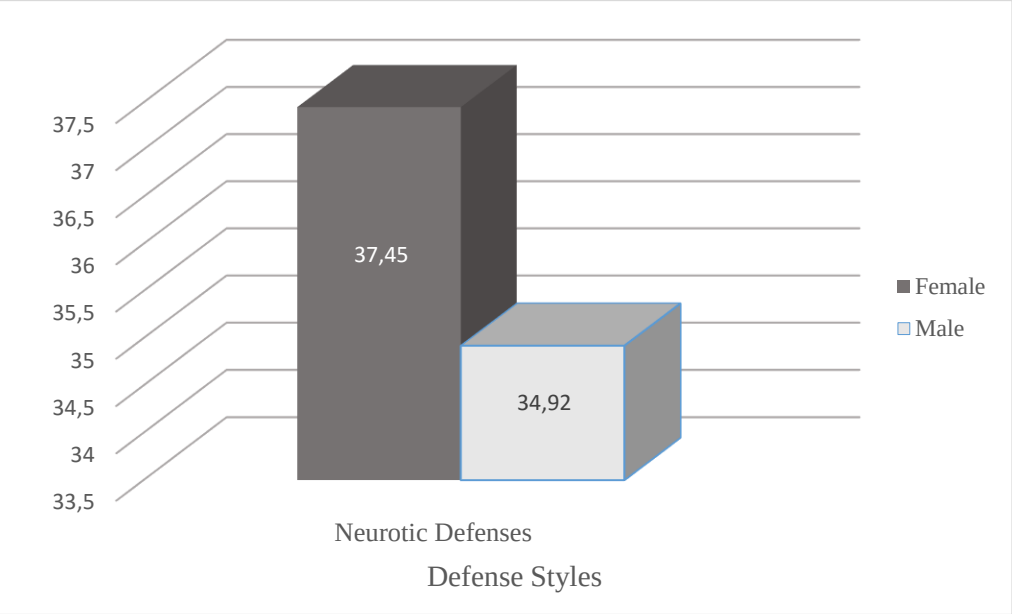

Figure 3.8. *Mean Scores of Gender on Defense Styles*

Moreover, univariate analyses with this Bonferoni correction for main effect of age groups also indicated a significant effect for both immature defenses, F (3, 806) = 4.975, p <.001; η2 =.02, and neurotic defenses, F (3, 806) = 14.504, p <.017; η2 =.05, measures but not for mature defenses. According to the post-hoc comparisons conducted by Bonferroni analysis, both late adolescents (M = 98.49) and emerging adults (M = 97.50) used more immature defenses than adults (M = 87.59) and established adults (M = 83.35), whereas only late

adolescents (*M* = 38.47) used more neurotic defenses than other age groups (Emerging Adult *M* = 36.41; Adult *M* = 34.89; Established Adult *M* = 34.98) (as shown in Table 3.18 & Figure 3.9).

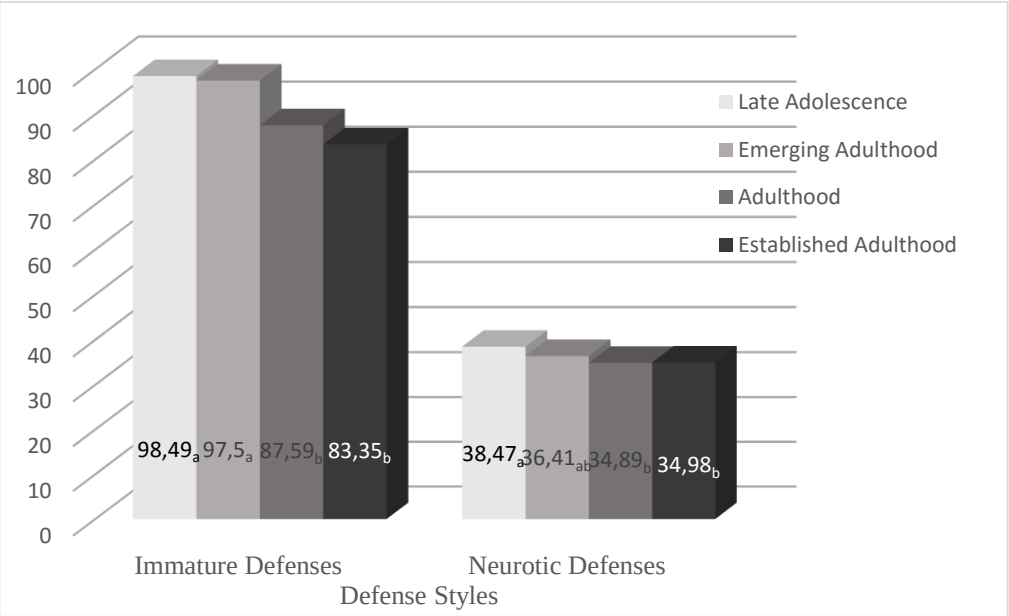

Figure 3.9. *Mean Scores of Age Groups on Defense Styles*

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript within the each set of bars are significantly different from each other.

3.5.5. Differences of Gender and Age on Tendency to Lie and Ego Defense via MMPI L and K Subscales

To be able to examine possible differences of gender and age on tendency to lie (MMPI-L) and ego defense (MMPI-K) 2 (gender [male & female]) X 4 (age [late adolescence, emerging adulthood, adulthood, & established adulthood]) between subjects MANOVA was conducted with 2 MMPI subscales (i.e., L & K Subscales) as the dependent variables.

Results (as shown in Table 3.14) revealed significant gender, Multivariate F (2, 805) = 4.848, p <.01; Wilks' Lambda = .99; η2 = .01, and age, Multivariate F (6, 1610) = 5.894, p <.001; Wilks' Lambda = .96; η2 = .02, main effects; however,

there was no gender x age interaction effect, Multivariate F (6, 1610) = .644, p >.05; Wilks' Lambda = .99; η2 = .00, for tendency to lie and ego defense.

Table 3.14. *Gender and Age Differences on Tendency to Lie (MMPI-L) and Ego Defense (MMPI-K)*

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	df (Multi.)	Multi. F	Multi. η2	Df (Uni.)	Uni. F	Uni. η2
Gender	.99	2, 805	4.848*	.01	-	-	-
MMPI-L	-	-	-	-	1, 806	.748	.00
MMPI-K	-	-	-	-	1, 806	9.557*	.01
Age	.96	6, 1610	5.894**	.02	-	-	-
Group							
MMPI-L	-	-	-	-	3, 806	6.762**	.03
MMPI-K	-	-	-	-	3, 806	8.880**	.03
Gender x	.99	6, 1610	.644	.00	-	-	-
Age							
MMPI-L	-	-	-	-	3, 806	.730	.00
MMPI-K	-	-	-	-	3, 806	.568	.00

*p <.01, **p <.001

After the multivariate analyses, univariate analyses were performed for significant results with the application of the Bonferroni correction. Thus, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .025 (i.e., .05/2) were considered to be significant following this correction. Univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction for main effect of gender yielded a significant effect only for MMPI-K Subscale, F (1, 806) = 9.557, p <.01; η2 =.01, measure (See Table 3.14). According to the mean scores, female participants (M = 19.31) used more ego defense than male participants (M = 18.40) (see Table 3.17 & Figure 3.10).

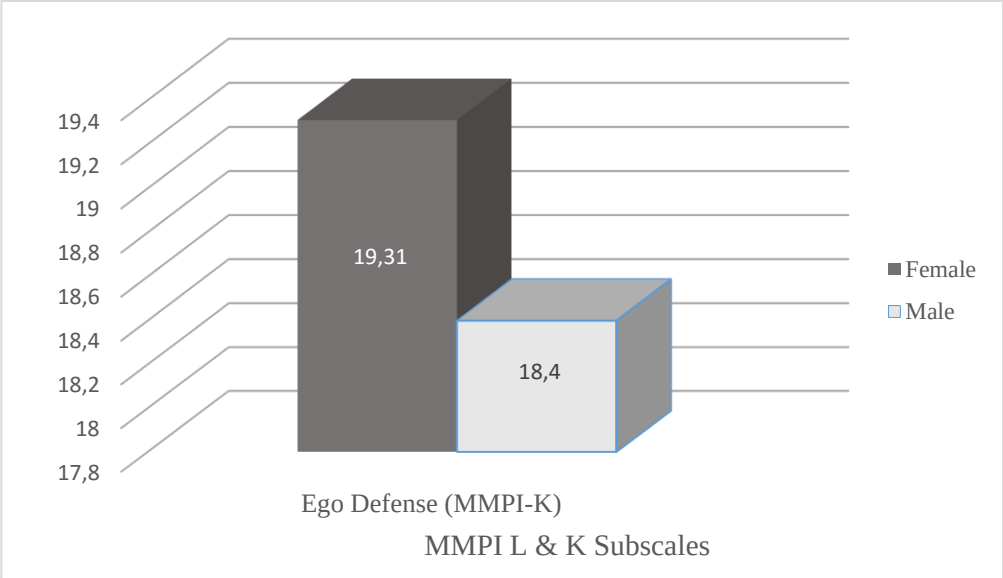

Figure 3.10. *Mean Scores of Gender on Ego Defense*

Moreover, univariate analyses with this Bonferoni correction for main effect of age groups also indicated a significant effect for both MMPI-L subscale, *F* (3, 806) = 6.762, *p* <.001; η2 =.03, and MMPI-K subscale, *F* (3, 806) = 8.880, *p* <.001; η2 =.01, measures (see Table 3.14). According to the post-hoc comparisons conducted by Bonferroni analysis, although both late adolescents (*M* = 11.26) and emerging adults (*M* = 11.37) had more tendency to lie than emerging adults (*M* = 10.38), adults (*M* = 10.98) did not show any significant difference than others in terms of tendency to lie. Additionally, both late adolescents (*M* = 19.59) and emerging adults (*M* = 19.62) used more ego defense than both adults (*M* = 18.27) and established adults (*M* = 17.93) (as shown in Table 3.18 & Figure 3.11).

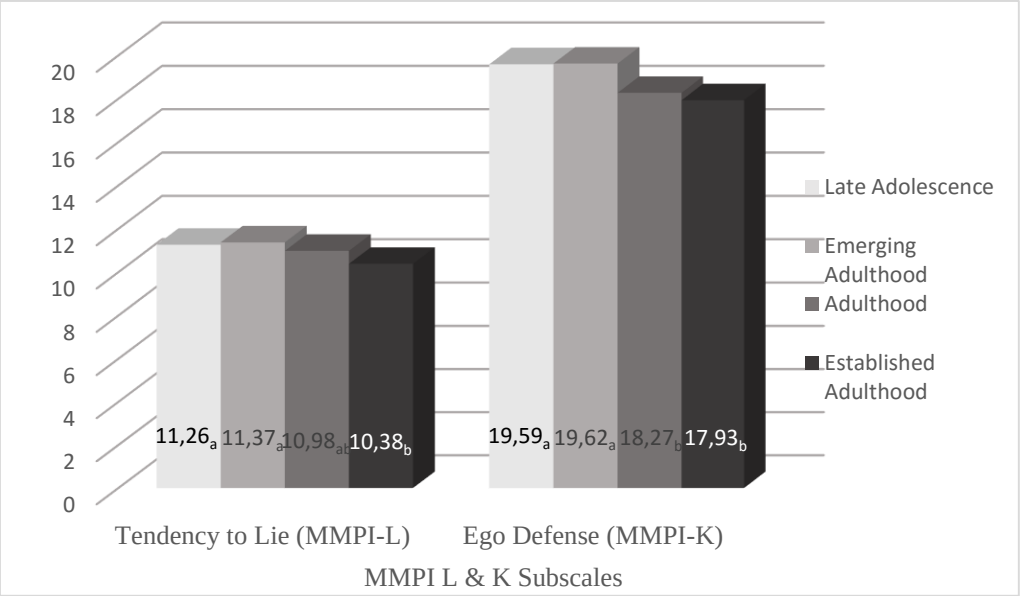

Figure 3.11. *Mean Scores of Age Groups on MMPI L and K Subscales*

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript within the each set of bars are significantly different from each other

3.5.6. Differences of Age and Gender on Personality Disorder Beliefs

To be able to examine possible differences of gender and age on personality disorder beliefs 2 (gender [male & female]) x 4 (age [late adolescence, emerging adulthood, adulthood, & established adulthood]) between subjects MANOVA was conducted with 10 personality disorder beliefs (i.e., Avoidant, Dependent, Passive- Aggressive, Obsessive-Compulsive, Antisocial, Narcissistic, Histrionic, Schizoid, Paranoid, & Borderline Personality Disorders) as the dependent variables.

Results revealed significant gender (as shown in Table 3.15), Multivariate F (10, 792) = 3.726, p <.001; Wilks' Lambda = .96; η2 = .05, and age, Multivariate F (30, 2325) = 3.773, p <.001; Wilks' Lambda = .87; η2 = .05, main effects; however, there was no gender x age interaction effect, Multivariate F (30, 2325) = .971, p >.05; Wilks' Lambda = .96; η2 = .01.

Table 3.15. *Gender and Age Differences on Personality Disorder Beliefs*

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	df (Multi.)	Multi. F	Multi. η2	Df (Uni.)	Uni. F	Uni. η2
Gender	.96	10, 792	3.726**	.05	-	-	-
Avoidant	-	-	-	-	1, 801	1.940	.00
Dependent	-	-	-	-	1, 801	4.400	.01
Passive-Aggressive	-	-	-	-	1, 801	.058	.00
Obsessive-Compulsive	-	-	-	-	1, 801	3.470	.00
Antisocial	-	-	-	-	1, 801	9.124*	.01
Narcissistic	-	-	-	-	1, 801	3.786	.01
Histrionic	-	-	-	-	1, 801	.412	.00
Schizoid	-	-	-	-	1, 801	3.802	.01
Paranoid	-	-	-	-	1, 801	3.754	.01
Borderline	-	-	-	-	1, 801	.485	.00
Age Groups	.87	30, 2325	3.773**	.05	-	-	-
Avoidant	-	-	-	-	3, 801	6.548*	.02
Dependent	-	-	-	-	3, 801	7.258**	.03
Passive-Aggressive	-	-	-	-	3, 801	6.235**	.02
Obsessive-Compulsive	-	-	-	-	3, 801	2.930	.01
Antisocial	-	-	-	-	3, 801	24.417**	.08
Narcissistic	-	-	-	-	3, 801	16.863**	.06
Histrionic	-	-	-	-	3, 801	20.119**	.07
Schizoid	-	-	-	-	3, 801	3.546	.01
Paranoid	-	-	-	-	3, 801	11.893**	.04
Borderline	-	-	-	-	3, 801	12.198**	.04
Gender X Age	.96	30, 2325	.971	.01	-	-	-
Avoidant	-	-	-	-	3, 801	.997	.00
Dependent	-	-	-	-	3, 801	.757	.00
Passive-Aggressive	-	-	-	-	3, 801	.206	.01

Table 3.15. *(cont.'d) Gender and Age Differences on Personality Disorder Beliefs*

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	df (Multi.)	Multi. F	Multi. η2	Df (Uni.)	Uni. F	Uni. η2
Obsessive-Compulsive	-	-	-	-	3, 801	.508	.00
Antisocial	-	-	-	-	3, 801	.021	.01
Narcissistic	-	-	-	-	3, 801	.010	.01
Histrionic	-	-	-	-	3, 801	.145	.01
Schizoid	-	-	-	-	3, 801	.740	.00
Paranoid	-	-	-	-	3, 801	.854	.00
Borderline	-	-	-	-	3, 801	.774	.00

*Significant after Bonferroni Correction, **$p < .001$

After the multivariate analyses, univariate analyses were performed for significant effects with the application of the Bonferroni correction. Thus, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .005 (i.e., .05/10), were considered to be significant with this correction. Univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction for main effect of gender yielded a significant effect only for antisocial personality disorder beliefs, F (1, 801) = 9.124, $p < .005$; η2 =.01], measure (See Table 3.15). According to the mean scores, male participants (M = 15.98) had more antisocial personality disorder beliefs than female participants (M = 14.02) (see Table 3.17 & Figure 3.12).

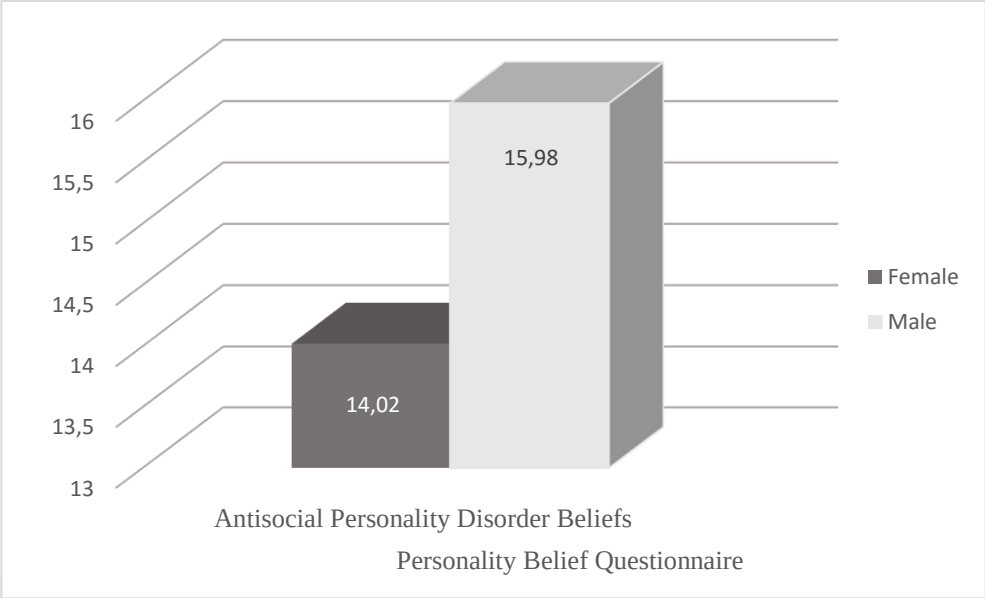

Figure 3.12. *Mean Scores of Gender on Personality Disorder Beliefs*

In Addition to this, univariate analyses with this Bonferoni correction for main effect of age groups (as shown in Table 3.15) also indicated significant effects for avoidant personality disorder beliefs, F (3, 801) = 6.548, p <.001; η2 =.02, dependent personality disorder beliefs, F (3, 801) = 7.258, p <.001; η2 =.03, passive-aggressive personality disorder beliefs, F (3, 801) = 6.235, p <.001; η2 =.02, antisocial personality disorder beliefs, F (3, 801) = 24.417, p <.001; η2 =.08, narcissistic personality disorder beliefs, F (3, 801) = 16.863, p <.001; η2 =.06, histrionic personality disorder beliefs, F (3, 801) = 20.119, p <.001; η2 =.07, paranoid personality disorder beliefs, F (3, 801) = 11.893, p <.001; η2 =.04, and borderline personality disorder beliefs, F (3, 801) = 12.198, p <.001; η2 =.04, measures. According to the post-hoc comparisons conducted by Bonferroni analysis, late adolescents (Avoidant PD. M = 22.03; Dependent PD. M = 20.59; Passive-Aggressive PD. M = 27.74) had more avoidant, dependent, and passive-aggressive personality disorder beliefs than adults (Avoidant PD. M = 19.23; Dependent PD. M = 17.74; Passive-Aggressive PD. M = 24.66) and established adults (Avoidant PD. M = 18.64; Dependent PD. M = 16.13; Passive-Aggressive PD. M = 24.09), but not more than emerging adults (Avoidant PD. M = 21.54; Dependent PD. M = 19.59; Passive-Aggressive PD. M = 27.23) who

revealed stronger beliefs only than established adults. Additionally, results indicated that both late adolescents (Antisocial PD. *M* = 17.46; Narcissistic PD. *M* = 18.62; Histrionic PD. *M* = 20.79; Paranoid PD. *M* = 18.75; Borderline PD. *M* = 17.70) and emerging adults (Antisocial PD. *M* = 17.90; Narcissistic PD. *M* = 17.83; Histrionic PD. *M* = 19.99; Paranoid PD. *M* = 19.58; Borderline PD. *M* = 17.54) had more antisocial, narcissistic, histrionic, paranoid, and borderline personality disorder beliefs than both adults (Antisocial PD. *M* = 13.30; Narcissistic PD. *M* = 14.52; Histrionic PD. *M* = 16.44; Paranoid PD. *M* = 14.47; Borderline PD. *M* = 13.80) and established adults (Antisocial PD. *M* = 11.34; Narcissistic PD. *M* = 11.84; Histrionic PD. *M* = 14.03; Paranoid PD. *M* = 14.06; Borderline PD. *M* = 13.38) (see Table 3.18 & Figure 3.12).

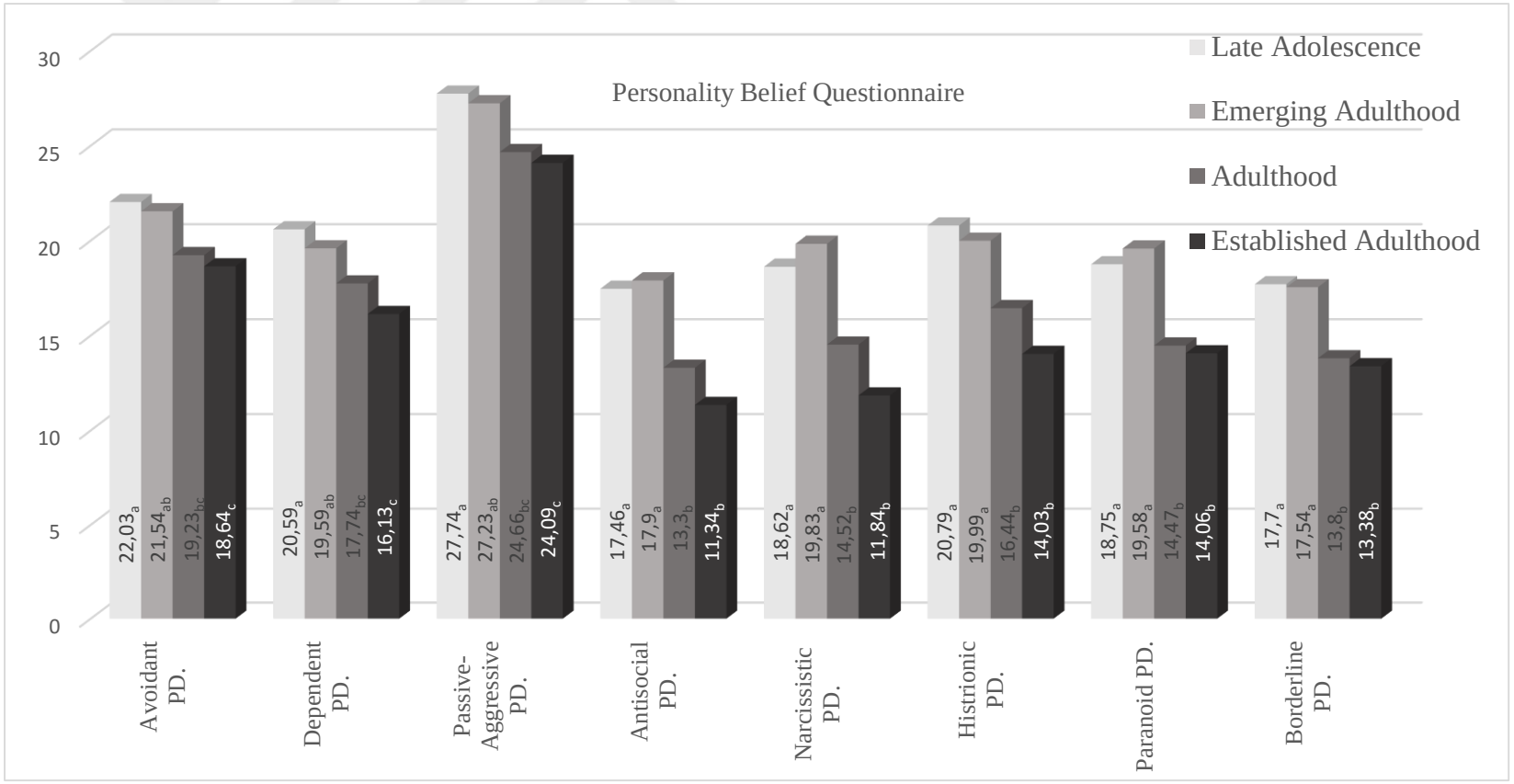

Figure 3.13. *Mean Scores of Age Groups on Personality Disorder Beliefs*

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript within the each set of bars are significantly different from each other.

3.5.7. Differences of Age and Gender on Basic Personality Traits

To be able to examine possible differences of gender and age on personality traits 2 (gender [male & female]) x 4 (age [late adolescence, emerging adulthood, adulthood, & established adulthood]) between subjects MANOVA was conducted with 6 basic personality traits (i.e., openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, & negative valence) as the dependent variables.

Results revealed significant gender (as shown in Table 3.16), Multivariate F (6, 801) = 18.018, p <.001; Wilks' Lambda = .88; η2 = .12, and age, Multivariate F (18, 2266) = 3.717, p <.001; Wilks' Lambda = .92; η2 = .03, main effects; however, there was no gender x age interaction effect, Multivariate F (18, 2266) = 1.421, p >.05; Wilks' Lambda = .97; η2 = .01, on basic personality traits.

Table 3.16. *Gender and Age Differences on Basic Personality Traits*

Variables	Wilks' Lambda	df (Multi.)	Multi. F	Multi. η2	Df (Uni.)	Uni. F	Uni. η2
Gender	.88	6, 801	18.018**	.12	-	-	-
Openness	-	-	-	-	1, 806	7.625*	.01
Conscient.	-	-	-	-	1, 806	2.201	.00
Extraversion	-	-	-	-	1, 806	1.462	.00
Agreeableness	-	-	-	-	1, 806	22.501**	.03
Neuroticism	-	-	-	-	1, 806	6,757	.01
N. Valence	-	-	-	-	1, 806	31.994**	.04
Age Groups	.92	18, 2266	3.717**	.03	-	-	-
Openness	-	-	-	-	3, 806	.913	.00
Conscient.	-	-	-	-	3, 806	4.891*	.02
Extraversion	-	-	-	-	3, 806	8.714**	.03
Agreeableness	-	-	-	-	3, 806	4.430*	.02
Neuroticism	-	-	-	-	3, 806	4.686*	.02
N. Valence	-	-	-	-	3, 806	11.988**	.04
Gender x Age	.97	18, 2266	1.421	.01	-	-	-
Openness	-	-	-	-	3, 806	1.534	.01
Conscient.	-	-	-	-	3, 806	1.717	.01
Extraversion	-	-	-	-	3, 806	2.037	.01
Agreeableness	-	-	-	-	3, 806	1.491	.01
Neuroticism	-	-	-	-	3, 806	.056	.00
N. Valence	-	-	-	-	3,806	.833	.00

*Significant after Bonferroni Correction, **p <.001

Note: **Openness:** Openness to Experience; **Conscient.:** Conscientiousness; **N. Valence:** Negative Valence

After the multivariate analyses, univariate analyses were performed for significant effects with the application of the Bonferroni correction. Thus, for the univariate analyses, the alpha values that were lower than .008 (i.e., .05/6) were considered to be significant with this correction. Univariate analyses with Bonferroni correction for main effect of gender yielded a significant effect for openness to experience, F (1, 806) = 7.625, p <.008; η2 =.01, agreeableness, F (1, 806) = 22.501, p <.001; η2 =.03, and negative valence, F (1, 806) = 31.994, p

<.001; η2 =.04, measures (See Table 3.16). According to the mean scores, male participants were more open to experience (*M* = 22.43), and had more negative valence characteristics (*M* = 10.20) than females (Openness to Experience *M* = 21.57; Negative Valence *M* = 8.97), while females (*M* = 34.22) revealed more agreeable characteristics than males (*M* = 32.68) (see Table 3.17 & Figure 3.13).

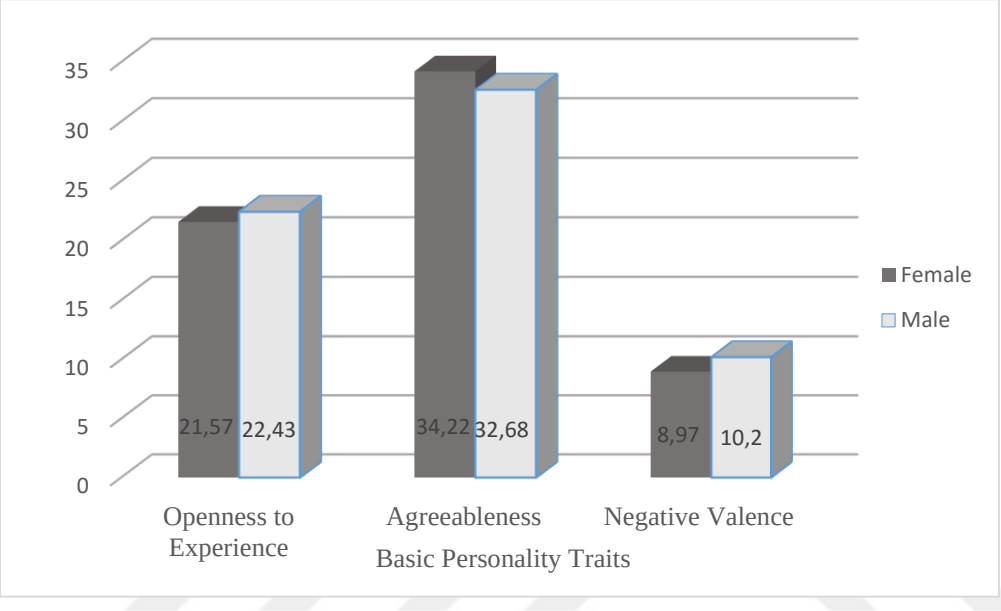

Figure 3.14. *Mean Scores of Gender on Basic Personality Traits*

In Addition to this, univariate analyses with this Bonferoni correction for main effect of age groups (as shown in Table 3.16) also indicated significant effects for conscientiousness, *F* (3, 806) = 4.891, *p* <.008; η2 =.02, extraversion, *F* (3, 806) = 8.714, *p* <.001; η2 =.03, agreeableness, *F* (3, 806) = 4.430, *p* <.008; η2 =.02, neuroticism, *F* (3, 806) = 4.686, *p* <.008; η2 =.02, and negative valence, *F* (3, 806) = 11.988, *p* <.001; η2 =.04, measures. According to the post-hoc comparisons conducted by Bonferroni analysis, established adults (Conscientiousness *M* = 29.73; Extraversion *M* = 30.43) were more conscientious and extraverted than late adolescents (Conscientiousness *M* = 27.91; Extraversion *M* = 26.87) and emerging adults (Conscientiousness *M* = 27.78; Extraversion *M* = 28.07). Although adults (Conscientiousness *M* = 29.10; Extraversion *M* = 28.63) did not have any significant difference from other age

groups in terms of being conscientious and extraverted, they (*M* = 34.12) reported that they were more agreeable than the late adolescents (*M* = 32.86) and emerging adults (*M* = 32.86). Established adults (*M* = 33.94) revealed insignificant difference from other age groups in terms of agreeableness. Furthermore, late adolescents (*M* = 25.33) were more neuroticistic than established adults (*M* = 22.86), while both emerging adults (*M* = 24.63) and adults (*M* = 23.69) did not significantly differ from any age groups in terms of neuroticistic characteristic. Lastly, although late adolescents (*M* = 10.55) had stronger negative valence than both adults (*M* = 9.23) and established adults (*M* = 8.79), emerging adults (*M* = 9.78) had stronger negative valence only than established adults (see Table 3.18 & Figure 3.14).

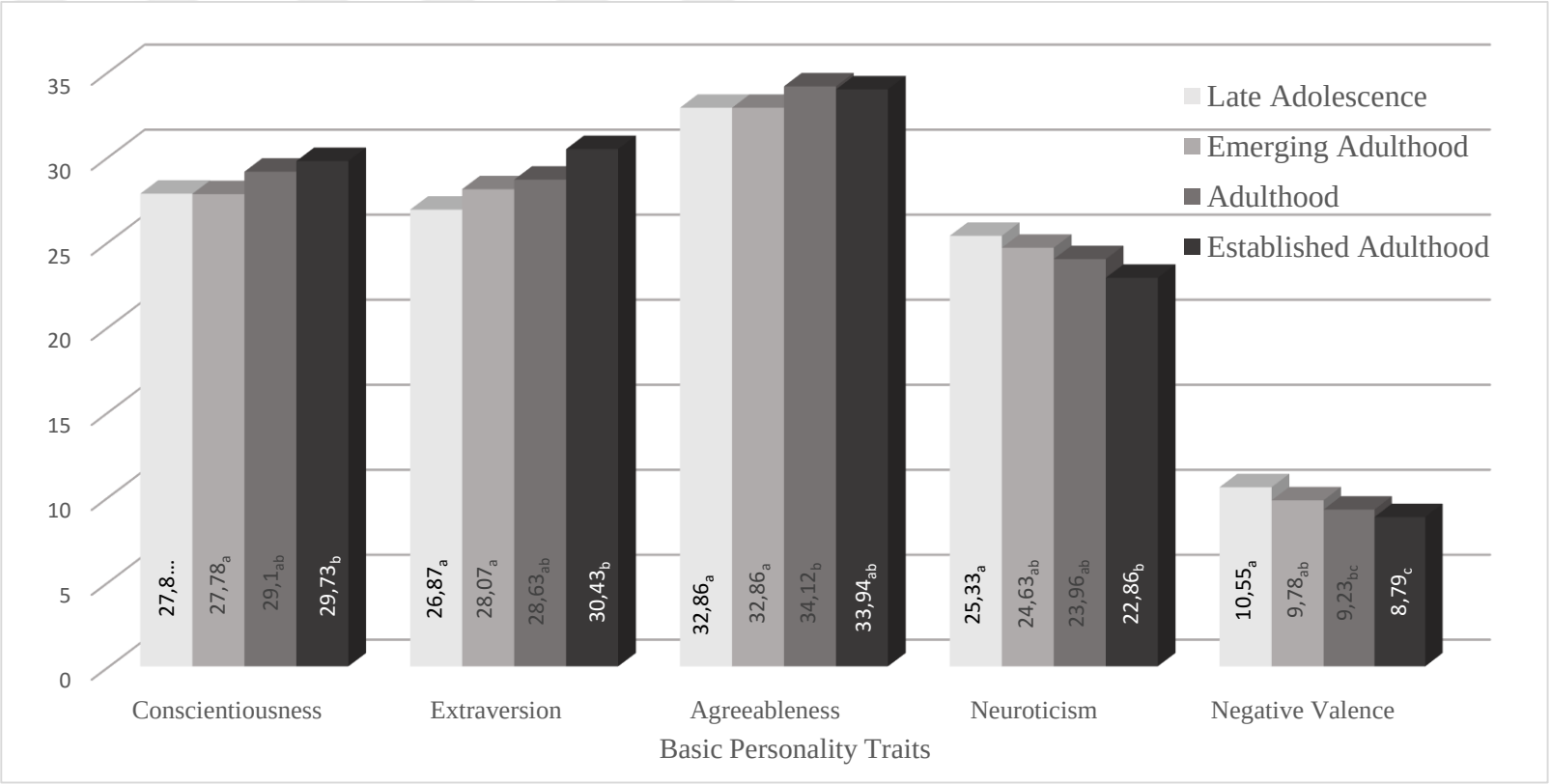

Figure 3.15. *Mean Scores of Age Groups on Basic Personality Traits*

Note: The mean scores that do not share the same subscript within the each set of bars are significantly different from each other

Table 3.17. *Mean Differences of Gender on Perceived Parental Rearing Styles, Object Relations, Defense Styles, Tendency to Lie and Ego Defense, Personality Disorder Beliefs, and Basic Personality Traits*

Measures	Male	Female
s-EMBU		
Mother	N = 262	N = 549
M. Rejection	**9.18**	**10.09**
M. Over-protection	**19.51**	**20.97**
M. Emotional Warmth	19.56	20.09
Father	N = 262	N = 545
F. Rejection	9.55	9.74
F. Over-protection	**18.19**	**19.35**
F. Emotional Warmth	17.78	18.29
BORRTI	N = 263	N = 550
Object Relations		
Alienation	10.09	10.76
Insecure Attachment	**8.39**	**9.77**
Egocentricity	6.21	6.79
Social Incompetence	4.09	4.02
DSQ	N = 263	N = 551
Immature Defenses	91.42	92.05
Neurotic Defenses	**34.92**	**37.45**
Mature Defenses	44.47	44.55
MMPI	N = 263	N = 551
Tendency to Lie (MMPI-L)	10.92	11.07
Ego Defense (MMPI-K)	**18.40**	**19.31**
PBQ	N = 261	N = 548
Avoidant PD.	19.90	20.81
Dependent PD.	17.76	19.29
Passive-Aggressive PD.	26.02	25.84
Obsessive-Compulsive PD.	27.77	26.34

Table 3.17. *(cont.'d) Mean Differences of Gender on Perceived Parental Rearing Styles, Object Relations, Defense Styles, Tendency to Lie and Ego Defense, Personality Disorder Beliefs, and Basic Personality Traits*

Measures	Male	Female
Antisocial PD.	**15.98**	**14.02**
Narcissistic PD.	16.45	14.96
Histrionic PD.	17.59	18.04
Schizoid PD.	23.64	22.30
Paranoid PD.	17.52	15.91
Borderline PD.	15.84	15.37
BPTI	N = 263	N = 551
Openness to Experience	**22.43**	**21.57**
Conscientiousness	28.28	28.93
Extraversion	28.20	28.80
Agreeableness	**32.68**	**34.22**
Neuroticism	23.48	24.77
Negative Valence	**10.20**	**8.97**

Note: Significant mean differences appear in bold.

Table 3.18. *Mean Differences of Age Groups on Perceived Parental Rearing Styles, Object Relations, Defense Styles, Tendency to Lie and Ego Defense, Personality Disorder Beliefs, and Basic Personality Traits*

Measures	Late Adolescence	Emerging Adulthood	Adulthood	Established Adulthood
S-EMBU				
Mother	N = 206	N = 193	N = 205	N = 207
M. Rejection	**9.22$_{a}$**	**9.41$_{a}$**	**9.42$_{a}$**	**10.47$_{b}$**
M. Over-protection	20.68	20.22	19.95	20.12
M. Emotional Warmth	**21.12$_{a}$**	**20.76$_{ab}$**	**19.89$_{b}$**	**17.53$_{c}$**
Father	N = 205	N = 193	N = 205	N = 204
F. Rejection	9.46	9.40	9.48	10.24
F. Over-protection	19.26	18.83	18.34	18.65
F. Emotional Warmth	**18.93$_{a}$**	**18.82$_{a}$**	**17.90$_{a}$**	**16.49$_{b}$**
BORRTI				
Object Relations	N = 206	N = 194	N = 205	N = 208
Alienation	**12.28$_{a}$**	**11.54$_{a}$**	**9.33$_{b}$**	**8.53$_{b}$**
Insecure Attachment	**10.24$_{a}$**	**10.16$_{a}$**	**8.41$_{b}$**	**7.50$_{b}$**
Egocentricity	**7.35$_{a}$**	**7.47$_{a}$**	**5.88$_{b}$**	**5.31$_{b}$**
Social Incompetence	**5.36$_{a}$**	**4.64$_{ab}$**	**3.54$_{bc}$**	**2.67$_{c}$**
DSQ	N = 206	N = 195	N = 205	N = 208
Immature Defenses	**98.49$_{a}$**	**97.50$_{a}$**	**87.59$_{b}$**	**83.35$_{b}$**
Neurotic Defenses	**38.47$_{a}$**	**36.41$_{ab}$**	**34.89$_{b}$**	**34.98$_{b}$**
Mature Defenses	44.92	44.43	45.87	42.81
MMPI	N = 206	N = 195	N = 205	N = 208
Tendency to Lie (MMPI-L)	**11.26$_{a}$**	**11.37$_{a}$**	**10.98$_{ab}$**	**10.38$_{b}$**
Ego Defense (MMPI-K)	**19.59$_{a}$**	**19.62$_{a}$**	**18.27$_{b}$**	**17.93$_{b}$**
PBQ	N = 205	N =193	N = 204	N = 207
Avoidant PD.	**22.03$_{a}$**	**21.54$_{ab}$**	**19.23$_{bc}$**	**18.64$_{c}$**
Dependent PD.	**20.59$_{a}$**	**19.59$_{ab}$**	**17.74$_{bc}$**	**16.13$_{c}$**
Passive-Aggressive PD.	**27.74$_{a}$**	**27.23$_{ab}$**	**24.66$_{bc}$**	**24.09$_{c}$**
Obsessive-Compulsive PD.	27.80	27.23	24.66	24.09

Table 3.18. *(cont.'d) Mean Differences of Age Groups on Perceived Parental Rearing Styles, Object Relations, Defense Styles, Tendency to Lie and Ego Defense, Personality Disorder Beliefs, and Basic Personality Traits*

Measures	Late Adolescence	Emerging Adulthood	Adulthood	Established Adulthood
Antisocial PD.	**17.46$_{a}$**	**17.90$_{a}$**	**13.30$_{b}$**	**11.34$_{b}$**
Narcissistic PD.	**18.62$_{a}$**	**17.83$_{a}$**	**14.52$_{b}$**	**11.84$_{b}$**
Histrionic PD.	**20.79$_{a}$**	**19.99$_{a}$**	**16.44$_{b}$**	**14.03$_{b}$**
Schizoid PD.	23.38	24.56	22.33	21.60
Paranoid PD.	**18.75$_{a}$**	**19.58$_{a}$**	**14.47$_{b}$**	**14.06$_{b}$**
Borderline PD.	**17.70$_{a}$**	**17.54$_{a}$**	**13.80$_{b}$**	**13.38$_{b}$**
BPTI	N = 206	N = 195	N = 205	N = 208
Openness to Experience	21.60	22.03	22.32	22.05
Conscientiousness	**27.81$_{a}$**	**27.78$_{a}$**	**29.10$_{ab}$**	**29.73$_{b}$**
Extraversion	**26.87$_{a}$**	**28.07$_{a}$**	**28.63$_{ab}$**	**30.43$_{b}$**
Agreeableness	**32.86$_{a}$**	**32.86$_{a}$**	**34.12$_{b}$**	**33.94$_{ab}$**
Neuroticism	**25.33$_{a}$**	**24.63$_{ab}$**	**23.69$_{ab}$**	**22.86$_{b}$**
Negative Valence	**10.55$_{a}$**	**9.78$_{ab}$**	**9.23$_{bc}$**	**8.79$_{c}$**

Note: Significant mean differences appear in bold. The Mean scores that do not share the same subscript on the same row are significantly different from each other.

3.6. Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Considering the model presented in the Introduction Section separate hierarchical multiple regression analysis were conducted. These analyses were conducted in two sets considering perceived parental rearing styles or object relations each with two subsets of (in)dependent variables (i.e., defense styles & personality patterns). Defense styles included three types, namely immature, neurotic, and mature; whereas, personality patterns included two characteristics, namely symptomatology (which covered three clusters: A, B, & C) and general traits (which covered two types of personality traits: plasticity & stability).

3.6.1. Associates of Defense Styles and Personality Patterns

For the first set of regression analyses conducted with *perceived parental rearing styles*; two subsets of analyses were run separately to reveal associates of Defense Styles (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature) and Personality Patterns (i.e., symptomatology & general traits)

3.6.1.1. Variables Associated with Defense Styles

Three separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed to reveal the significant associates of defense styles, namely immature, neurotic, and mature defenses.

Variables were hierarchically entered into the equations via two steps. In order to control for the effects of demographic variables on the dependent variable gender and age were hierarchically entered into each equation in the first step. After controlling for the demographic variables that were significantly associated with the dependent variable, variables related to perceived maternal and paternal rearing styles (i.e., rejection, over-protection, & warmth) were hierarchically entered into each equation on the second step.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for the immature defense styles revealed that among control variables only age (*pr* = -.20, *β* = -.20, *t* [802] = -5.804, *p* < .001) was significantly associated with immature defense styles. Age explained 4% of the variance (*ΔF* [1, 802] = 33.682, *p* < .001). After controlling for this factor, among perceived parental styles, maternal rejection (*pr* = .25, *β* = .25, *t* [801] = 7.301, *p* < .001), paternal over-protection (*pr* = .12, *β* = .12, *t* [800] = 3.503, *p* < .001), and paternal warmth (*pr* = -.10, *β* = -.10, *t* [799] = -2.886, *p* < .01) had significant associations with the immature defense styles. Maternal rejection increased explained variance to 10% (*ΔF* [1, 801] = 53.307, *p* < .001); paternal over-protection increased variance to 11% (*ΔF* [1, 800] = 12.270, *p* < .001); and paternal warmth increased variance to 12% (*ΔF* [1, 799] = 8.326, *p* < .01) (see Table 3.19). Totally, four factors namely age, maternal rejection, paternal over-protection, and paternal warmth had significant associations with immature defense styles. That is, younger participants, and those who perceived their mothers as more rejective, and perceived their fathers as more protective and less emotionally warm were more likely to use immature defenses.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for the neurotic defenses revealed that among control variables both age (*pr* = -.14, *β* = -.14, *t* [802] = -3.983, *p* < .001) and gender (*pr* = -.12, *β* = -.12, *t* [801] = -3.533, *p* < .001) were significantly associated with neurotic defense styles. Accordingly, age explained 2% of the variance (*ΔF* [1, 802] = 15.864, *p* < .001), and with the entrance of gender explained variance increased to 3% (*ΔF* [1, 801] = 12.479, *p* < .001). After controlling for these factors, among perceived parental rearing styles, maternal warmth (*pr* = .12, *β* = .12, *t* [800] = 3.321, *p* = .001) and over-protection (*pr* = .08, *β* = .08, *t* [799] = 2.287, *p* < .05) revealed significant associations with the neurotic defense styles. Thus, maternal warmth increased explained variance to 5% (*ΔF* [1, 800] = 11.031, *p* = .001); and maternal over-protection increased variance to 6% (*ΔF* [1, 799] = 5.23, *p* < .05) (see Table 3.19). Totally, age, gender, maternal warmth, and maternal over-protection had significant associations with neurotic defenses. That is, younger female

participants, and those who perceived their mothers as more emotionally warm and more over-protective tended to report more neurotic defenses.

Lastly, hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for the mature defenses revealed that none of the variables except maternal emotional warmth (pr = .20, β = .20, t [802] = 5.913, p < .001) was significantly associated with mature defenses. Maternal emotional warmth explained 4% of the variance (ΔF [1, 802] = 34.963, p < .001) (see Table 3.19). Therefore, it could be said that only those participants who perceived their mothers as more emotionally warm tended to report more mature defenses.

Table 3.19. *Associated Variables of Defense Styles*

	df	F_{Change} (ΔF)	β	t	pr	R^2
Dependent Variable:						
Immature Defenses						
1. Control Measures						
Age	1, 802	33.682***	-.20	-5.804	-.20	.04
2. Perceived Parental Rearing Styles						
Maternal Rejection	1, 801	53.307***	.25	7.301	.25	.10
Paternal Over-Protection	1, 800	12.270***	.12	3.503	.12	.11
Paternal Warmth	1, 799	8.326**	-.10	-2.886	-.10	.12
Dependent Variable:						
Neurotic Defenses						
1. Control Variables						
Age	1, 802	15.864***	-.14	-3.983	-.14	.02
Gender	1, 801	12.479***	-.12	-3.533	-.12	.03
2. Perceived Parental Rearing Styles						
Maternal Warmth	1, 800	11.031***	.12	3.321	.12	.05
Maternal Over-Protection	1,799	5.23*	.08	2.287	.08	.06

Table 3.19. *(cont.'d) Associated Variables of Defense Styles*

	df	F_{Change} (ΔF)	β	t	pr	R^2
Dependent Variable:						
Mature Defenses						
1. Control Variables						
-						
2. Perceived Parental Rearing Styles						
Maternal Warmth	1, 802	34.963***	.20	5.913	.20	.04

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

3.6.1.2. Variables Associated with Personality Patterns

Five separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses (three for personality symptomatology & two for general personality traits) were performed to reveal the significant associates of personality patterns (i.e., symptomatology & general traits).

3.6.1.2.1. Associates of Personality Symptomatology

In those analyses, variables were hierarchically entered into the equations via three steps. In order to control for the effects of demographic variables on the dependent variable gender and age were hierarchically entered into each equation in the first step. Following the first step, variables related to perceived parental rearing styles (i.e., rejection, over-protection, & warmth) were hierarchically entered into each equation in the second step. After controlling for the demographic variables and perceived parental rearing styles that were significantly associated with personality symptomatology (i.e., Cluster A PDs, Cluster B PDs, & Cluster C PDs), defense styles (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature) were hierarchically entered into each equation on the third step.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for the Cluster A Personality Disorders (PDs) symptomatology revealed that among control variables both age (*pr* = -.15, *β* = -.15, *t* [801] = -4.398, *p* < .001) and gender (*pr* = .09, *β* = .09, *t* [800] = 2.493, *p* < .05) were significantly associated with the symptoms of Cluster A PDs. Accordingly, age explained 2% of the variance (*ΔF* [1, 801] = 19.342, *p* < .001), and with the entrance of gender explained variance increased to 3% (*ΔF* [1, 800] = 6.217, *p* < .05). After controlling for the demographic variables, among perceived parental rearing styles, maternal over-protection (*pr* = .23, *β* = .22, *t* [799] = 6.535, *p* < .001) and paternal rejection (*pr* = .16, *β* = .16, *t* [798] = 4.486, *p* < .001) had significant associations with the Cluster A PDs symptomatology. Thus, maternal over-protection increased explained variance to 8% (*ΔF* [1, 799] = 42.706, *p* < .001); and paternal rejection increased variance to 10% (*ΔF* [1, 798] = 20.128, *p* < .001). In the third step, defense styles namely immature defenses (*pr* = .52, *β* = .52, *t* [797] = 17.115, *p* < .001) and neurotic defenses (*pr* = -.10, *β* = -.10, *t* [796] = -2.882, *p* < .01) were associated with the symptoms of Cluster A PDs. Explained variance increased to 34% with the addition of immature defenses (*ΔF* [1, 797] = 292.913, *p* < .001). Moreover, with the addition of neurotic defenses, explained variance increased to 35% (*ΔF* [1, 796] = 8.304, *p* < .01) (see Table 3.20). In other words, 6 factors, namely age, gender, maternal protection, paternal rejection, immature defenses, and neurotic defenses had significant associations with the Cluster A PDs symptoms. That is, younger male participants who perceived their mothers as more over-protective and their fathers as more rejective, and those who used more immature defenses and less neurotic defenses were more likely to have the Cluster A PDs symptomatology.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for the Cluster B PDs Symptomology revealed that among control variables only age (*pr* = -.26, *β* = -.26, *t* [802] = -7.666, *p* < .001) was significantly associated with the symptoms of Cluster B PDs, and explained 7% of the variance (*ΔF* [1, 802] = 58.770, *p* < .001). After controlling for age, among perceived parental rearing styles,

maternal over-protection (*pr* = .19, *β* = .20, *t* [801] = 5.804, *p* < .001) and paternal rejection (*pr* = .12, *β* = .12, *t* [800] = 3.530, *p* < .001) had significant associations with the symptoms of Cluster B PDs. Thus, maternal over-protection increased explained variance to 11% (*ΔF* [1, 801] = 33.689, *p* < .001); and paternal rejection increased variance to 12% (*ΔF* [1, 800] = 12.458, *p* < .001). In the third and last step, defense styles were entered into the equations, and significant associations were observed for immature (*pr* = .58, *β* = .58, *t* [799] = 19.878, *p* < .001) and mature defenses (*pr* = -.08, *β* = -.07, *t* [798] = -2.488, *p* < .05). In this step, explained variance increased to 41% with the addition of immature defenses (*ΔF* [1, 799] = 395.126, *p* < .001). Moreover, with the addition of mature defenses, explained variance increased to 42% (*ΔF* [1, 798] = 6.189, *p* < .05) (see Table 3.20). In other words, 5 factors, namely age, maternal protection, paternal rejection, immature defenses, and mature defenses had significant associations with the symptoms of Cluster B PDs. That is, younger participants who perceived their mothers as more over-protective and their fathers as more rejective, and those who used more immature defenses and less mature defenses were more likely to have the Cluster B PDs symptomatology.

Lastly, hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for the Cluster C PDs symptomology revealed that among control variables only age (*pr* = -.16, *β* = -.16, *t* [800] = -4.661, *p* < .001) was significantly associated with the Cluster C PDs symptomatology, and explained 3% of the variance (*ΔF* [1, 800] = 21.728, *p* < .001). After controlling for age, in the second step, among perceived parental rearing styles, paternal over-protection (*pr* = .25, *β* = .25, *t* [799] = 7.416, *p* < .001) and emotional warmth (*pr* = -.11, *β* = -.11, *t* [798] = -3.171, *p* < .01), and maternal over-protection (*pr* = .09, *β* = .12, *t* [797] = 2.612, *p* < .01) had significant associations with the symptoms of Cluster C PDs. Thus, paternal over-protection increased explained variance to 9% (*ΔF* [1, 799] = 55.001, *p* < .001); paternal warmth increased variance to 10% (*ΔF* [1, 798] = 10.057, *p* < .01); and maternal over protection increased variance to 11% (*ΔF* [1, 797] =

6.824, $p < .01$). In the third step, defense styles were entered into the equations, and it was observed that all defense styles, namely immature ($pr = .52$, $\beta = .52$, t [796] = 17.224, $p < .001$), mature ($pr = -.17$, $\beta = -.14$, t [795] = -4.754, $p < .001$), and neurotic ($pr = .20$, $\beta = .18$, t [794] = 5.647, $p < .001$) defenses had significant associations with the Cluster C PDs symptomatology. In this step, explained variance increased to 35% with the addition of immature defenses (ΔF [1, 796] = 296.658, $p < .001$). Moreover, with the addition of mature defenses, explained variance increased to 36% (ΔF [1, 795] = 22.602, $p < .001$), and neurotic defenses increased explained variance to 39% (ΔF [1, 794] = 31.894, $p < .001$) (see Table 3.20). In other words, 7 factors, namely age, paternal over-protection and emotional warmth, maternal over-protection; and immature, mature, and neurotic defenses had significant associations with the symptoms of the Cluster C PDs. That is, younger participants who perceived their fathers and mothers as more over-protective, and perceived their fathers as less emotionally warm, and those who used more immature and neurotic defenses, and less mature defenses were more likely to have the Cluster C PDs symptomatology.

Table 3.20. *Associated Variables of Personality Symptomatology*

	df	F_{Change} (ΔF)	β	t	pr	R^2
Dependent Variable:						
Cluster A PDs						
Symptomatology						
1. Control Variables						
Age	1, 801	19.342***	-.15	-4.398	-.15	.02
Gender	1, 800	6.217*	.09	2.493	.09	.03
2. Perceived Parental						
Rearing Styles						
Maternal Over-Protection	1, 799	42.706***	.22	6.535	.23	.08
Paternal Rejection	1,798	20.128***	.16	4.486	.16	.10
3. Defense Styles						
Immature Defenses	1, 797	292.913***	.52	17.115	.52	.34
Neurotic Defenses	1, 796	8.304**	-.10	-2.882	-.10	.35
Dependent Variable:						
Cluster B PDs						
Symptomatology						
1. Control Variables						
Age	1, 802	58.770***	-.26	-7.666	-.26	.07
2. Perceived Parental						
Rearing Styles						
Maternal Over-Protection	1, 801	33.689***	.20	5.804	.19	.11
Paternal Rejection	1, 800	12.458***	.12	3.530	.12	.12
Mature Defenses	1, 798	6.189*	-.07	-2.488	-.08	.42
Dependent Variable:						
Cluster C PDs						
Symptomatology						
1. Control Variables						
Age	1, 800	21.728***	-.16	-4.661	-.16	.03
2. Perceived Parental						
Rearing Styles						
Paternal Over-Protection	1, 799	55.001***	.25	7.416	.25	.09
Paternal Warmth	1, 798	10.057**	-.11	-3.171	-.11	.10
Maternal Over-Protection	1,797	6.824**	.12	2.612	.09	.11

Table 3.20. *(cont.'d) Associated Variables of Personality Symptomatology*

	df	F_{Change} (ΔF)	β	t	pr	R^2
3. Defense Styles						
Immature Defenses	1, 796	296.658***	.52	17.224	.52	.35
Mature Defenses	1, 795	22.602***	-.14	-4.754	-.17	.36
Neurotic Defenses	1, 794	31.894***	.18	5.647	.20	.39

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

3.6.1.2.2. Variables Associated with General Personality Traits

Similar with previous analyses, variables were hierarchically entered into the equations via three steps. In order to control for the effects of demographic variables on the dependent variable, general personality traits, gender and age were hierarchically entered into the equation in the first step. Following the first step, variables related to perceived parental rearing styles (i.e., rejection, over-protection, & warmth) were hierarchically entered into each equation in the second step. After controlling for the demographic variables and perceived parental rearing styles that were significantly associated with general personality traits (i.e., plasticity & stability) defense styles (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature) were hierarchically entered into each equation on the third step. Hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for plasticity revealed that among control variables only age (pr = .18, β = .18, t [802] = 5.059, $p < .001$) was significantly associated with plasticity, and explained 3% of the variance (ΔF [1, 802] = 25.594, $p < .001$). After controlling for age, among perceived parental rearing styles, paternal warmth (pr = .25, β = .25, t [801] = 7.198, $p < .001$) and over-protection (pr = -.14, β = -.13, t [800] = -3.906, $p < .001$), and maternal warmth (pr = .10, β = .13, t [799] = 2.814, $p < .01$) had significant associations with plasticity. Thus, paternal warmth increased explained variance to 9% (ΔF [1, 801] = 51.816, $p < .001$); paternal over-protection increased variance to 10% (ΔF [1, 800] = 15.256, $p < .001$); and maternal warmth increased variance to 11% (ΔF [1, 799] = 7.917, $p < .01$). In the third step, defense styles were entered

into the equations, and significant associations were observed for mature (*pr* = .26, *β* = .25, *t* [798] = 7.704, *p* < .001) and immature defenses (*pr* = -.30, *β* = -.30, *t* [797] = -9.011, *p* < .001). In this step, explained variance increased to 18% with the addition of mature defenses (*ΔF* [1, 798] = 59.344, *p* < .001). Moreover, with the addition of immature defenses, explained variance increased to 25% (*ΔF* [1, 797] = 81.199, *p* < .001) (see Table 3.21). In other words, 6 factors, namely age, paternal warmth and over protection, maternal warmth, mature defenses, and immature defenses had significant associations with plasticity. That is, older participants who perceived their mothers and father as more emotionally warm, and perceived their fathers as less protective, and those who used more mature defenses and less immature defenses were more likely to have plasticity in their personality characteristics.

Finally, for stability features of personality, same method was followed. This last hierarchical multiple regression analysis with perceived parental rearing styles revealed that among control variables only age (*pr* = .19, *β* = .19, *t* [802] = 5.335, *p* < .001) was significantly associated with stability, and explained 3% of the variance (*ΔF* [1, 802] = 28.461, *p* < .001). After controlling for age, among perceived parental rearing styles, maternal warmth (*pr* = .27 *β* = .27, *t* [801] = 7.890, *p* < .001) and rejection (*pr* = -.15, *β* = -.16, *t* [800] = -4.332, *p* < .001), and paternal warmth (*pr* = .12, *β* = .15, *t* [799] = 3.494, *p* = .001) had significant associations with stability. Thus, maternal warmth increased explained variance to 10% (*ΔF* [1, 801] = 62.247, *p* < .001); maternal rejection increased variance to 12% (*ΔF* [1, 800] = 18.767, *p* < .001); and paternal warmth increased variance to 14% (*ΔF* [1, 799] = 12.211, *p* = .001). In the third step, defense styles were entered into the equations, and all defenses, namely immature (*pr* = -.37, *β* = -.37, *t* [798] = -11.399, *p* < .001), mature (*pr* = .29, *β* = .26, *t* [797] = 8.662, *p* < .001), and neurotic (*pr* = .20, *β* = .19, *t* [796] = 5.669, *p* < .001) defenses had significant associations with stability. Immature defenses increased explained variance to 26% (*ΔF* [1, 798] = 129.928, *p* < .001); mature defenses increased variance to 32% (*ΔF* [1, 797] = 75.030, *p* < .001); and neurotic defenses

increased variance to 35% ΔF [1, 796] = 32.134, $p < .001$) (see Table 3.21). Briefly, 7 factors, namely age, maternal warmth, maternal rejection, paternal warmth, immature defenses, mature defenses, and neurotic defenses had significant associations with stability. These results implied that older participants who perceived their mothers as more emotionally warm and less rejective, and perceived their fathers as more emotionally warm; and those who used more mature and neurotic defenses but less immature defenses were more likely to have stability as general personality traits.

Table 3.21. *Associated Variables of General Personality Traits*

	df	F_{Change} (ΔF)	β	t	pr	R^2
Dependent Variable:						
Plasticity						
1. Control Variables						
Age	1, 802	25.594**	.18	5.059	.18	.03
2. Perceived Parental Rearing Styles						
Paternal Warmth	1, 801	51.816**	.25	7.198	.25	.09
Paternal Over-Protection	1, 800	15.256**	-.13	-3.906	-.14	.10
Maternal Warmth	1, 799	7.917*	.13	2.814	.10	.11
3. Defense Styles						
Mature Defenses	1, 798	59.344**	.25	7.704	.26	.18
Immature Defenses	1,797	81.199**	-.30	-9.011	-.30	.25
Dependent Variable:						
Stability						
1. Control Variables						
Age	1, 802	28.461**	.19	5.335	.19	.03
2. Perceived Parental Rearing Styles						
Maternal Warmth	1, 801	62.247**	.28	7.890	.27	.10
Maternal Rejection	1, 800	18.767**	-.16	-4.332	-.15	.12
Paternal Warmth	1,799	12.211**	.15	3.494	.12	.14
3. Defense Styles						
Immature Defenses	1,798	129.928**	-.37	-11.399	-.37	.26
Mature Defenses	1,797	75.030**	.26	8.662	.29	.32
Neurotic Defenses	1, 796	32.134**	.19	5.669	.20	.35

*$p < .01$, **$p \leq .001$

3.6.2. Associates of Defense Styles and Personality Patterns _ Object Relations

For the second set of regression analyses conducted with *object relations*; two subsets of analyses were run separately to reveal associates of defense styles (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature) and personality patterns (i.e., symptomatology & general traits)

3.6.2.1. Variables Associated with Defense Styles

Three separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed to reveal the significant associates of defense styles, namely immature, neurotic, and mature defenses.

Variables were hierarchically entered into the equations via two steps. In order to control for the effects of demographic variables on the dependent variable gender and age were hierarchically entered into each equation in the first step. After controlling for the demographic variables that were significantly associated with the dependent variable, variables related to object relations (i.e., alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, & social incompetence) were hierarchically entered into each equation on the second step.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for the immature defense styles revealed that among control variables only age (pr = -.20, β = -.20, t [811] = -5.833, $p < .001$) was significantly associated with immature defense styles, and explained 4% of the variance (ΔF [1, 811] = 34.02, $p < .001$). After controlling for this factor, among object relations, egocentricity (pr = .61, β = .60, t [810] = 21.74, $p < .001$), insecure attachment (pr = .27, β = .30, t [809] = 7.985, $p < .001$), and social incompetence (pr = .13, β = .11, t [808] = 3.621, $p < .001$) had significant associations with the immature defense styles. According to results, egocentricity increased explained variance to 39% (ΔF [1, 810] = 472.641, $p <$

.001); insecure attachment increased variance to 44% (ΔF [1, 809] = 63.764, $p <$ .001); and social incompetence increased variance to 45% (ΔF [1, 808] = 13.113, $p < .001$) (see Table 3.22). Totally, four factors namely age, egocentricity, insecure attachment, and social incompetence had significant associations with immature defense styles. That is, younger participants, and those who tended to report more egocentricity, insecure attachment, and social incompetence were more likely to use immature defenses.

Secondly, hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for the neurotic defenses revealed that among control variables both age (pr = -.14, β = -.14, t [811] = -4.028, $p < .001$) and gender (pr = -.12, β = -.12, t [810] = -3.429, p = .001) were significantly associated with neurotic defenses. Accordingly, age explained 2% of the variance (ΔF [1, 811] = 16.225, $p < .001$), and with the entrance of gender explained variance increased to 3% (ΔF [1, 810] = 11.757, p = .001). After controlling for these factors, among object relations, insecure attachment (pr = .26, β = .26, t [809] = 7.575, $p < .001$), alienation (pr = -.09, β = -.12, t [808] = -2.643, $p < .01$), and egocentricity (pr = .13, β = .19, t [807] = 3.751, $p < .001$) revealed significant associations with the neurotic defense styles. Thus, insecure attachment increased explained variance to 10% (ΔF [1, 800] = 57.379, $p <$ .001); alienation increased explained variance to 11% (ΔF [1, 808] = 6.987, $p <$ .01); and egocentricity increased variance to 12% (ΔF [1, 807] = 14.068, $p <$ .001) (see Table 3.22). Totally, age, gender, insecure attachment, alienation, and egocentricity had significant associations with neurotic defenses. That is, younger female participants, and those who developed more insecure attachment and egocentricity, and less alienation tended to report more neurotic defenses.

Lastly, hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for the mature defenses revealed that none of the variables among control variables was significantly associated with mature defenses. Among object relations, alienation (pr = -.21, β = -.21, t [811] = -6.227, $p < .001$), egocentricity (pr = .14, β = .18, t [810] = 3.974, $p < .001$), and insecure attachment (pr = -.08, β = -.21, t [809] = -2.373, p

< .05) revealed significant associations with mature defenses. According to results, alienation explained 5% of the variance (ΔF [1, 811] = 38.775, p < .001); insecure attachment increased explained variance to 6% (ΔF [1, 810] = 15.789, p < .001); and egocentricity increased explained variance to 7% (ΔF [1, 809] = 5.629, p < .05) (see Table 3.22). Totally, alienation, insecure attachment, and egocentricity had significant associations with mature defenses. That is, participants who reported having less alienation and insecure attachment, and more egocentricity were more likely to have mature defenses.

Table 3.22. *Associated Variables of Defense Styles*

	df	F_{Change} (ΔF)	β	t	pr	R^2
Dependent Variable:						
Immature Defenses						
1. Control Measures						
Age	1, 811	34.02***	-.20	-5.833	-.20	.04
2. Object Relations						
Egocentricity	1, 810	472.641***	.60	21.74	.61	.39
Insecure Attachment	1, 809	63.764***	.30	7.985	.27	.44
Social Incompetence	1, 808	13.113**	.11	3.621	.13	.45
Dependent Variable:						
Neurotic Defenses						
1. Control Variables						
Age	1, 811	16.225***	-.14	-4.028	-.14	.02
Gender	1, 810	11.757***	-.12	-3.429	-.12	.03
2. Object Relation						
Insecure Attachment	1, 809	57.379***	.26	7.575	.26	.10
Alienation	1, 808	6.987**	-.12	-2.643	-.09	.11
Egocentricity	1, 807	14.068***	.19	3.751	.13	.12
Dependent Variable:						
Mature Defenses						
1. Control Variables						
-						
2. Object Relations						
Alienation	1, 811	38.775***	-.21	-6.227	-.21	.05
Egocentricity	1, 810	15.789***	.18	3.974	.14	.06
Insecure Attachment	1,809	5.629*	-.21	-2.373	-.08	.07

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

3.6.2.2. Variables Associated with Personality Patterns

Five separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses (three for personality symptomatology & two for general personality traits) were performed to reveal

the significant associates of personality patterns (i.e., symptomatology & general traits).

3.6.2.2.1. Associates of Personality Symptomatology

In those analyses, variables were hierarchically entered into the equations via three steps. In order to control for the effects of demographic variables on the dependent variable gender and age were hierarchically entered into each equation in the first step. Following the first step, variables related to object relations (i.e., alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, & social incompetence) were hierarchically entered into each equation in the second step. After controlling for the demographic variables and object relations that were significantly associated with personality symptomatology (i.e., Cluster A PDs, Cluster B PDs, & Cluster C PDs), defense styles (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature) were hierarchically entered into each equation on the third step.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for the Cluster A Personality Disorders (PDs) symptomatology revealed that among control variables both age (pr = -.15, β = -.15, t [809] = -4.434, $p < .001$) and gender (pr = .08, β = .08, t [808] = 2.23, $p < .05$) were significantly associated with the symptoms of Cluster A PDs. Accordingly, age explained 2% of the variance (ΔF [1, 809] = 19.66, $p < .001$), and with the entrance of gender explained variance increased to 3% (ΔF [1, 808] = 4.972, $p < .05$). After controlling for the demographic variables, among object relations, egocentricity (pr = .50, β = .50, t [807] = 16.334, $p < .001$) and alienation (pr = .17, β = .20, t [808] = 4.84, $p < .001$) had significant associations with the Cluster A PDs symptoms. Thus, egocentricity increased explained variance to 27% (ΔF [1, 807] = 266.796, $p < .001$); and alienation increased variance to 29% (ΔF [1, 806] = 23.421, $p < .001$). In the third step, all of the defense styles, namely immature defenses (pr = .35, β = .38, t [805] = 10.472, $p < .001$), neurotic defenses (pr = -.09, β = -.08, t [804] = -2.561, $p < .05$), and mature defenses (pr = .10, β = .09, t [803] = 2.934, $p < .01$)

were associated with the symptoms of Cluster A PDs. Explained variance increased to 37% with the addition of immature (ΔF [1, 805] = 109.668, $p <$ .001), to 38% with the addition to neurotic (ΔF [1, 804] = 6.56, $p < .05$), and to 39% with the addition to mature defenses (ΔF [1, 803] = 8.611, $p < .01$) (see Table 3.23). In other words, 7 factors, namely age, gender, egocentricity, alienation, and immature, neurotic and mature defenses had significant associations with the Cluster A PD symptoms. That is, younger male participants who had more egocentricity and alienation, and those who used more immature defenses or mature defenses, and less neurotic defenses were more likely to have the Cluster A PDs Symptomatology.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for the Cluster B PDs symptomology revealed that among control variables only age (pr = -.26, β = -.26, t [811] = -7.718, $p < .001$) was significantly associated with the symptoms of Cluster B PDs, and explained 7% of the variance (ΔF [1, 811] = 59.568, $p <$ .001). After controlling for age, among object relations, egocentricity (pr = .53, β = .52, t [810] = 17.8, $p < .001$), insecure attachment (pr = .16, β = .20, t [809] = 4.694, $p < .001$), and alienation (pr = .08, β = .09, t [808] = 2.156, $p < .05$) had significant associations with the symptoms of Cluster B PDs. Thus, egocentricity increased explained variance to 33% (ΔF [1, 810] = 316.828, $p < .001$); insecure attachment increased explained variance to 34% (ΔF [1, 809] = 22.033, $p <$ .001); and alienation increased variance to 35% (ΔF [1, 808] = 4.65, $p < .05$). In the third and last step, defense styles were entered into the equations, and significant associations were observed only for immature defenses (pr = .39, β = .42, t [807] = 11.905, $p < .001$). In this step, explained variance increased to 46% (ΔF [1, 807] = 141.727, $p < .001$) (see Table 3.23). In other words, 5 factors, namely age, egocentricity, insecure attachment, alienation, and immature defenses had significant associations with the symptoms of Cluster B PDs. That is, younger participants who reported more egocentricity, insecure attachment and alienation, and those who used more immature defenses were more likely to have the Cluster B PDs symptomatology.

Lastly, hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for the Cluster C PDs symptomology revealed that among control variables only age (*pr* = -.17, *β* = -.17, *t* [810] = -4.753, *p* < .001) was significantly associated with the Cluster C PDs symptoms, and explained 3% of the variance (*ΔF* [1, 810] = 22.591 *p* < .001). After controlling for age, in the second step, among object relations, insecure attachment (*pr* = .55, *β* = .56, *t* [809] = 18.763, *p* < .001), egocentricity (*pr* = .25, *β* = .30, *t* [808] = 7.464, *p* < .001), and social incompetence (*pr* = .19, *β* = .18, *t* [807] = 5.577, *p* < .001) had significant associations with the symptoms of Cluster C PDs. Thus, insecure attachment increased explained variance to 32% (*ΔF* [1, 809] = 352.046, *p* < .001); egocentricity increased variance to 37% (*ΔF* [1, 808] = 55.712, *p* < .001); and social incompetence increased variance to 39% (*ΔF* [1, 807] = 31.107, *p* < .001). In the third step, defense styles were entered into the equations, and it was observed that all defense styles, namely immature (*pr* = .27, *β* = .29, *t* [806] = 8.06, *p* < .001), neurotic (*pr* = .17, *β* = .14, *t* [805] = 4.851, *p* < .001), and mature (*pr* = -.12, *β* = -.10, *t* [804] = -3.471, *p* = .001) defenses had significant associations with the Cluster C PDs symptoms. In this step, explained variance increased to 44% with the addition of immature defenses (*ΔF* [1, 806] = 64.962, *p* < .001). Moreover, with the addition of neurotic defenses, explained variance increased to 45% (*ΔF* [1, 805] = 23.537, *p* < .001), and mature defenses increased explained variance to 46% (*ΔF* [1, 804] = 12.047, *p* = .001) (see Table 3.23). In other words, 7 factors, namely age, insecure attachment, egocentricity, social incompetence; and immature, neurotic, and mature defenses had significant associations with the symptoms of the Cluster C PDs. That is, younger participants who had more insecure attachment, egocentricity and social incompetence, and those who used more immature and neurotic defenses, and less mature defenses were more likely to have the Cluster C PDs symptomatology.

Table 3.23. *Associated Variables of Personality Symptomatology*

	df	F_{Change} (ΔF)	β	t	pr	R^2
Dependent Variable:						
Cluster A PDs						
Symptomatology						
1. Control Variables						
Age	1, 809	19.66***	-.15	-4.434	-.15	.02
Gender	1, 808	4.972*	.08	2.23	.08	.03
2. Object Relations						
Egocentricity	1, 807	266.796***	.50	16.334	.50	.27
Alienation	1,806	23.421***	.20	4.84	.17	.29
3. Defense Styles						
Immature Defenses	1, 805	109.668***	.38	10.472	.35	.37
Neurotic Defenses	1, 804	6.560*	-.08	-2.561	-.09	.38
Mature Defenses	1, 803	8.611**	.09	2.934	.10	.39
Dependent Variable:						
Cluster B PDs						
Symptomatology						
1. Control Variables						
Age	1, 811	59.568***	-.26	-7.718	-.26	.07
2. Object Relations						
Egocentricity	1, 810	316.828***	.52	17.8	.53	.33
Insecure Attachment	1, 809	22.033***	.20	4.694	.16	.34
Alienation	1, 808	4.650*	.09	2.156	.08	.35
3. Defense Styles						
Immature Defenses	1, 807	141.727***	.42	11.905	.39	.46
Dependent Variable:						
Cluster C PDs						
Symptomatology						
1. Control Variables						
Age	1, 810	22.591***	-.17	-4.753	-.17	.03
2. Object Relations						
Insecure Attachment	1, 809	352.046***	.56	18.763	.55	.32
Egocentricity	1, 808	55.712***	.30	7.464	.25	.37
Social Incompetence	1, 807	31.307***	.18	5.577	.19	.39

Table 3.23. *(cont.'d) Associated Variables of Personality Symptomatology*

	df	F_{Change} (ΔF)	β	t	pr	R^2
3. Defense Styles						
Immature Defenses	1, 806	64.962***	.29	8.06	.27	.44
Neurotic Defenses	1, 805	23.537***	.14	4.851	.17	.45
Mature Defenses	1, 804	12.047***	-.10	-3.471	-.12	.46

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

3.6.2.2.2. Variables Associated with General Personality Traits

Similar with previous analyses, variables were hierarchically entered into the equations via three steps. In order to control for the effects of demographic variables on the dependent variable, general personality traits, gender and age were hierarchically entered into the equations in the first step. Following the first step, variables related to object relations (i.e., alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, & social incompetence) were hierarchically entered into each equation in the second step. After controlling for the demographic variables and object relations that were significantly associated with general personality traits (i.e., plasticity & stability) defense styles (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature) were hierarchically entered into each equation on the third step.

Hierarchical multiple regression analysis run for plasticity revealed that among control variables only age (*pr* = .18, *β* = .18, *t* [811] = 5.21, *p* < .001) was significantly associated with plasticity, and explained 3% of the variance (*ΔF* [1, 811] = 27.14, *p* < .001). After controlling for age, it was observed that all factors of object relations, namely social incompetence (*pr* = -.56, *β* = -.57, *t* [810] = -19.093, *p* < .001), alienation (*pr* = -.21, *β* = -.26, *t* [809] = -6.219, *p* < .001), egocentricity (*pr* = .16, *β* = .17, *t* [808] = 4.49, *p* < .001), and insecure attachment (*pr* = -.14, *β* = -.16, *t* [807] = -3.874, *p* < .001) had significant associations with plasticity. Thus, social incompetence increased explained variance to 33% (*ΔF* [1, 810] = 364.546, *p* < .001); alienation increased variance to 36% (*ΔF* [1, 809] = 38.682, *p* < .001); egocentricity increased variance to

38% (ΔF [1, 808] = 20.164, $p < .001$); and insecure attachment increased variance to 39% (ΔF [1, 807] = 15.008, $p < .001$). In the third step, defense styles were entered into the equations, and significant associations were observed for mature ($pr = .21$, $\beta = .17$, t [806] = 6.129, $p < .001$) and immature defenses ($pr = -.15$, $\beta = -.16$, t [805] = -4.326, $p < .001$). In this step, explained variance increased to 42% with the addition of mature defenses (ΔF [1, 806] = 37.57, $p < .001$). Moreover, with the addition of immature defenses, explained variance increased to 43% (ΔF [1, 805] = 18.716, $p < .001$) (see Table 3.24). In other words, 7 factors, namely age, social incompetence, alienation, egocentricity, insecure attachment, and mature and immature defenses had significant associations with plasticity. That is, older participants who developed more egocentricity but less social incompetence, alienation, and insecure attachment; and those who used more mature defenses and less immature defenses were more likely to have plasticity in their personality characteristics.

Finally, for stability features of personality, same method was followed. This last hierarchical multiple regression analysis with object relations revealed that among control variables only age ($pr = .19$, $\beta = .19$, t [811] = 5.555, $p < .001$) was significantly associated with stability, and explained 4% of the variance (ΔF [1, 811] = 30.856, $p < .001$). After controlling for age, among object relations, insecure attachment ($pr = -.40$, $\beta = -.40$, t [810] = -12.517, $p < .001$) and alienation ($pr = -.19$, $\beta = -.23$, t [809] = -5.394, $p < .001$) had significant associations with stability. Thus, insecure attachment increased explained variance to 19% (ΔF [1, 810] = 156.679, $p < .001$); and alienation increased variance to 22% (ΔF [1, 809] = 29.096, $p < .001$). In the third step, defense styles were entered into the equations, and all defenses, namely immature ($pr = -.22$, $\beta = -.25$, t [808] = -6.334, $p < .001$), neurotic ($pr = .28$, $\beta = .28$, t [807] = 8.336, $p < .001$), and mature ($pr = .22$, $\beta = .20$, t [806] = 6.377, $p < .001$) defenses had significant associations with stability. Immature defenses increased explained variance to 26% (ΔF [1, 808] = 40.123, $p < .001$); neurotic defenses increased variance to 32% (ΔF [1, 807] = 69.485, $p < .001$); and mature defenses

increased variance to 35% ΔF [1, 806] = 40.666, $p < .001$) (see Table 3.24). Briefly, 6 factors, namely age, insecure attachment, alienation, immature defenses, neurotic defenses, and mature defenses had significant associations with stability. These results implied that older participants who had less insecure attachment and alienation; and those who used more neurotic or mature but less immature defenses were more likely to have stability as general personality traits.

Table 3.24. *Associated Variables of General Personality Traits*

	df	F_{Change} (ΔF)	β	t	pr	R^2
Dependent Variable:						
Plasticity						
1. Control Variables						
Age	1, 811	27.14*	.18	5.21	.18	.03
2. Object Relations						
Social Incompetence	1, 810	364.546*	-.57	-19.093	-.56	.33
Alienation	1, 809	38.682*	-.26	-6.219	-.21	.36
Egocentricity	1, 808	20.164*	.17	4.49	.16	.38
Insecure Attachment	1,807	15.008*	-.16	-3.874	-.14	.39
3. Defense Styles						
Mature Defenses	1, 806	37.57*	.17	6.129	.21	.42
Immature Defenses	1,805	18.716*	-.16	-4.326	-.15	.43
Dependent Variable:						
Stability						
1. Control Variables						
Age	1, 811	30.856*	.19	5.555	.19	.04
2. Object Relations						
Insecure Attachment	1, 810	156.679*	-.40	-12.517	-.40	.19
Alienation	1, 809	29.096*	-.23	-5.394	-.19	.22
3. Defense Styles						
Immature Defenses	1, 808	40.123*	-.25	-6.334	-.22	.26
Neurotic Defenses	1, 807	69.485*	.28	8.336	.28	.32
Mature Defenses	1,806	40.666*	.20	6.377	.22	.35

*$p < .001$

3.7. Testing the Model

The mediating effects of defense styles (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature) between object relations (i.e., alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, & social incompetence) and personality symptomology (i.e., Cluster A, Cluster B, & Cluster C PDs); and between object relations and personality traits (i.e., plasticity & stability) were tested through two path analyses using LISREL 8.5 for Windows. In these analyses, predictor variables were alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, and social incompetence (factors of object relations); mediating variables were immature, neurotic, and mature defenses (factors of defense styles); and outcome variables were Cluster A, Cluster B, and Cluster C PDs (factors of personality symptomatology) in the first model, and plasticity and stability (general factors of personality traits) in the second model. The correlations among IVs, and correlated errors between mediating and outcome variables were added to the model.

As mentioned in the Introduction Section, there were theoretical relationships between object relations and personality patterns (i.e., personality symptomatology & personality traits); so first fully saturated models were examined following Kenny and his colleagues' (2006) suggestions. After that, each insignificant path from predictors to outcome variables was dropped from each model one by one until all the paths in these models were significant. During this procedure, trimmed paths which became significant as reflected in the modification index were introduced into the analyses again. Eventually, the final models included only the significant paths (see Figure 3.15 & Figure 3.16).

3.7.1. The Mediating Role of Defense Styles in the Relationship between Object Relations and Personality Symptomatology

The proposed model suggested that dimensions of object relations would predict personality symptomatology both directly and indirectly through defense styles

(i.e. immature, neurotic, & mature). First, a saturated model, which included all the paths from dimensions of object relations to defense styles, and personality symptomatology as well as the paths from defense styles to personality symptomatology, was tested (χ^2 [6, N = 819] = 931.16, p < .001. *GFI* =.82, *AGFI* =-.70, *NNFI* =-.49, *CFI* = .80, *RMSEA* =.44). After that, the insignificant paths were dropped from the model one by one. Lastly, the goodness-of-fit statistics of the final model revealed that this model fit the data very well (χ^2 [11, N = 819] = 20.74, p = .03. *GFI* =.99, *AGFI* =.98, *NNFI* =.99, *CFI* = .99, *RMSEA* =.03). Standardized parameters of the model were given in Figure 3.15.

As can be seen in Figure 3.15, results revealed that higher alienation predicted lower levels of neurotic (β = -.19, p < .05) and mature (β = -31, p < .05) defense styles in individuals, and higher levels of Cluster A PDs' symptoms (β = .10, p < .05). Moreover, insecure attachment in individuals predicted their higher usage of immature (β = .28, p < .05) and neurotic (β = .26, p < .05) defenses, while predicted lower usage of mature defenses (β = -.11, p < .05). Insecure attachment also predicted having stronger Cluster C PDs symptoms (β = .12, p < .05). Additionally, higher level of egocentricity predicted individuals' higher usage of immature (β = .39, p < .05), neurotic (β = .18, p < .05), and mature (β = .24, p < .05) defense styles; and having more symptoms of personality disorders related to Cluster A PDs (β = .21, p < .05), Cluster B PDs (β = .27, p < .05), and Cluster C PDs (β = .20, p < .05). However, higher social incompetence only predicted higher usage of immature defenses (β = .09, p < .05) among defense styles, and having stronger symptoms of Cluster C PDs (β = .14, p < .05) among personality disorders' symptomatology. In addition to dimensions of object relations' prediction on defense styles and personality symptomatology, defense styles predictions were also analyzed. According to the results, high levels of immature defenses predicted more personality pathology related to Cluster A PDs (β = .43, p < .05), Cluster B PDs (β = .45, p < .05), and Cluster C PDs (β = .26, p < .05); high levels of neurotic defenses predicted lower levels of Cluster A PDs (β = -.14, p < .05), but higher levels of

Cluster C PDs (β = .16, p < .05); and higher levels of mature defenses predicted high levels of Cluster A PDs (β = .10, p < .05), but lower levels of Cluster C PDs (β = -.08, p < .05). To sum up, these results suggest that individuals with higher alienation tended to use less neurotic and mature defenses; and more likely to have Cluster A PDs' symptoms. Moreover, individuals with higher insecure attachment tended to use more immature and neurotic defenses but less mature defenses. They also had a tendency to experience symptoms of Cluster C PDs. Additionally, individuals with social incompetence reported more immature defenses and more Cluster C PDs' symptoms. Individuals with egocentricity tended to use immature, neurotic, and also mature defenses; and tended to develop all personality pathology. Lastly, while people with immature defenses tended to develop all personality pathology, neurotic and mature defenses related with the Cluster A and Cluster C PDs.

As can be seen in the Figure 3.15, there were mediation effects of defense styles between object relations and personality symptomatology. First, all defense styles fully mediated the insecure attachment's effect on symptoms of Cluster A PDs (*indirect effect* = .07, t = 3.31, p < .05), and partially mediated its effect on symptoms of Cluster C PDs (*indirect effect* = .13, t = 6.89, p < .05) while only immature defenses fully mediated the effect of insecure attachment on symptoms of Cluster B PDs (*indirect effect* = .13, t = 6.90, p < .05). Similarly, although all defense styles partially mediated the effect of egocentricity on both symptoms of Cluster A PDs (*indirect effect* = .17, t = 7.67, p < .05) and symptoms of Cluster C PDs (*indirect effect* = .11, t = 5.72, p < .05), only immature defenses partially mediated the effect of egocentricity on symptoms of Cluster B PDs (*indirect effect* = .18, t = 8.26, p < .05). Moreover, immature defenses fully mediated the effect of social incompetence on symptoms of Cluster A PDs (*indirect effect* = -.04, t = 3.10, p < .05) and Cluster B PDs (*indirect effect* = .04, t = 3.13, p < .05); while the effect on Cluster C PDs (*indirect effect* = .02, t = 2.94, p < .05) was partially mediated by immature defenses. However, although it was seen that neurotic and mature defenses mediated the effect of alienation on the symptoms

of Cluster A PDs (*indirect effect* = -.01, *t* = -.67, *p* = ns.) and the symptoms of Cluster B PDs (*indirect effect* = -.004, *t* = -.36, *p* = ns.), significant indirect effect was not observed.

Object relations explained 44%, 11%, and 7% of the total variance in immature, neurotic, and mature defenses, respectively. Moreover, 38%, 43%, and 45% of the total variances in personality symptomatology (i.e., Cluster A PDs, Cluster B PDs, and Cluster C PDs) were explained by the full model.

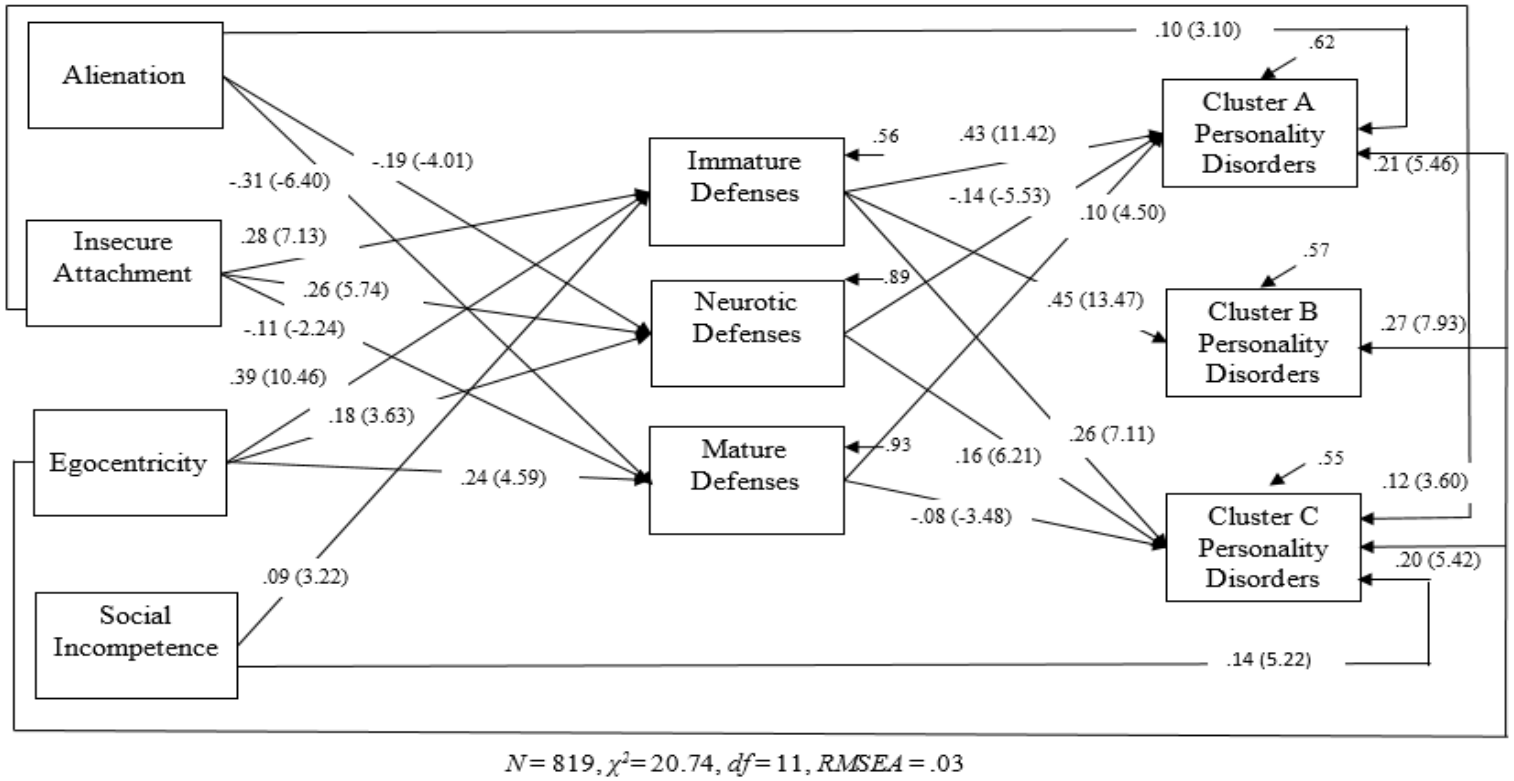

Figure 3.16. *Structural Model using Personality Symptomatology as Outcome Variable*

Note: Error terms represent percent of unexplained variance. For ease of interpretation, correlation among IVs and correlated errors within mediating variables (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature defenses) and within outcome variables (i.e., Cluster A, B, & C PDs) are not shown. *T* values are presented in the parentheses.

3.7.2. The Mediating Role of Defense Styles in the Relationship between Object Relations and Personality Traits

The proposed model suggested that dimensions of object relations would predict personality traits both directly and indirectly through defense styles (i.e. immature, neurotic, & mature). First, similar to the previous path analysis, a saturated model, which included all the paths from dimensions of object relations to defense styles, and personality traits as well as the paths from defense styles to personality traits, was tested and the model showed poor fit to the data (χ^2 [4, N = 819] = 326.60, $p < .001$. *GFI* =.92, *AGFI* =.08, *NNFI* =.24, *CFI* = .92, *RMSEA* =.32*)*. After that, the insignificant paths were trimmed from the model. The final model with standardized parameter estimates was given in Figure 3.16. The goodness-of-fit statistics revealed that this final model fit the data very well (χ^2 [7, N = 819] = 12.3, p = .09. *GFI* =.99, *AGFI* =.98, *NNFI* =.99, *CFI* = .99, *RMSEA* =.03).

As can be seen in Figure 3.16, results revealed that higher alienation predicted lower levels of neurotic (β = -.19, $p < .05$) and mature (β = -31, $p < .05$) defense styles, and also lower plasticity (β = -.29, $p < .05$) in personality traits. Moreover, insecure attachment in individuals predicted stronger usage of immature (β = .28, $p < .05$) and neurotic (β = .26, $p < .05$) defenses, while fewer usage of mature defenses (β = -.11, $p < .05$). Insecure attachment also predicted having less plasticity (β = -.09, $p < .05$) and stability (β = -.19, $p < .05$) in personality traits. Additionally, higher level of egocentricity predicted individuals' higher usage of immature (β = .39, $p < .05$), neurotic (β = .18, $p < .05$), and mature (β = .24, $p < .05$) defense styles; and having more plasticity (β = .24, $p < .05$) in their personality traits. Higher social incompetence only predicted higher usage of immature defenses (β = .09, $p < .05$) among defense styles, and lower levels of plasticity (β = -.31, $p < .05$) among personality traits. In addition to the dimensions of object relations' prediction on personality traits, defense styles predictions on personality traits were also analyzed. According to

the results, while high levels of immature defenses predicted low levels of plasticity (β = -.15, p < .05) and stability (β = -.45, p < .05), high levels of mature defenses predicted high levels of both plasticity (β = .21, p < .05) and stability (β = .20, p < .05). Furthermore, high neurotic defenses predicted high levels of stability in individuals' personality traits. These results suggested that individuals with higher alienation tended to use less neurotic and mature defenses but they were more likely to have plasticity in their personality traits. Moreover, individuals with higher insecure attachment tended to use more immature and neurotic defenses and less mature defenses. They also had a tendency to develop low levels of plasticity and stability in their personality. Additionally, individuals with egocentricity tend to use all defense styles, namely immature, neurotic, and mature defenses; and experience plasticity. Individuals with social incompetence reported more immature defenses but less plasticity. When looking at the differences of defense styles on personality traits, it was observed that people having immature defense styles developed low levels of plasticity and stability while people with mature defenses developed more plasticity and stability. Lastly people using more neurotic defenses tended to have more stability in their personality.

As can be seen in the Figure 3.16, effects of object relations on personality traits were mediated by defense styles. Firstly, neurotic defenses and mature defenses fully mediated the effect of alienation on stability (*indirect effect* = -.11, t = -5.54, p < .05), while mature defenses partially mediated the effect of alienation on plasticity (*indirect effect* = -.06, t = -4.77, p < .05). Moreover, defense styles partially mediated the effect of insecure attachment on stability (*indirect effect* = -.08, t = -3.50, p < .05), and the effect of egocentricity on stability (*indirect effect* = -.08, t = -3.47, p < .05); and defense styles except neurotic defenses also partially mediated the insecure attachment's effect on plasticity (*indirect effect* = -.07, t = -4.24, p < .05), and the effect of egocentricity on plasticity (*indirect effect* = -.01, t = -.62, p = ns.). Lastly, immature defenses partially mediated the effect of social incompetence on plasticity (*indirect effect* = -.02, t = -2.56, p <

.05), while those defense styles fully mediated the effect of social incompetence on stability (*indirect effect* = -.04, t = -3.11, $p < .05$).

Object relations explained 44%, 11%, and 7% of the total variance in immature, neurotic, and mature defenses, respectively. Moreover, 42% and 34% of the total variances in personality traits (i.e., plasticity and stability) were explained by the full model.

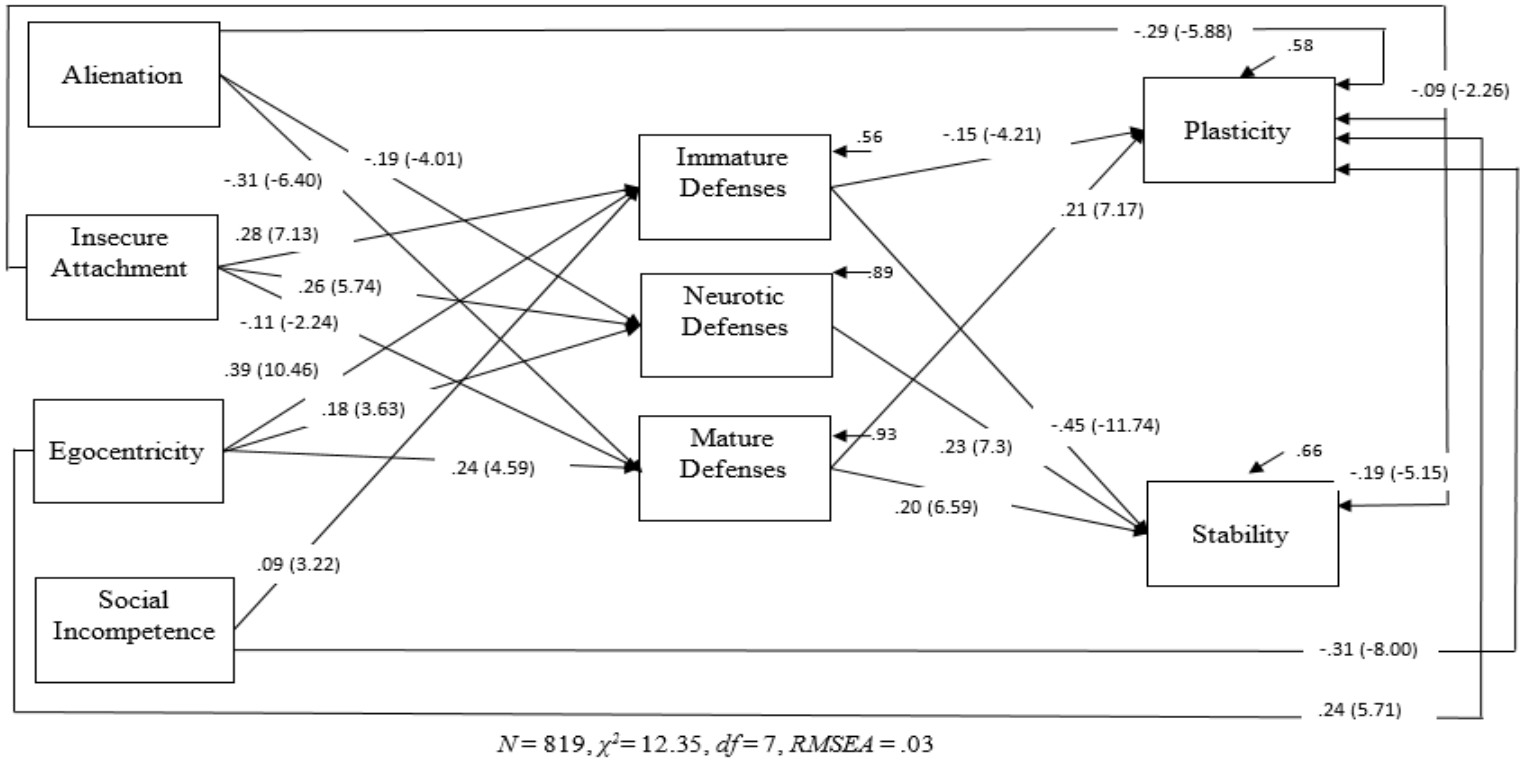

Figure 3.17. *Structural Model using Personality Traits as Outcome Variable*

Note: Error terms represent percent of unexplained variance. For ease of interpretation, correlation among IVs and correlated errors within mediating variables (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature defenses) and within outcome variables (i.e., plasticity & stability) are not shown. *T* values are presented in the parentheses

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The aim of the current study was to investigate the associated factors of personality patterns (i.e., symptomatology & trait). The first model proposed relationships among object relations (i.e., alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, & social incompetence), defense styles (immature, neurotic, & mature), and personality patterns. In the second model, the relationships among perceived parental rearing styles (i.e., overprotection, rejection, & emotional warm), defense styles, and personality patterns were investigated. For this purpose, internal reliability of the individual measures, correlation coefficients among the study variables, and the possible differences among the levels of demographic variables (i.e., gender & age) in terms of study variables (i.e., object relations, perceived parental rearing styles, defense styles, & personality patterns) were examined. In addition, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to investigate the associations among the variables of the study. Finally, the suggested models were tested via path analyses. In this chapter, findings of the current study will be discussed based on the current literature. Lastly, clinical implications, limitations of the present study, and future suggestions will be presented.

4.1. Differences among the Levels of Demographic Variables in terms of Study Measures

In this part of the study, differences of demographic variables (i.e., gender & age) on perceived parental rearing styles, object relations, defense styles, tendency to lie and using ego defenses, personality symptomatology (i.e., Avoidant PD., Passive-Aggressive PD., Obsessive Compulsive PD., Antisocial

PD., Narcissistic PD., Histrionic PD., Schizoid PD., Paranoid PD., Dependent PD., & Borderline PD.), and basic personality traits (i.e., openness to experience, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, neuroticism, & negative valence) will be discussed.

4.1.1. Differences of Gender on the Measures of the Study

Gender revealed significant differences on total scores of perceived maternal and paternal rearing styles, object relations, defense styles, tendency to lie and using ego defenses, personality symptomatology, and personality traits.

Considering perceived parental rearing styles, female participants had significantly higher scores on perceived maternal rejection, and both maternal and paternal overprotection than male participants. According to Mahler (1981), in the separation process daughters experience more difficulty than sons since mothers tend to set some obstacles while allowing their daughters to separate (Bergman, 1982). She claimed that mothers consider having a baby girl as a chance to build a new and better self. However, daughters' need of individuation cause a particular disappointment for mothers (Bergman, 1987). In this sense, due to mothers' unfulfilled needs and experienced frustration, they may tend to reject their daughters more. Moreover, in traditional Turkish culture, sons are perceived more valuable than daughters because they are perceived as an assurance of future by their families (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1981). Therefore, they might receive more acceptance. In addition to the rejection from their mothers, daughters experience more overprotection from their parents. Parents, who are raised with traditional Turkish values, mostly evaluate their daughters' behaviors as a matter of honor (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1986). Therefore, parents expose strict rules to their daughters in order to protect family honor.

Regarding object relations, it was seen that females reported more insecure attachment than males. This result is consistent with Bell's (2003) study.

Insecure attachment is the only scale that indicates bidirectional relationship with pathology. That means while lower scores in insecure attachment predicts insensitivity in relationships and deviant behaviors, higher scores in this subscale predict intense vulnerability to interpersonal problems and neurotic disorders.

Therefore, it might be inferred that females tend to reveal more vulnerability in their relationships since they get higher scores on insecure attachment scale when compared to their male counterparts. Moreover, females and males differ from each other in developing social competence. According to the results, females have a tendency to reduce social incompetence in their adulthood unlike males who displayed this tendency during established adulthood. This gender difference most probably results from society's different attitudes toward females and males. Socially incompetent attitudes of younger males are more likely to be accepted by the society than attitudes of females (Sonja, Milena, Jana, & Cirila, 2009). Furthermore, women have to be socially competent in order to protect themselves from rejection, exclusion, and coercion of society. On the other hand, patriarchal society's perspective accepts men's aggression as a natural part of being a young man (Sonja et al., 2009).

Gender differences have been examined with regard to defense styles in the literature over years (Cramer, 2006; Vaillant, 1993; Watson & Sinha, 1998). These differences are also supported by the present study which indicates that females use more ego and neurotic defenses than males. Furnham (2012) suggested that women have to modify their inner thoughts and feelings by defenses because, unlike men, they have difficulty in displaying aggressive attitudes towards external world. Moreover, another study claimed that while women have a tendency to use more internalizing defenses, men are more likely to utilize externalizing defenses (e.g., projection) (Petraglia, Thygesen, Lecours, & Drapeay, 2009). Furthermore, in traditional Turkish culture, women who are suppressed by the society cannot express themselves directly. Therefore, in order to solve problems in interpersonal relationships, and verbalize their own needs,

they tend to develop neurotic defenses such as hypochondriasis, regression, and isolation more than men do. From another perspective, this difference could be explained by the fact that Turkish society perceives neurotic defenses more feminine and therefore these defenses are perceived unacceptable by Turkish men. Briefly, although there are no gender differences in using immature and mature defenses, women are more likely to utilize neurotic defenses in order to meet their own needs in Turkish culture.

Studies about gender distinction on personality disorders indicated that there is no significant difference between females and males on histrionic PD (Mattia & Zimmerman, 2001), narcissistic PD, paranoid PD (Zimmerman & Coryell, 1989), schizoid, avoidant, schizotypal (APA, 1994), and borderline PDs (Zimmerman & Coryell, 1989). However, according to DSM-IV, while obsessive-compulsive PD and antisocial PD are seen much more commonly among males than females, dependent PD is observed more often among females (APA, 1994). In the current study, the only PD that indicates a difference between female and male participants is antisocial PD. Consistent with DSM-IV-TR (APA, 2000), results of the present study revealed that males had more antisocial personality symptomatology than their female counterparts. Although females experience feelings of anger similar to males, they express and display their anger through different ways than males. Forouzan and Cooke (2005) suggested that while males with psychopathy are more likely to show impulsivity and conduct problems, females with psychopathy display masochistic and manipulative behaviors, and white-collar crime. Moreover, due to social norms and expectations, females may tend to avoid verbalizing and exhibiting their anger disposition.

Although gender difference was observed only in antisocial personality symptomatology among ten PDs, males and females are found to be significantly different from each other regarding personality traits, namely openness to experience, negative valence, and agreeableness. In the present

study, male participants had higher scores on openness to experience and negative valence than females, while females scored higher on agreeableness dimension. In the literature, gender differences on personality traits are evaluated in the facet level (Chapman, Duberstein, Sörensen, & Lyness, 2007; Costa, Terracciano, & McCrae, 2001; Feingold, 1994; McCrae, Terracciano, & 78 Members of the Personality Profiles of Cultures Project, 2005). Costa and his colleagues (2001) revealed that characteristics of males are more open to new experiences as consistent with the current study. However, at facet level openness to ideas was found as more common among males while openness to aesthetics and feelings were more common among females (Costa et al., 2001). Moreover, although there is no sufficient knowledge about the effect of being male on negative valence, Gürcan (2015) suggested that items and facets of negative valence are more gender appropriate for males; therefore, because females attach importance to being socially accepted, they get lower score from negative valence items. Lastly, female's agreeableness is explained by both evolutionary (Buss, 1995) and social role theory (Eagley, 1987). According to evolutionary explanations, reproduction, nurturing and preserving the offspring require sensitivity and adaptation abilities for females (Buss, 1995). Additionally, in social life, these nurturing behaviors (Eagley, 1987) and obedience are expected from females.

4.1.2. Differences of Age on the Measures of the Study

Age revealed significant differences on total scores of perceived maternal and paternal rearing styles, object relations, defense styles, tendency to lie and ego defense, personality symptomatology, and personality traits. For these analyses, age was categorized into four groups as late adolescence (ages between 18-21), emerging adulthood (ages between 22-25), adulthood (ages between 26-30) and established adulthood (ages between 31-67).

Considering perceived parental rearing styles, established adults tend to perceive their mothers as more rejective, and they perceive both of their parents as less emotionally warm than other age groups. This may be because of the Turkish parents' belief that children become spoiled if their parents show a lot of emotional concern and intimacy towards them. Therefore, emotional intimacy towards children is not a commonly accepted practice in the society. Moreover, tensions in the parent and adult-child relationship negatively affect the overall quality of the relationship (Birditt, Miller, Fingerman, & Lefkowitz, 2009); so adults may distort their perception about parents' emotional intimacy.

Regarding object relations, both late adolescents and emerging adults show more alienation, insecure attachment, and egocentricity than adults and established adults. Only late adolescents are found as more socially incompetent than adults and established adults; however, emerging adults are more socially incompetent than only established adults. Bell (2003) hypothesized that maturity level of individuals is expected to increase in the course of time; however, results of the studies did not support this idea (Bell, 2003; Bell & Billington, 1986). Results of this study revealing that individuals are more likely to have mature level of object relations with increasing age, support the theoretical expectation. This result can be explained by the fact that as time passes, individuals experience different roles in their interpersonal relationships, such as being a parent, partner, friend, or colleague, apart from being a son or daughter. Moreover, since individuals' dependency levels on others for both financial and psychological support decrease in the course of life, their self-esteem might be enhanced with age. As individuals develop self-efficacy in interpersonal relations, they believe in protecting themselves from undesirable situations, and they become more flexible in their relationships. Therefore, they have to be more socially competent, securely attached, confident, and less egocentric in order to maintain these relationships. Consistent with this view, Bell (2003) suggested that, object relation's maturation predicts higher social confidence and self-esteem, and fewer internalizing problems.

Concerning defense use, the present study revealed consistent results with the literature (Andrews et al., 1993; Vaillant, 1977; Watson & Sinha, 1998), and it was found that the use of immature and neurotic defenses, tendency to lie, and ego defenses decreases with increasing age while utilization of more mature defenses increases. Although some of the researchers claimed that defense styles tend to improve until late adolescence, but not later in life (Feldman, Araujo, & Steiner, 1996), other empirical studies proposed that individuals begin to shape defense mechanisms as adaptive early in life, but the improvement continues for lifetime (Diehl, Coyle, & Labouvie-Vief, 1996; McCrae, 1982; Segal, Coolidge, & Mizuno, 2007). Adults, in general, revise defense strategies which have been shaped earlier in life (Segal et al., 2007) depending on the experiences and new life conditions. Older adults are more likely to manage their own impulses, set their own limits, and find constructive coping strategies than younger counterparts (Diehl et al., 1996; McCrae, 1982; Segal et al., 2007). This may be because of the fact that individuals enhance their already existing psychological abilities to cope with problems as they lose their physical strengths with increasing age, so in order to cope with problems they improve already existing psychological abilities. In consistent with this view, Segal and his colleagues (2007) claimed that cognitive-affective capacity which includes emotional control, resiliency, and self-regularity is more complex in older individuals. In sum, older adults in normal population can use more adaptive defense styles than adolescents and younger adults.

The present study indicated that there is an age related decline in the frequency of avoidant, dependent, passive-aggressive, antisocial, narcissistic, histrionic, paranoid, and borderline PDs symptomatology. Although the study of Kenan and her colleagues (2000) revealed that older individuals are more likely to display narcissistic symptoms than youngers, current results are consistent with the previous findings (Ames & Molinari, 1994; Levitte & Thornby, 1989). Factors that might be related with the lower prevalence of PD symptomatology among older adults could be the extension of defense maturity and behavioral

patterns. In normal population, as individuals get older, they enhance resiliency, self-regulation, and impulse control in comparison to individuals at younger ages (Segal et al., 2007). Moreover, especially individuals with Cluster B PDs put their own life in danger with excessive risk-taking behaviors or suicide attempts; thus early-death or mutilation are common in this population (Casey & Schrodt, 1989; Fishbain, 1991). Furthermore, because of lack of energy (Rosowsky & Gurian, 1991), physiological diseases, and family responsibilities with increasing age, individuals have to modify their own behaviors.

Regarding personality traits, individuals from different age groups did not show any difference in openness to experience dimension, while conscientiousness, extraversion, and agreeableness increased with older age, neuroticism and negative valence displayed a declining pattern. These results are consistent with the literature except for extraversion which shows a flat trend like openness to experience (Allemand, Zimprich, & Hendricks, 2008; Donnellan & Lucas, 2008; Soto, John, Gosling, & Potter, 2011). Personality traits of individuals may change depending on the individuals' genetic characteristics, environmental conditions, and learning through observations, which includes generalization and others' attitudes towards themselves (Caspi & Roberts, 2001). Moreover, because personality maturity is improved as the individuals grow older, they become more emotionally predictable and more adaptable to social norms; as a result of which, they have more conscientiousness, agreeableness, and emotional stability (reverse neuroticism) (Allemand et al., 2008). In addition to these, due to personality improvement in this pattern, which requires increasing in conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, emotional stability, and positive valence, adults could have capacity to sustain a smooth casual life. Therefore, their life expectancy, life success, and well-being would be increased (Danner, Snowdon, & Friesen, 2001; Friedman et al., 1995). On the other hand, individuals with anger and hostility traits are more likely to prone to medical illnesses (Miller, Smith, Turner, Guijarro, & Hallet, 1996) and risk of losing their social environment. Furthermore, during the period of established

adulthood, people are in greater need to adjust new life conditions such as marriage, having children, financial responsibilities, and loss of loved ones including parents and relatives. Due to these experiences or age-related new life circumstances individuals might alter their personality traits in a more adaptive pattern.

4.2. Findings Related to Hierarchical Regression Analyses

A series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to examine the hypotheses of the current study. Two sets of regression analyses regarding perceived parental rearing styles or object relations each with two subsets of (in)dependent variables (i.e., defense styles & personality patterns) were conducted.

4.2.1. Findings Related to Defense Styles and Personality Patterns _ Perceived Parental Rearing Styles

In this part, results of the first set of regression analyses conducted with *perceived parental rearing styles* will be discussed. There are two separate subsets one of which reveals associates of defense styles (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature) and the other one reveals associates of personality patterns (i.e., symptomatology & general traits).

4.2.1.1. Findings Related to Defense Styles

Three separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted in order to examine the associates of defense styles; namely immature, neurotic, and mature defenses. In these analyses variables entered into the equations via two steps: the first step consists of gender and age, and the second step consists of perceived parental rearing styles. As mentioned in the Introduction Section in detail, defense styles developed depending on the temperament, early childhood

experiences, caregivers' defenses, and other life experiences (McWilliams, 2010). Therefore, the quality of relationship between parents and children can be seen as one of the most important factors for developing defense styles. The present study revealed that for *immature defenses*, age, maternal rejection, paternal over-protection, and paternal warmth were significantly associated variables. Accordingly, younger participants who perceived their mothers as more rejective, and their fathers as more protective and less emotionally warm were more likely to use immature defenses. Cramer (2006) claimed that infants try to protect themselves from separation anxiety and frustration resulting from negative reactions of their parents via the use of immature defenses. In the light of this knowledge, maternal rejection, and paternal emotional distance may evoke "separation anxiety" (Cramer, 2006) or "automatic anxiety" (Freud, 1926) which includes fear of loss of the maternal and paternal love. Additionally, paternal over-control might also trigger frustration. Thus, in order to protect themselves from these unacceptable feelings, younger individuals may keep on using immature defenses.

For *neurotic defenses*, age, gender, maternal warmth, and maternal over-protection were found to be significantly associated. Younger female participants, and those who perceived their mothers as more emotionally warm and more over-protective tended to report more neurotic defenses. In Turkish culture, mothers are expected to be inclusive, compassionate, acquiescent, and warm-hearted. However, at the same time Turkish mothers are usually known as anxious, worrisome, unrestful, and distressful since they have a fear that their children, especially daughters, would get harm from outside world. Therefore, it is commonly perceived that mothers' over-protection is also a sign of mothers' love. In order to maintain this feeling, females might need external protection of a stronger figure in their lives until older ages. Moreover, these individuals might not develop self-esteem skills due to over-protection, and they are also afraid of being harmed by others. Therefore, they might internalize their mothers' attitudes in order to protect themselves from the dangers of the world.

Finally, for *mature defenses*, maternal emotional warmth was the only associated variable. Therefore, it could be said that only those participants who perceived their mothers as more emotionally warm tended to report more mature defenses. Mother's (primary caregiver) love inspires confidence in the infant who is on the alert for external threats. Due to the unconditional love received from mother, individuals can develop self-worth and self-esteem, and improve his/her primitive defenses. Upon developing self-esteem, they can try new ways, and be flexible when coping with new or negative conditions that require adaptability. However, results indicated that only mother's love, not father's emotional warmth, is the significant associate of the use of mature defenses. This result might indeed depend on cultural expectancies in Turkey. In Turkish traditional culture, emotional warmth from fathers is not expected, and even fathers are sometimes ashamed of showing compassion towards their children in the glare of publicity. Moreover, since most fathers have economical responsibilities of the family, they might not spend time with their children as mothers do; thus emotional expectancies from fathers would decrease.

4.2.1.2. Variables Associated with Personality Patterns

In this part, there are five separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses (three for personality symptomatology & two for general personality traits) in order to examine the significant associates of personality patterns. In those analyses, variables were hierarchically entered into the equations via three steps: First step consists of gender and age, second step consists of variables of perceived parental rearing styles, and the third one consists of defense styles. As mentioned before, personality disorders in DSM-IV-TR (APA, 2000) are divided into three clusters. Cluster A known as odd-eccentric cluster includes paranoid and schizoid PDs in the current study. Cluster B which is known as dramatic-emotional cluster includes histrionic, narcissistic, antisocial, and borderline PDs. Cluster C known as anxious-fearful cluster consists of avoidant, dependent, and obsessive-compulsive PDs. For *Cluster A PDs symptomatology,*

results of the current study indicated that age, gender, maternal protection, paternal rejection, immature defenses, and neurotic defenses were the significant associates. That is, younger male participants who perceived their mothers as more over-protective and their fathers as more rejective, and those who used more immature defenses and less neurotic defenses were more likely to have the Cluster A PDs symptomatology. In the current study, there is no gender difference in predicting specific PDs except for the antisocial PD. However, in cluster base, results indicated that males are more prone to develop Cluster A PDs. This result is consistent with results of DSM-IV-TR which indicates that paranoid, schizoid, and schizotypal personality symptomatology are more common among males (APA, 2000). Symptoms of Cluster A PDs consist of irrational suspicions and mistrust of others, lack of interest in interpersonal relationships and restricted emotional expression, and extreme discomfort while interacting with others (APA, 2000). Therefore, females who tend to be more social than males are less likely to suffer from those symptoms. In the literature, there is no consistent result regarding the relationship between having symptoms of Cluster A PDs and perceived parental rearing styles. Although the study of Nordahl and Stiles (1997) proposed that there is no relationship between these variables, Timmerman and Emmelkamp (2005), and Thimm (2010) indicated that, Cluster A symptomatology is associated with low maternal care including more rejection and less emotional warmth. However, in the current study, individuals with these symptoms reported rejective fathers and they defined their mothers as over-protective. In traditional Turkish family life, since majority of women do not work outside the house (employment rate is 27.1 %; TÜİK, 2015), they tend to be more cautious toward external environment. In this context, over-protective mothers may give a message about others' malicious intentions towards their children. Therefore, these children might develop a fear of being harmed by others on the outside world, and this belief, in children's view, is turned out to be true by fathers' rejective attitudes. In other words, they believe everyone including their own fathers may possibly harm them. In order to protect themselves from others, they tend to use immature defenses such as

autistic phantasy and projection (Vaillant, 1994; Vaillant & McCullough, 1998), and avoid neurotic defenses that mostly require social interaction.

PDs in Cluster B are identified by dramatic, over-emotional, and unpredictable thoughts or behaviors (APA, 2000). Individuals with symptoms of a PD in this cluster may have a pervasive disregard for social norms or rules; black and white thinking; attention seeking behaviors; or grandiosity depending on the specific type of the disorder (APA, 2000). For *Cluster B PDs symptomatology*, age, maternal protection, paternal rejection, immature defenses, and mature defenses were significantly associated variables. That is, younger participants who perceived their mothers as more over-protective and their fathers as more rejective, and those who used more immature defenses and less mature defenses were more likely to have the Cluster B PDs symptoms. Although these variables are similar to those associated with Cluster A PDs, individuals with Cluster B PDs symptomatology are less likely to use mature rather than neurotic defenses and there is no gender difference in having these symptoms. In consistent with these findings, Timmerman and Emmelkamp (2005) revealed that less care and more protection from both parents; Nordahl and Stiles (1997) suggested that only parental over-protection; and Thimm (2010) proposed that rejection from both parents and less emotional warmth from mothers were the related variables for Cluster B PDs pathology. Although there are inconsistent results about the relationship between perceived parental rearing styles and Cluster B PDs symptomatology, most of the theoreticians are in agreement with use of immature defenses such as splitting, idealization, denial, autistic phantasy, and projection (Cramer, 2006; Millon, 1996). The present study also supported the conclusion that immature defense use is common among Cluster B individuals. In the light of these results, it can be interpreted that their maturity is prevented by maternal over-protection and paternal rejection; and these parental attitudes continue due to immaturity level of the individual. Moreover, individuals with these symptoms may split the over-protective mother and the rejective father from each other for their own self-protective instincts. Because they cannot

develop self-esteem due to mother's over-protection, they need more sources from their mothers; and as a result they might introject the mother. In the meantime, fathers' rejection might provoke this individual's aggression and prevents developing real self-worth. They might also begin to deny the father and project father's attitudes into other individuals during adulthood. Therefore, they continue to live in a phantasy world.

PDs in Cluster C are characterized by anxious or fearful thinking patterns or behaviors. Individuals with symptoms of Cluster C PDs experience extreme shyness in social situations and fear of rejection; excessive dependence on others; or extreme and rigid perfectionism depending on the specific type of the disorder (APA, 2000). For *Cluster C PDs symptomatology*, age, paternal over-protection and emotional warmth, maternal over-protection; and immature, mature, and neurotic defenses were significantly associated variables. Although in Timmerman and Emmelkamp's (2005) study, all perceived parental rearing styles were found as the associated variables of Cluster C PDs, in the study of Thimm (2010), only fathers' rejection was found to be significant. Moreover, individuals with Cluster C PDs, like other PDs, use immature defense styles; however, they differ from other clusters in performing their behaviors. For instance, while hostility towards others which causes interpersonal problems are more common in Cluster B, individuals with Cluster C PDs symptomatology mostly introject hostility which causes depression or social introversion (Kim et al., 2014). Additionally, these individuals are more likely to use neurotic defenses that can be more adaptive to social life (Kim et al., 2014). The results of the current study particularly showed that younger participants who perceived their fathers and mothers as more over-protective, and perceived their fathers as less emotionally warm, and those who used more immature and neurotic defenses, and less mature defenses were more likely to have the Cluster C PDs symptomatology. Over-protection or control from both mothers and fathers may trigger feelings of frustration. However, if individuals do not accept and protest this parental attitude, they might be afraid of losing care of their parents because

of the paternal emotional distance. Therefore, when they have unacceptable feelings such as aggression or hostility towards their parents, they might probably feel guilty. In order to cope with this guilt, they try to repress, deny, or introject unacceptable feelings toward their parents. When they believe in their badness, they experience extreme fear of rejection, extreme shyness in social situations, and dependence on others.

Regarding the Five Factor Model (FFM), 2 meta-traits were suggested by Digman (1997) as mentioned in the Introduction Section. One of the meta-traits is *stability* which consists of Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Emotional Stability (reversed Neuroticism), and refers to conforming to social expectations, norms or roles (DeYoung et al., 2002). Results of the present study indicated that age, maternal warmth and rejection, paternal warmth, and immature, mature and neurotic defenses are associated with *stability*. These results implied that older participants who perceived their mothers as more emotionally warm and less rejective, and perceived their fathers as more emotionally warm; and those who used more mature and neurotic defenses rather than immature defenses were more likely to have stability as general personality traits. Parental acceptance and emotionality seem to provide a safe area for development of individuals, and these individuals find an opportunity to develop mature defenses. In order to maintain this feeling of safety and acceptance, they conform to the expectations of society during their adulthood. Therefore, they protect themselves from distress, uncertainty, and hostility (DeYoung, et al., 2002). Results related to defense use are also consistent with the literature. According to Soldz and his colleagues' study (1995), emotional stability, agreeableness, and conscientiousness are negatively associated with immature defense use; and Cramer (2003) indicated that these traits are positively related with mature defenses. However, although emotional stability is related to lower levels of neuroticism as expected (Furnham, 2012), the current study revealed that stability, including emotional stability, is associated with higher neurotic defense use. In fact, cultural differences might account for this difference. In

Turkish culture, some of the neurotic defenses, such as hypochondriasis (especially for females), isolation (especially for males), repression, and intellectualization might be culturally accepted.

The other meta-trait is *plasticity* which consists of Extraversion and Openness to Experience, and refers to less conforming to society (DeYoung, et al., 2002). According to the results of the present study, age, paternal warmth and over protection, maternal warmth, mature defenses, and immature defenses were the significantly associated variables of plasticity. That is, older participants who perceived their mothers and fathers as more emotionally warm, and perceived their fathers as less protective, and those who used more mature but fewer immature defenses were more likely to have plasticity in their personality characteristics. According to Baumrind (1971) although parental control is beneficial for children's self-esteem due to safety needs, parental over-control is frustrative for developing responsibility and autonomy of adolescents (Hill, 1980). Moreover, studies indicated that receiving parental emotional warmth is also strongly related to developing emotional competence, emotional regulation (Volling, McElwain, Notaro, & Herrera, 2002), and higher self-esteem (Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986). In other words, due to the experienced parental warmth and optimal protection, individuals tend to develop autonomy, emotional competence and self-esteem, and hence they develop more mature defenses. These emotionally strong individuals tend to be more extraverted in their social relationships and are more likely to be open to new experiences without anxiety or distress, all of which may help them easily adapt to new conditions. In addition to these, it can be said that parents who are open to new experiences are more likely to tolerate their children's autonomy and differences from themselves. Therefore, individuals can also learn to be self-confident from their parents via observation.

4.2.2. Findings Related to Defense Styles and Personality Patterns _ Object Relations

In this part, results of the second set of regression analyses conducted with *object relations* will be discussed. Like the previous one, there are two separate subsets, one of which reveals associates of defense styles (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature) and the other one of which reveals associates of personality patterns (i.e., symptomatology & general traits).

4.2.2.1. Findings Related to Defense Styles

Three separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted in order to examine associates of defense styles, namely immature, neurotic, and mature defenses. In these analyses variables entered into the equations via two steps: first step consists of gender and age, and second step consists of variables of object relations.

The current study indicated that both *immature and mature defenses* are significantly associated with egocentricity, insecure attachment, and social incompetence. That is, while younger participants who tended to report more insecure attachment and social incompetence were more likely to use immature defenses, participants who reported having less alienation and insecure attachment were more likely to use mature defenses. However, higher egocentricity is related to both immature and mature defenses. As mentioned in the Introduction Section, object relations in infants are characterized by immature defenses such as projection, splitting, and projective identification (McWilliams, 2010; St.Clair & Wigren, 2004) while higher level of object relations is related to ego-development (St.Clair & Wigren, 2004) which concerns mature defenses. However, when mothers do not meet their children's emotional needs effectively, these children have difficulty in recognizing and expressing their own emotions and needs; therefore, their ego-development is

restricted. This compromised ego development, in turn contribute to development of insecure attachment styles (Mcquaid, Bigelow, McLaughlin, & MacLean, 2008). Due to insecure attachment organization, emotion regulation skills of individuals do not develop; and separation, loss, and loneliness cannot be tolerated. Therefore, these individuals cannot deal with a stressful situation effectively via mature defenses. Moreover, consistent with the results of the present study, Cramer (2002) revealed that social competence is related to use of mature defenses. This may be because of the fact that individuals with immature defenses such as projection or projective identification cannot recognize the real emotions. However, it was also found that egocentricity is positively correlated with both immature and mature defenses. According to Bell (2003), egocentricity refers to lower empathy, and tendency to protect self in interpersonal relationships and control other individuals' behaviors. Suspicion in interpersonal relationships and providing personal gain from these relationships are other indicators of egocentricity. Moreover, egocentric individuals do not show empathy towards others and do not concern others' needs or emotions. Due to these features, it is difficult to understand how egocentricity is related with mature defenses. In traditional Turkish culture, if individuals are not self-sacrificing or altruistic, and when they focus on their own desires or needs, they are usually labelled as egocentric. Therefore, this unexpected result related with egocentricity may depend on cultural characteristics.

Considering *neurotic defenses*, age, gender, insecure attachment, alienation, and egocentricity were the associated variables. That is, younger female participants, and those who developed more insecure attachment and egocentricity, and less alienation tended to report more neurotic defenses. Individuals with insecure attachment neurotically concern about being accepted by others and experience excessive anxiety about being lonely, while individuals with alienation isolate themselves from social life due to the lack of basic trust (Bell, 1995). Therefore, results of the current study revealed that individuals who need others to fulfill their own needs egocentrically, and experience anxiety about being lonely and

isolated from others tend to use more neurotic defenses such as idealization and pseudo-altruism.

4.2.2.2. Variables Associated with Personality Patterns

Five separate hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted (three for personality symptomatology & two for general personality traits) in order to investigate the significant associates of personality patterns. In those analyses, variables were hierarchically entered into the equations via three steps: First step consists of gender and age, second step consists of variables of object relations, and the third one includes defense styles.

Regarding *Cluster A PDs,* age, gender, egocentricity, alienation, and immature, neurotic and mature defenses are found to be significantly associated factors. According to the results, younger male participants who had more egocentricity and alienation, and those who used more immature defenses or mature defenses, and less neurotic defenses were more likely to have Cluster A PDs symptomatology. As mentioned earlier, Cluster A PDs include features of alienation including irrational suspicious, mistrust of others, lack of interest in interpersonal relationships, and restricted emotional expression, and extreme discomfort while interacting with others (APA, 2000; Bell, 1995). Since these individuals do not feel anxious about being alone, they are less likely to use neurotic defenses. However, in order to isolate themselves from social life, some of them might tend to use immature defenses while some of them may develop mature defenses such as thought suppression. Due to thought suppression, these individuals do not pay attention to their own emotions while dealing with the stressful life conditions.

Considering *Cluster B PDs,* age, egocentricity, insecure attachment, alienation, and immature defenses are indicated as associated factors. That is, younger participants who reported more egocentricity, insecure attachment and

alienation, and those who used more immature defenses were more likely to have Cluster B PDs symptomatology including dramatic, over-emotional, or unpredictable thinking or behaviors (APA, 2000). According to Bell (1995), since egocentric individuals are intrusive, coercive, demanding, manipulating, and controlling, they are more likely to have antisocial, narcissistic, and histrionic personalities. However, although Bell (1995) claimed that alienation including difficulties in intimacy, and sense of connection or belongingness is related to borderline, narcissistic, and histrionic PDs, current study found that insecure attachment is also related to Cluster B PDs symptomatology, as well as alienation. In Masterson's case studies (1976; 1993), it is obviously seen that most of the narcissistic and borderline individuals experience rejection or abandonment by their parents either emotionally or physically during their childhood. Actually, they desire to have an intimate relationship with others in order to meet their emotional needs. However, they also have an excessive fear of being rejected by the loved one, which indicates existence of an insecure attachment organization. Therefore, in order to cope with this unaccepted feeling, and protect one's self from rejection, narcissistic or borderline individuals behave as if they did not need others. They avoid establishing belongingness to a relationship (alienation) because they believe that everybody would abandon them eventually like their parents. In order to maintain this pathological pattern, these individuals tend to use splitting, one of the immature defenses (McWilliams, 2010). Through use of splitting, they protect themselves from anxiety arousing from fear of rejection; thus, they continue to live in a phantasy world.

The present study revealed that age, insecure attachment, egocentricity, social incompetence; and immature, neurotic, and mature defenses are related to *Cluster C PDs symptomatology.* This implies that younger participants who had more insecure attachment, egocentricity and social incompetence, and those who used more immature and neurotic defenses, and less mature defenses were more likely to have the Cluster C PDs symptomatology characterized

by anxious or fearful thinking or behaviors (APA, 2000). Bell (1995) revealed that individuals with symptoms of avoidant, obsessive-compulsive, and dependent PDs, mostly have insecure attachment. Moreover, current study showed that social incompetence, in which individuals believe that interpersonal relationships are unpredictable (Bell, 1995), is also associated with Cluster C PDs' symptomatology. Unpredictability of the relationships triggers feelings of anxiety. Although individuals with social incompetence desire to have intimate and stable relationships, they avoid interaction with others in order to cope with rejection anxiety (Bell, 1995). As mentioned earlier, individuals with more egocentricity, insecure attachment, and social incompetence are more likely to use either immature or neurotic defenses.

According to the results of the current study, *stability*, one of the meta-traits of FFM, is related to age, insecure attachment, alienation, immature defenses, neurotic defenses, and mature defenses. These results implied that older participants who had less insecure attachment and alienation; and those who used more neurotic or mature but less immature defenses were more likely to have stability. Because stability refers to conforming to society (DeYoung et al., 2002), it requires sense of belongingness to community, and feelings of safety. In order to maintain this sense of belongingness and safety, these individuals try to meet the expectations of the society where use of neurotic and mature defenses are approved, but use of immature defenses is not accepted.

Lastly, it was found that *plasticity*, the other meta-trait of FFM, is related to age, social incompetence, alienation, egocentricity, insecure attachment, and mature and immature defenses. That is, older participants who developed more egocentricity but less social incompetence, alienation, and insecure attachment; and those who used more mature defenses and less immature defenses were more likely to have plasticity in their personality characteristics. Plasticity refers to less conforming to the society and includes stronger traits of extraversion and openness to experiences (DeYoung, et al., 2002). Individuals who have social

and emotional competence are more likely to build self-esteem and self-worth (Volling et al., 2002; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986). Therefore, while they maintain their existence in community via less social incompetence, alienation, and insecure attachment, they protect their own individuality via egocentricity. In order to provide balance between society and their own individuality, they improve mature defenses. Therefore, they experience new things in more mature ways.

4.3. Testing the Model

In this part, the mediator roles of defense styles (i.e., immature, neurotic, & mature) between object relations (i.e., alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, & social incompetence) and personality symptomology (i.e., Cluster A, Cluster B, & Cluster C PDs); and between object relations and personality traits (i.e., plasticity & stability) will be discussed in the light of two path analyses. In these analyses, predictor variables were alienation, insecure attachment, egocentricity, and social incompetence (factors of object relations); mediating variables were immature, neurotic, and mature defenses (factors of defense styles); and outcome variables were Cluster A, Cluster B, and Cluster C PDs (factors of personality symptomatology) in the first model, and plasticity and stability (general factors of personality traits) in the second model.

4.3.1. The Mediating Role of Defense Styles in the Relationship between Object Relations and Personality Symptomatology

Results of the present study revealed that symptoms of personality disorders are significantly predicted by dimensions of object relations both directly and indirectly through defense styles. *Cluster A PDs' symptomatology* is predicted by all of the object relations' variables via mediating effects of all defense styles except for the alienation. As consistent with the literature, alienation predicted Cluster A symptoms directly. Individuals with alienation show irrational

suspicion, mistrust of others, lack of interest in interpersonal relationships and restricted emotional expression, and extreme discomfort while interacting with others (Bell, 1995) which are consistent with the symptoms of Cluster A PDs (APA, 2000). Moreover, severity of Cluster A PDs is also predicted by social incompetence only when immature defenses mediate this relationship. Obviously, these results indicated that all individuals with symptoms of Cluster A PDs do not share common variables of object relations. Therefore, during psychotherapy process, assessment of object relations is important to build therapeutic relationship based on the individual's needs. Furthermore, the effect of both insecure attachment and egocentricity predict PDs in this cluster by the mediating effects of all defense styles. Among defenses both immature and mature defenses increase the Cluster A PDs' symptoms while neurotic defenses show a reversing pattern. This result can be explained by the characteristics of mature and neurotic defenses. Probably, by the help of mature defenses, individuals find reasonable explanations for their suspicions or mistrust in their relationships; thus, their symptoms might be strengthened. Additionally, neurotic defenses are predominantly used for the interpersonal problems (Vaillant, 1977) by anxious individuals in order to verbalize their own needs or desires, and to obtain social approval. Therefore, with increased use of utilizing neurotic defenses, individuals with Cluster A PDs find a chance to interact with others and express their own needs. Briefly, therapists should take in consideration the idiosyncratic needs of these individuals.

Cluster B PDs' symptomatology is predicted by insecure attachment, egocentricity, and social incompetence via mediating effects of immature defenses. As mentioned in the Introduction Section, psychoanalytic theory suggested that narcissistic, histrionic and antisocial personalities are clustered in borderline personality organization (DSM-IV-TR Cluster B) because they all derive from deviant, and primitive or immature personality structure (Cramer, 2006). In the light of this knowledge, only immature defenses have mediating role between the variables of objects relations and symptoms of Cluster B PDs.

Therefore, if use of immature defenses decrease in individuals with insecure attachment, egocentricity, and social incompetence, symptoms of Cluster B PDs tend to decrease. Moreover, egocentricity has also direct effect on PDs in this cluster. Egocentric individuals are intrusive, coercive, demanding, manipulating, and controlling (Bell, 1995) which are the distinctive features of Cluster B PDs; thus, if egocentric features are weakened in these individuals, they will less likely to experience these symptoms. In short, therapists should also focus on egocentricity and immature defenses during psychotherapeutic process.

Cluster C PDs' symptomatology is predicted by all variables of object relations through all defense styles both directly and indirectly except for the social incompetence. Social incompetence predicts Cluster C PDs directly, which is consistent with previous results. Characteristics of the socially incompetent individuals include shyness, nervousness, and uncertainty about interaction with others because they feel anxious about not being accepted by others (Bell, 1995) These characteristics are also observed especially among individuals with avoidant PD, one of the disorder among Cluster C PDs. In the therapy process, if immature defenses are weakened for socially incompetent individuals, their symptoms of Cluster C PDs are also expected to decrease. Moreover, individuals with alienation or insecure attachment are less likely to experience Cluster C PDs if they develop more mature defenses.

4.3.2. The Mediating Role of Defense Styles in the Relationship between Object Relations and Personality Traits

Results of the present study revealed that general personality traits are predicted by dimensions of object relations both directly and indirectly through mediating effects of defense styles. According to the literature, personality traits and psychological well-being correlate with each other (DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Steel, Schmidt, & Shultz, 2008). Therefore, focusing on personality traits on psychotherapy process may positively affect the patients' well-being. However,

in the therapeutic process clinicians should notice possible curvilinear relationships between personality traits and well-being. That means extremely low or high levels of personality traits are related with psychopathology (McCrae & Costa, 2003), so moderate levels of personality traits should be supported for psychological well-being.

Initially, *stability* is predicted by all variables of object relations both directly and indirectly through mediating effects of all defense styles. Only lower levels of insecure attachment directly predict higher levels of stability because individuals need to feel safe in order to conform society. Moreover, if individuals with higher levels of alienation and insecure attachment increase their usage of mature defenses, they can experience higher levels of stability. Additionally, socially incompetent individuals need to decrease utilizing immature defenses to provide stability. As previous results indicate, older individuals tend to maintain stability in their personality (Wortman, Lucas, & Donnellan, 2012). Through conformity to social norms, they may protect themselves from unexpected life events, and may feel safe in different interpersonal relationships. This feeling may encourage well-being of people.

The last factor is *plasticity* which is predicted by all object relations' variables both directly and indirectly through mediating effects of immature and mature defenses. As consistent with previous results of the present study, egocentricity has positive effects on developing plasticity; on the other hand, alienation, insecure attachment, and social incompetence prevent this general trait. Moreover, if individuals with insecure attachment, egocentricity, and social incompetence decrease utilizing immature defenses, their chance to become extraverted and openness to new experiences tend to increase. Lastly, utilizing mature defenses strengthens plasticity in individuals. Due to this, traits of individuals bring out their creative potentials and try to experience new things; therefore, they can develop themselves in a unique way.

4.4. Strengths and Clinical Implications

The current study needs to be considered in the light of several strengths and clinical implications. Personality patterns of individuals can cause chronic difficulties including social and occupational problems and also they can trigger Axis I disorders (APA, 2000). Therefore, researchers should concern about how personality patterns of individuals can be improved in clinical setting. This study also serves this concern. Results of the current study give information about factors which may specifically strengthen the personality patterns. Moreover, identifying object relations of the patient is important in terms of the utilized defense styles that need to be improved during the therapy process of the personality symptomatology. In the light of this knowledge, clinicians are encouraged to focus on the related defenses during the therapy process.

Object relations and defense mechanisms are considered to be different frameworks. This study brings a new approach among these two frameworks by thinking their interrelationships.

Furthermore, measuring object relations objectively is a new experience for both Turkish researchers and clinicians since Turkish adaptation studies were completed recently (Uluç et al., 2015). Thanks to this study, clinicians can use this inventory on organization of the therapy process of patients with personality symptomatology.

Besides clinicians, findings of the currents study can be an important guide for parents. It was seen that the attitudes of parents in terms of emotional warmth, rejection, and over-protection are related to development of personality patterns. Therefore, clinicians or psychological counselors can give information to parents about the possible results of their attitudes. Moreover, patients with personality symptomatology have some specific emotional needs due to their negative childhood experiences with their primary caregivers. During therapy process

when therapists have comprehensive knowledge about these needs, they can build therapeutic relationships depending on their needs. Therefore, trust-based relationship can be established, and continuity of therapy is encouraged.

In the literature, there is limited information about the relationship between defense styles and perceived parental rearing styles. The current study contributes to the literature about this relationship. Moreover, two meta-traits of Big Five, namely stability and plasticity, were utilized in limited studies.

4.5. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Studies

Results of the current study have limited inferences about cause and effect relationship between early childhood experiences, and developing defense styles and personality patterns because of the cross-sectional nature of the data. Moreover, perceived parental rearing styles were measured via a retrospective questionnaire. Retrospective measures may reflect biased perceptions and current emotional states of the participants. In future studies, use of longitudinal data may solve these problems effectively.

Although sample size of the current study was large enough for statistical analyses, the sample type does not represent the whole population. Firstly, the sample of the study includes unbalanced number of male and female participants with females being approximately two times more than males. Participants of the study were mostly highly educated (university students or alumni), young (under the age of 30), and single. Additionally, they represent mostly middle income group for Turkey. In order to generalize these results, it is suggested that future studies take into consideration balanced distribution of age, gender, education level, marital status, and income level. Moreover, in the current study, data was collected from volunteer participants in non-clinical population. Therefore, future replications with participants diagnosed with specific personality disorder(s) are encouraged in order to have more distinctive knowledge about

related variables. Furthermore, in the present study, early childhood experiences depending on the relationship with primary caregivers are emphasized to understand developing defense styles and personality patterns. For this purpose, participants were checked whether they have similar family environment with two parents until age five. Future studies may compare the effects of different family environments, for example families with one parent or step parent, on developing personality patterns.

In the current study, variables are categorized into groups in order to prevent confusion. Ten personality disorders were categorized into three clusters depending on the symptomatic similarities; Five basic personality traits were categorized into two general meta-traits depending on the conformity to social norms; Twenty specific defense styles are categorized into three groups depending on the maturity level. However, results of the study indicated that different personality patterns have similar related variables. Therefore, these categorizations prevent understanding which individual defense style is related with which individual personality disorder or personality trait. In future studies, in order to solve this problem, researchers should investigate the relationships between specific personality patterns and defense styles. This knowledge will be critical in the therapeutic process.

It was seen that egocentricity, one of the object relations' variables, has relationships with almost all variables of defense styles and personality patterns. This indicated that egocentricity is not a distinctive variable in this study; therefore, researchers should take into consideration this tendency of egocentricity in future studies with BORRTI.

Theory of Object Relations is based on psychodynamic perspective; therefore, objective measures like self-report questionnaires give limited information about object relations of an individual. In order to reach more comprehensive knowledge on this theoretical perspective, future studies should benefit from not

only objective but also subjective measures such as Thematic Apperception Test and Rorschach Inkblot Test.

In clinical settings, personality disorders, as mentioned in the Introduction Section, are one of the most challenging situations for clinicians. This study revealed related factors of the personality patterns in detail. However, whether differences in these factors improve personality patterns or not should also be observed during therapeutic interventions.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: DEMOGRAPHIC FORM

1. Cinsiyetiniz: .....
2. Yaşınız: .....
3. Eğitim Düzeyiniz:

   Okur-yazar ☐ İlkokul mezunu ☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐

   Lise mezunu ☐ Yükseköğrenim ☐ Yüksek Lisans/Doktora ☐
4. Gelir Düzeyiniz: Düşük ☐ Orta ☐ Yüksek ☐
5. Medeni Haliniz:

   Bekar ☐ Birlikte yaşıyor ☐ Evli ☐

   Dul ☐ Boşanmış ☐ Ayrı ☐
6. Şu anda kimlerle yaşamaktasınız?

   Ailemle ☐ Akrabalarımla ☐

   Yurtta ☐ Arkadaşlarımla Evde ☐

   Diğer (belirtiniz) .....
7. Anneniz halen hayatta mı? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

   Hayattaysa kaç yaşında? .....

   Kaybettiyseniz o sırada siz kaç yaşınızdaydınız? .....
8. Babanız halen hayatta mı? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

   Hayattaysa kaç yaşında? .....

   Kaybettiyseniz o sırada siz kaç yaşınızdaydınız? .....
9. Doğumunuzdan sonraki ilk 5 yıl içinde anne-babanızla yaşama durumunuzu belirtiniz (Lütfen gerekli boşlukları doldurarak, uygun kutucuyu işaretleyiniz.)

   ☐ Bulunduğum evde annem ve babam vardı.

   ☐ İlk 5 yaşımın _____ yılında annem-babam ayrıydı, ben annemle kaldım.

☐ İlk 5 yaşımın _____ yılında annem-babam ayrıydı, ben babamla kaldım.

☐ İlk 5 yaşımın _____ yılında annem-babam ayrıydı, ben başka bir evde kaldım.

☐ İlk 5 yaşımın _____ yılında annemi kaybettim.

☐ İlk 5 yaşımın _____ yılında babamı kaybettim.

10. Şu anda herhangi bir psikolojik sorununuz var mı? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

Evetse; belirtiniz.....

Yardım/tedavi görüyor musunuz? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

11. Daha önce herhangi bir psikolojik sorun yaşadınız mı? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

Evetse; belirtiniz.....

Yardım/tedavi gördünüz mü? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

12. Herhangi bir fiziksel travma yaşadınız mı (ciddi kafa travmaları gibi)?

Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

Evetse; belirtiniz.....

Yardım/tedavi gördünüz mü? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

13. Alkol kullanıyor musunuz? Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

Evetse; ne sıklıkla?

Ayda 1-2 kez ☐ Haftada 1 kez ☐

Haftada 2-3 kez ☐ Hemen her gün ☐

14. Herhangi bir keyif verici madde (esrar, ekstazi gibi) kullanıyor musunuz?

Evet ☐ Hayır ☐

Evetse; ne sıklıkla?

Ayda 1-2 kez ☐ Haftada 1 kez ☐

Haftada 2-3 kez ☐ Hemen her gün ☐

APPENDIX B: EGNA MINNEN BETRAFFANDE UPPFOSTRAN- MY MEMORIES OF UPBRINGING (S-EMBU)

Aşağıda çocukluğunuz ile ilgili bazı ifadeler yer almaktadır. Anketi doldurmadan önce aşağıdaki yönergeyi lütfen dikkatle okuyunuz:

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 ve babamızın kullandıkları prensiplere ilişkin bazı anılarımız vardır.

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.

1. Anne ve babam, nedenini söylemeden bana kızarlardı ya da ters davranırlardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

2. Anne ve babam, beni överlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

3. Anne ve babamın yaptıklarım konusunda daha az endişeli olmasını isterdim.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

4. Anne ve babam, bana hak ettiğimden daha çok fiziksel ceza verirlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

5. Eve geldiğimde, anne ve babama ne yaptığımın hesabını vermek zorundaydım.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

6. Anne ve babam, ergenliğimin uyarıcı, ilginç ve eğitici olması için çalışırlardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

7. Anne ve babam, beni başkalarının önünde eleştirirlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

8. Anne ve babam, bana bir şey olur korkusuyla başka çocukların yapmasına izin verilen şeyleri yapmamı yasaklarlardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

9. Anne ve babam, her şeyde en iyi olmam için beni teşvik ederlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

10. Anne ve babam davranışları ile, örneğin üzgün görünerek, onlara kötü davrandığım için kendimi suçlu hissetmeme neden olurlardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

11. Anne ve babamın bana bir şey olacağına ilişkin endişeleri abartılıydı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

12. Benim içim bir şeyler kötü gittiğinde, anne ve babamın beni rahatlatmaya ve yüreklendirmeye çalıştığını hissederdim.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

13. Bana ailenin 'yüz karası' ya da 'günah keçisi' gibi davranılırdı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

14. Anne ve babam, sözleri ve hareketleriyle beni sevdiklerini gösterirlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

15. Anne ve babamın, erkek ya da kız kardeşimi(lerimi) beni sevdiklerinden daha çok sevdiklerini hissederdim.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

16. Anne ve babam, kendimden utanmama neden olurlardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

17. Anne ve babam, pek fazla umursamadan, istediğim yere gitmeme izin verirlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

18. Anne ve babamın, yaptığım her şeye karıştıklarını hissederdim.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

19. Anne ve babamla aramda sıcaklık ve sevecenlik olduğunu hissederdim.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

20. Anne ve babam, yapabileceklerim ve yapamayacaklarımla ilgili kesin sınırlar koyar ve bunlara titizlikle uyarlardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

21. Anne ve babam, küçük kabahatlerim için bile beni cezalandırırlardı.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

22. Anne ve babam, nasıl giyinmem ve görünmem gerektiği konusunda karar vermek isterlerdi.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

23. Yaptığım bir şeyde başarılı olduğumda, anne ve babamın benimle gurur duyduklarını hissederdim.

	Hayır, hiçbir zaman	Evet, arada sırada	Evet, sık sık	Evet, çoğu zaman
Baba	1	2	3	4
Anne	1	2	3	4

APPENDIX C: BELL OBJECT RELATIONS AND REALITY TESTING INVENTORY

Samples of Object Relations Scale:

Alienation:

Madde	Doğru	Yanlış
1. Genellikle bana en yakın olanları eninde sonunda incitirim.	D	Y
2. Kendi duygularımla teması nadiren kaybederim.	D	Y
3. Herkesi memnun etmem gerektiğini hissederim aksi takdirde beni reddedebilirler.	D	Y

Insecure Attachment:

Madde	Doğru	Yanlış
1. Eğer biri benden hoşlanmazsa o kişiye iyi davranmak için her zaman daha fazla uğraşırım.	D	Y
1. İstediğimi almanın en iyi yolu başkalarını ustaca idare etmektir.	D	Y
2. Etrafımda karşı cinsten birileri varken genellikle kendimi gergin hissederim.	D	Y

Egocentricity

Madde	Doğru	Yanlış
1. Başkaları tarafından incitilmemenin tek yolu, bağımsız olmaktır.	D	Y
2. Yalnız bir yaşam sürmek benim kaderimdir.	D	Y
3. Kendi duygularıma o kadar çok dikkat ederim ki, başkalarının duygularını görmezden gelebilirim.	D	Y

Social Incompetence

Madde	Doğru	Yanlış
1. Düşüncelerim yayınlandığı için diğer insanlar benim ne düşündüğümü bilir.	D	Y
2. Sıklıkla diğer insanların zalimliğinin kurbanı olurum.	D	Y
3. Uykuya dalma ya da uyanma aşamasında olsam bile gerçek ve hayal olanı daima ayırt edebilirim.	D	Y

APPENDIX D: DEFENSE STYLES QUESTIONNAIRE

Lütfen her ifadeyi dikkatle okuyup, bunların size uygunluğunu yan tarafında 1 den 9 a kadar derecelendirilmiş skala üzerinde seçtiğiniz dereceyi daire içine alarak işaretlemek suretiyle gösteriniz.

Örnek:

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 (8) 9 Bana çok uygun

1. Başkalarına yardım etmek hoşuma gider, yardım etmem engellenirse üzülürüm.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

2. Bir sorunum olduğunda, onunla uğraşacak vaktim olana kadar o sorunu düşünmemeyi becerebilirim.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

3. Endişemin üstesinden gelmek için yapıcı ve yaratıcı şeylerle uğraşırım (resim, el işi, ağaç oyma)

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

4. Arada bir bu gün yapmam gereken işleri yarına bırakırım.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

5. Kendime çok kolay gülerim.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

6. İnsanlar bana kötü davranmaya eğilimliler.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

7. Birisi beni soyup paramı çalsa, onun cezalandırılmasını değil ona yardım edilmesini isterim.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

8. Hoş olmayan gerçekleri, hiç yokmuşlar gibi görmezlikten gelirim.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

9. Süpermen'mişim gibi tehlikelere aldırmam.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

10. İnsanlara, sandıkları kadar önemli olmadıklarını gösterebilme yeteneğimle gurur duyarım.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

11. Bir şey canımı sıktığında, çoğu kez düşüncesizce ve tepkisel davranırım.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

12. Hayatım yolunda gitmediğinde bedensel rahatsızlıklara yakalanırım.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

13. Çok tutuk bir insanım.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

14. Her zaman doğruyu söylemem

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

15. Sorunsuz bir yaşam sürdürmemi sağlayacak özel yeteneklerim var.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

16. Seçimlerde bazen haklarında çok az şey bildiğim kişilere oy veririm.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

17. Birçok şeyi gerçek yaşamımdan çok hayalimde çözerim.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

18. Hiçbir şeyden korkmam

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

19. Bazen bir melek olduğumu, bazen de bir şeytan olduğumu düşünürüm.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

20. Kırıldığımda açıkça saldırgan olurum.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

21. Her zaman, tanıdığım birinin koruyucu melek gibi olduğunu hissederim.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

22. Bana göre, insanlar ya iyi ya da kötüdürler.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

23. Patronum beni kızdırırsa, ondan hıncımı çıkarmak için ya işimde hata yaparım ya da işi yavaşlatırım.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

24. Her şeyi yapabilecek güçte, aynı zamanda son derece adil ve dürüst olan bir tanıdığım var.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

25. Serbest bıraktığımda, yaptığım işi etkileyebilecek olan duygularımı kontrol edebilirim.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

26. Genellikle, aslında acı verici olan bir durumun gülünç yanını görebilirim.
Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

27. Hoşlanmadığım bir işi yaptığımda başım ağrır.
Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

28. Sık sık, kendimi kesinlikle kızmam gereken insanlara iyi davranırken bulurum.
Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

29. Hayatta, haksızlığa uğruyor olduğuma eminim
Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

30. Sınav veya iş görüşmesi gibi zor bir durumla karşılaşacağımı bildiğimde, bunun nasıl olabileceğini hayal eder ve başa çıkmak için planlar yaparım.
Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

31. Doktorlar benim derdimin ne olduğunu hiçbir zaman gerçekten anlamıyorlar.
Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

32. Haklarım için mücadele ettikten sonra, girişken davrandığımdan dolayı özür dilemeye eğilimliyimdir.
Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

33. Üzüntülü veya endişeli olduğumda yemek yemek beni rahatlatır.
Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

34. Sık sık duygularımı göstermediğim söylenir.
Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

35. Eğer üzüleceğimi önceden tahmin edebilirsem, onunla daha iyi baş edebilirim.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

36. Ne kadar yakınırsam yakınayım, hiçbir zaman tatmin edici bir yanıt alamıyorum.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

37. Yoğun duyguların yaşanması gereken durumlarda, genellikle hiçbir şey hissetmediğimi fark ediyorum.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

38. Kendimi elimdeki işe vermek, beni üzüntülü veya endişeli olmaktan korur.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

39. Bir bunalım içinde olsaydım, aynı türden sorunu olan birini arardım.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

40. Eğer saldırganca bir düşüncem olursa, bunu telafi etmek için bir şey yapma ihtiyacı duyarım.

Bana hiç uygun değil 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 Bana çok uygun

APPENDIX E: PERSONALITY BELIEF QUESTONNAIRE

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyunuz ve HER BİRİNE NE KADAR İNANDIĞINIZI belirtiniz. Her bir ifadeyle ilgili olarak ÇOĞU ZAMAN nasıl hissettiğinize göre karar veriniz.

0 Hiç inanmıyorum
1 Biraz inanıyorum
2 Orta derecede inanıyorum
3 Çok fazla inanıyorum
4 Tümüyle inanıyorum

	NE KADAR İNANIYORSUNUZ?	Tümüyle	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 ya da dışlayıcı olabilirler.	4	3	2	1	0
3.	Rahatsızlık verici duygulara katlanamam.	4	3	2	1	0
4.	İnsanlar bana yakınlaşırlarsa, 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 verici durumlardan 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 ve kontrolden 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

	NE KADAR İNANIYORSUNUZ?	Tümüyle	Çok Fazla	Orta Derecede	Biraz	Hiç
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 gelirsem 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

	NE KADAR İNANIYORSUNUZ?	Tümüyle	Çok Fazla	Orta Derecede	Biraz	Hiç
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 verine, 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 sıkar.	4	3	2	1	0
41.	Diğer insanlar sıklıkla çok şey isterler.	4	3	2	1	0
42.	İnsanlar çok fazla patronluk taslarlarsa 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

	NE KADAR İNANIYORSUNUZ?	Tümüyle	Çok Fazla	Orta Derecede	Biraz	Hiç
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 ihtiyacındayım	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 beni boyun eğmeye zorlar.	4	3	2	1	0
66.	Karlı çıkabilmek için elimden gelen her şeyi yapmalıyım.	4	3	2	1	0

	NE KADAR İNANIYORSUNUZ?	Tümüyle	Çok Fazla	Orta Derecede	Biraz	Hiç
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 kar 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

	NE KADAR İNANIYORSUNUZ?	Tümüyle	Çok Fazla	Orta Derecede	Biraz	Hiç
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 sürdüremezsem benden hoşlanmazlar.	4	3	2	1	0
89.	İstediğimi 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 hissedersem, 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 hissederim.	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

	NE KADAR İNANIYORSUNUZ?	Tümüyle	Çok Fazla	Orta Derecede	Biraz	Hiç
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.	Eğer insanların gizli amaçlan 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.	Diğer insanların, bana kötü davranıp sonra da çekip gideceklerini düşünmelerine izin verirsem, başımı ciddi belaya sokmuş olurum.	4	3	2	1	0
125.	İnsanla sıklıkla söylediğinden farklı bir anlamı kasteder.	4	3	2	1	0

	NE KADAR İNANIYORSUNUZ?	Tümüyle	Çok Fazla	Orta Derecede	Biraz	Hiç
126.	Yakın olduğum kişi sadakatsiz veya güvenilmez olabilir.	4	3	2	1	0

APPENDIX F: BASIC PERSONALITY TRAITS INVENTORY

YÖNERGE:

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

Örneğin;

Kendimi ..... biri olarak görüyorum.

Hiç uygun değil — Uygun değil — Kararsızım — Uygun — Çok uygun

1 — 2 — (3) — 4 — 5

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

APPENDIX G: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Bu çalışma, Prof. Dr. Tülin Gençöz danışmanlığında, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü Doktora öğrencisi Uzm. Psk. İncila Gürol Işık tarafından tez çalışması kapsamında yürütülmektedir. Çalışmanın amacı yetişkinlerde erken dönem çocukluk yaşantılarının bugünkü kişilik yapılanmalarına etkisini araştırmaktır. Çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Ankette, sizden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamiyle gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayımlarda ve sunumlarda grup ortalama değerleri olarak kullanılacaktır.

Anketin sağlıklı sonuç verebilmesi için soruları mümkün olduğunca boş bırakmayınız. Anket, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek soruları içermemesine rağmen, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplamayı yarıda bırakabilirsiniz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak isterseniz incila.gurol@yahoo.com e-posta adresinden araştırmacıya ulaşabilirsiniz.

Çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Saygılarımızla

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

İsim Soyisim Tarih

İmza

(veya Baş Harfleri)

APPENDIX I: TURKISH SUMMARY

BÖLÜM 1

GİRİŞ

1.1. Kişilik Semptomatiği

Kişilik, bireylerin süregelen zihinsel, duygusal ve davranışsal örüntüleri olarak tanımlanmaktadır. Her bir insanın kalıcı ve kendine özgü bir kişilik örüntüsü vardır. Ancak, kişilik örüntüleri sosyal normlara ve beklentilere uyum göstermeyen kişiler, bilişsel ve duygusal zorlukların yanı sıra insan ilişkilerinde ve dürtülerini kontrol etmekte sorun yaşamaya başlarlar. Klinik açıdan değerlendirildiğinde, yaşadıkları zorluklar nedeniyle bu kişilere *kişilik bozukluğu* tanısı konulmaktadır (Amerikan Psikiyatri Birliği [APA], 2000). Klinik ortamda, bütün hayatı boyunca, kaçınıcı, bağımlı, antisosyal veya takıntılı tutumlara ya da hislere sahip kişilik bozukluğu olan hastaların sayısı oldukça fazladır (APA, 2000). Bu bozukluğun yaygınlığına dair yapılmış çalışmalar yetersiz olsa da klinik popülasyonun %27'sinde kişilik bozukluğu olduğu kabul edilmektedir (akt. Adel, Grimm, Mogge ve Shart, 2006). Sahip oldukları semptomlar nedeniyle, kişilerarası ilişkilerinde, sosyal ve mesleki işlerliklerinde kalıcı sorunlar yaşıyor olmalarına rağmen, kendi sorunlarına yönelik çok az bir iç görüye sahip olduklarından profesyonel destek konusunda isteksizdirler (Ward, 2004). Klinik ortamda bulunma sebepleri daha çok Ruhsal Bozuklukların Tanısal ve İstatistiksel El Kitabı'nın (Diagnostic and Statistical Manuel of Mental Disorders [DSM-IV-TR]) Eksen I bozukluklarına dair şikayetleridir (APA, 2000). Ancak sahip oldukları kronik yapı nedeniyle tedaviye karşı direnç gösterirler. Böylece, tedavi süresinin uzaması ve maliyetlerin artması, bu hastaların semptomlarını anlamak, onlara yardımcı olmak ve kalıcı tedavi yöntemleri bulmak konusunda araştırmacıları motive etmektedir (Ward, 2004).

Tanı Kitabı'nda kişilik bozukluklarını anlamaya yönelik geçmişten bugüne pek çok değişiklik yapılmıştır. 20. Yüzyıl'ın başlarında genel hatlarıyla değerlendirilen kişilik bozuklukları, DSM-IV'le birlikte detaylandırılmış ve 10 farklı kişilik bozukluğu tanısı ortaya konulmuştur (APA, 1994). Ancak, bu kişilik bozukluklarına dair tanı kategorilerinin, tedaviye değerlendirme süreci dışında bir katkısı olmadığı görülmüş ve araştırmacılar tedavi sürecine de ışık tutabilecek başka kriterler aramaya başlamışlardır. Bu nedenle DSM-5 kişilik bozukluklarını, kişilik özellikleri çerçevesinde izleyecek yeni bir bakış açısı önermiştir. Buna göre 25 özellik (büyüklenmecilik, bağımlılık ve depresiflik vs.) 5 ana kümede (olumsuz duygulanım, kopukluk, düşmanlık, dürtüsellik ve gerçeklik algısının yitimi) toplanmıştır (APA, 2013). Bu sayede, bir hastanın kişilik bozukluğu olup olmadığına bakılmaksızın, kişilik yapısının anlaşılması amaçlanmaktadır (Wakefiled, 2013).

Sonuçta, geçmişten bugüne kadar kişilik bozuklukları klinik araştırmacılar için temel konulardan biri haline gelmiştir. Hastalığı anlamak ve bir terapi planı kurgulamak, hastalığın kronik özellikleri nedeniyle oldukça zorlayıcıdır. Bu zorlukları aşabilmek adına çok sayıda teori ve tedavi yaklaşımı ortaya atılmıştır. Bu çalışmada da kişilik organizasyonu anlayabilmek amaçlı Beş Faktör Modeli ve psikodinamik teoriler incelenmiştir.

1.1. Beş Faktör Modeli

Yukarıda da bahsedildiği gibi DSM-5 kişilik yapısını anlamak için beş ana küme önermektedir. Bu önermeden önce pek çok araştırmacı kişilik özellikleri modeli üzerinde çalışmalar yürütmüş, bunlardan en çok odaklanılan model ise "Beş Faktör Modeli" (BFM) olmuştur (Trull, 2012).

BFM, kişilerin bilişsel, duygusal ve davranışsal örüntülerinden beslenen uzun süreli kişilik eğilimlerini, hiyerarşik bir yapıyla açıklamaktadır (Costa ve Widiger, 2002). McCrae ve Costa'ya göre (1997), kişilik özellikleri, fiziksel

özelliklerden farklı olarak, daha soyut ve karmaşık bir örüntüye sahip olduğundan direk olarak ölçülemezler. Bu nedenle, ana dile ait sıfatların kişilik özelliklerini ölçmek için en iyi yol olduğunu iddia etmişler ve bunun için, *sözcüksel yaklaşımdan* (lexical approach) faydalanmışlardır. Bu yaklaşıma göre, ana dil, insan ilişkilerinin merkezinde bulunan bütün önemli kişilik özelliklerini tanımlayacak ifadelere sahiptir. Bütün kültürler, kendi içindeki kişilik farklılıkları anlayabilmek ve ifade edebilmek için kendi tanımlayıcı sıfatlarını üretmektedirler (McCrae ve Costa, 1997). BFM sayesinde, farklı kültürlerden klinik, eğitim ve endüstri psikologları temel kişilik özelliklerini açıklayabilecekleri ortak bir dil kullanmaya başlamışlardır. Buna göre beş temel özellik söz konusudur: (1) duygusal tutarsızlık, (2) dışa dönüklük, (3) yeniliklere açıklık, (4) uyumluluk ve (5) sorumluluk (Costa ve McCrae, 1995). Türk örnekleminde yapılan çalışmalarda ise "olumsuz değerlik" altıncı özellik olarak yer almaktadır (Gençöz ve Öncül, 2012).

Digman (1997), BFM için iki faktörlü başka bir model önermiştir: (1) tutarlılık (stability) ve (2) esneklik (plasticity). Bu modele göre tutarlılık üst faktörü uyumluluk, sorumluluk ve duygusal tutarlılığı kapsarken, kişinin toplumsal normlara uyumuna atıfta bulunmaktadır. Esneklik üst faktörü ise dışa dönüklük ve yeniliklere açık olmayı kapsar ve kişinin bireyselliğinin ön planda olması nedeniyle, sosyal normlara uyumun daha az olduğu kişilerde görülmektedir (DeYoung, Peterson ve Higgins, 2002).

Literatürde, BFM'nin kişilik bozukluklarına yönelik çalışmalarda oldukça önemli bir yeri bulunmaktadır. Klinik alanda, iletişimi kolaylaştırması, daha rahat anlaşılması, herkesin kişilik problemlerini kapsayabilmesi ve klinisyenlere terapi planı oluştururken yol gösterici olması nedeniyle kişilik bozukluklarının kategorik sınıflandırmasını gölgede bırakmaktadır (Samuel ve Widiger, 2006).

Daha önce de bahsedildiği üzere BFM kişilik patolojilerinde etkili tedavi planı için klinisyenlere ve araştırmacılara umut ışığı olmuştur. Literatürde kişilik

özelliklerinin psikolojik iyilik hali üzerinde de etkilerinin olduğuna dair çok sayıda çalışma bulunmaktadır (DeNeve ve Cooper, 1998). Ancak kişilik özelliklerinin oluşumunda hangi etmenlerin rol aldığına dair çalışmalar oldukça kısıtlıdır. Bu nedenle ilerleyen kısımlarda psikodinamik teoriler ele alınacaktır.

1.2. Savunma Mekanizmaları

Frued'a göre (1894) benlik, kendisini stres yaratan istenmeyen dürtülerden korumak için savunma mekanizmaları geliştirmektedir (akt. Bowins, 2004). Bir başka deyişle, vücudun bağışıklık sistemine sahip olması gibi, olumsuz duyguları uyandıran yaşantılardan, psikolojik sağlığın korunması için bireyler savunma mekanizmalarını kullanmaktadırlar (Bowins, 2004). Bu savunmaların nasıl geliştiğini anlayabilmek için çocukluk çağı yaşantılarına bakılmaktadır. Örneğin, bir çocuk ebeveynlerinin olumsuz tepkilerinden dolayı onlara yönelik kabul görmeyecek duygular hissetmeye başladığında, ebeveynleriyle ilişkisini sürdürebilmek için bu duygularını bastırabilir. Böylece kendisini ayrılma/terkedilme kaygılarından korumayı başarır. Buna ek olarak, ailenin duygusal yoksunluğundan benliği ve özgüveni koruyabilmek için de savunma mekanizmaları gelişmektedir. Kısacası, savunma mekanizmalarının aşırı kaygıdan benliği ve benlik bütünlüğünü korumak gibi iki temel işlevi vardır (Cramer, 2006).

Vaillant'a göre (1977) savunma mekanizmaları dört ana başlıkta toplanmaktadır. Bunlardan birincil seviyede olanı, bireylerin gerçeklik algısını bozan patolojik mekanizmalardır. İkinci seviyede, bireylerin psikolojik gerginlik ve aşırı kaygı gibi olumsuz duygularının şiddetini azaltmasını sağlayan ilkel savunmalar yer almaktadır. Üçüncü seviyede, bireylerin kişilerarası ilişkilerine, iş hayatlarına ve yaşamdan aldıkları doyuma yönelik sorunlarına bağlı olumsuz duygulanımlarını dengelemek için kullandıkları, kısa süreli etkiye sahip nevrotik savunmalar bulunmaktadır. Son olarak, en üst seviyede dışsal gerçeklik ve içsel psikolojik baskıları dengelemek için kullanılan gelişmiş savunmalar vardır (Vaillant,

1977). Bu savunmaların gelişmişlik seviyesi bireylerin yaşlarına bağlı olarak yorumlanmaktadır. Örneğin "reddetme" mekanizması 5 yaşındaki bir çocuk kullandığında normal olarak değerlendirilirken, 25 yaşındaki biri için oldukça ilkel seviyede kalmaktadır. Ayrıca, davranışlar kendi içindeki duruma göre de değerlendirilmelidir. Bazı ilkel savunmalar kimi durumlarda işlevsel bir biçimde kullanılabilmektedirler (Koenigsberg ve ark., 2000).

BFM ve savunma mekanizmaları arasındaki ilişki pek çok defa araştırılmış olmasına rağmen, bu konuya yönelik bir fikir birliğine ulaşılamamıştır. Costa, Zonderman ve McCrae'nin (1991) yürütmüş olduğu bir çalışmada, dışa dönüklük ve yeniliklere açıklık, gelişmiş savunmalarla ilişkili bulunmuştur. Buna ek olarak duygusal tutarsızlık ve nevrotik savunmalar arasında pozitif bir ilişki olduğu sonucuna ulaşılmıştır. Bir başka çalışmada uyumluluğun ve sorumluluğun ilkel savunmalarla negatif bir korelasyona sahip olduğu görülmüş; dışa dönüklüğün ve yeniliklere açıklığın, önceki çalışmada olduğu gibi, gelişmiş savunmalarla ilişkili bulunmuştur (Soldz, Budman, Demby ve Merry, 1995). Cramer'e göre (2003) gelişmiş savunmalar düşük duygusal tutarsızlık ve erkeklerde yüksek uyumlulukla ilişkiliyken, kadınlarda yüksek sorumlulukla ilişkilidir. İlkel savunmalar ise yüksek seviyede duygusal tutarsızlık ve düşük seviyede dışa dönüklük ve uyumluluktan beslenmektedir. Kısacası, gelişmiş savunmaları kullanan bireylerin daha olumlu kişilik özelliklerine sahip oldukları düşünülmektedir (Cramer, 2003).

Kişilik özelliklerinin yanı sıra, DSM-IV-TR tanı kümeleri (APA, 2000), kullanılan savunma mekanizmalarına göre belirlenmiştir (Sinha ve Watson, 2004). A Kümesi kişilik bozuklukları (tuhaf küme) çoğunlukla fantezi ve yansıtma gibi savunmaları; B Kümesi kişilik bozuklukları (dramatik küme) bölünme, değersizleştirme, rol yapma ve disosiyasyon gibi savunmaları; C Kümesi kişilik bozuklukları (kaygılı küme) ise pasif agresyon, somatizasyon, izolasyon ve yer değiştirme gibi savunmaları içermektedir (Camacho ve ark., 2010; Sinha ve Watson, 2004; Vaillant, 1994; Vaillant ve McCullough, 1998).

Yukarıda verilen bilgiler ışığında, savunma mekanizmalarının kişilik örüntüleriyle ilişkili olduğu ortaya konulmuştur. Bu nedenle savunma mekanizmalarının nasıl geliştiğini ve işlediğini anlamanın terapi süreci için önemli bir rolü olduğu düşünülmektedir. Savunma mekanizmaları bilinçdışı süreçte meydana gelmektedir (Cramer, 2006). Bireylerin bir durum karşısındaki duygularını, algılarını ve yorumlarını içsel olarak değiştirerek çalışmaktadırlar. Savunma mekanizmaları, duygusal iyilik halini korumak ve işlevselliği devam ettirmek amacıyla, kaygı uyandıran bir durum karşısında otomatik olarak harekete geçmektedirler (Berzoff, Flanagan ve Hertz, 2008). Freud'a göre (1926), kaygı farklı durumlarda ortaya çıkmaktadır. Bireylerde engellenme *otomatik kaygıyı*; ebeveyn tarafından terk edilme korkusu *nesneyi kaybetme kaygısını;* ebeveynin sevgisini ve ilgisini kaybetme korkusu *nesnenin sevgisini kaybetme kaygısını;* fiziksel olarak zarar görme ya da fiziksel ve mental kapasitesini kaybetme ihtimali *iğdiş edilme kaygısını* tetiklemektedir. Bu farklı kaygı türleri, çoğunlukla çocuklarda tetiklenmektedir çünkü çocuklar yetişkinlerin onaylamayacağı şekilde ilkel benlikleriyle (id) dürtüsel bir şekilde hareket etmeye meyillidirler. Bu nedenle, cezalandırılmaktan kendilerini koruyabilmek için çocuklar, ebeveynlerinin davranışlarını içselleştirmeye başlarlar ve ahlaki değerleri öğrenmeye başlarlar (süperego). Ancak, içsel arzular süperego ile çatışmaya başladığında *ego* bu kaygılardan birini algılar ve bu istenmeyen duyguyla baş edebilmek için savunma mekanizmalarını aktive eder. Böylece, bilinç düzeyinde hissedilen kaygı, bilinçdışı düzeydeki savunmalar sayesinde normalleşir (Freud, 1966).

1.3. Nesne İlişkileri

Nesne ilişkileri, en basit şekliyle kişilerarası ilişkileri konu edinmektedir. Teoriye göre, bir kişinin şimdiki ilişki örüntüsü geçmiş ilişkilerinin, özellikle annesiyle arasındaki ilişkisinin, içsel kalıntılarıyla şekillenmektedir. Nesne ilişkilerine göre, içsel dünyada benlik temsilinin nesne temsili ile ilişkisi söz konusudur. Burada *benlik temsili* kişinin kendi benliğinin kendisinde uyandırdığı

temsil iken, *nesne temsili* bir başkasının ya da diğer değişle nesnenin kişide uyandırdığı sübjektif haz veya engellenme hisleriyle ilişkilidir. Nesne ilişkilerindeki problemlerin, kişinin iç dünyasının dış gerçekliği bozduğu gerekçesiyle, akıl hastalıklarına ya da psikopatolojiye neden olduğu düşünülmektedir (St.Clair ve Wigren, 2004).

Klein'a göre (1952a) çocuklar iç dünyalarına egemen olan içgüdüyle birlikte doğarlar (id). Ona göre yaşam ve ölüm olmak üzere iki temel içgüdü vardır. Yaşama içgüdüsü ego ve savunmalar sayesinde güçlenip, benlik entegrasyonunu sağlarken (Klein, 1952a), ölüm içgüdüsü veya ölüm korkusu yeni doğan bebeğin temel kaygı nedeni olmaktadır (St.Clair ve Wigren, 2004). İki uç duyguya neden olan bu yaşam ve ölüm içgüdüleri, yeni doğan bebek tarafından bölünme mekanizması sayesinde birbirinden tamamen ayrışmaktadırlar (Klein, 1952b). Yaşam ve ölüm aynı zamanda sevgi ve nefreti de temsil etmektedir. Eğer sevgi zamanla iç mental dünyaya hakim olursa ego güçlenir, böylece kişi ölüm korkusuyla da sağlıklı bir şekilde baş etmeyi öğrenir (Klein, 1958).

Klein'a göre (1952a), her içgüdü bir nesneyle ilişkilidir. Yeni doğan bebek ise nesneleri parçalar halinde algılamaya meyilli olduğundan genellikle anneyi de doyumun ya da mahrumiyetin kaynağı olan meme olarak algılamaya eğilimlidir. Doyumun veya mahrumiyetin miktarına bağlı olarak bebek, memenin iyi veya kötü olduğuna karar verir (Klein, 1959). Örneğin, aç bir bebek annesi tarafından ivedilikle doyrulduğunda hazza ve mutluluğa ulaşırken, aynı bebek annesi tarafından, sebebi her ne olursa olsun, doyrulmadığında, engellenmişliğin ve ihtiyaçlarının önemsenmemesinin verdiği kaygıyı ve öfkeyi yaşamaya başlar. Bu yaşanan kötü deneyimden, iyi olanı koruyabilmek için, iki deneyimi birbirinden tamamen ayırarak "iyi" ve "kötü" ayrışmasını ortaya koyar. Klein (1957) bu evreye *paranoid-şizoid konum* ismini vermektedir.

Paranoid-şizoid konumdaki bebek, ölüm kaygısı ile başa çıkabilmek için içindeki *kötü* temsili annesine yansıtmaya başlar. Artık bu kötü olan, kendisinin

bir parçası değil, dışarının bir parçası olmuştur. Normal koşulda annenin bu kötü olanı, yansıtmacı özdeşim mekanizması sayesinde duygusal bir dönüşüme götürerek bebeğe yansıtması, bebeğin içindeki korkuyla daha kabullenici bir şekilde baş etmesine yardımcı olur. Bebek, anneye yansıttığı kötünün, iyi bir şekilde dönüşüme uğrayarak kendisine yansıdığını gördükçe, iyiyi ve kötüyü birleştirmeye ve parçadan bütüne gitmeye başlar. Yani bölme ve yansıtmacı özdeşim mekanizmalarının kullanımı azalmaya başlar ve böylece bebek *depresif konuma* geçiş yapar. Depresif konumdayken bir önceki konumda yaptıklarından dolayı suçlu hissetmeye başlayan bebek, annenin (nesnenin) sevgisini kaybetmekten korkmaya başlar. Sevilen nesneye yönelik suçluluk ve öfke duygularından egoyu koruyabilmek için, reddetme gibi başka savunma mekanizmalarını bu konumda geliştirmeye başlar (St.Clair ve Wigren, 2004).

1.4. Algılanan Anne-Baba Tutumları

Hem geleneksel bakış açısına hem de psikolojik teorilere göre yetişkinlikteki kişilik yapıları erken dönem çocukluk dönemindeki anne-babanın tutumlarına bağlı olarak şekillenmektedir (Freud, 1900/1953; Rogers, 1961). Son zamanlardan yapılan araştırmalara göre, depresyon ve kaygı bozuklukları (Gerlsma, Emmelkamp, ve Arrindell, 1990; Parker, 1983), kişilik patolojileri (Parker, Tupling ve Brown, 2979; Thimm, 2010) ve kişilik özellikleri (Lundberg, Perris ve Adolfsson, 2000) anne-babaların yetiştirme tutumlarıyla ilişkilidir.

Anne-baba tutumlarının kişilik örüntüleri üzerinde direk etkisi kanıtlanmamış olsa da, pek çok çalışma aradaki anlamlı korelasyona işaret etmektedir (Lundber ve ark., 2000). Thimm'in 2010 yılında yürüttüğü bir çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre, A ve B kümesi kişilik patolojileri her iki ebeveynin de reddedici tutumlarıyla ilişkilidir. Ayrıca, annenin duygusal sıcaklığındaki yetersizliğin de bu kümelerdeki kişilik patolojilerinin, yetişkinlikte ortaya çıkmasında rolü olduğu görülmüştür. Yine aynı çalışmanın sonuçları, babanın reddedici

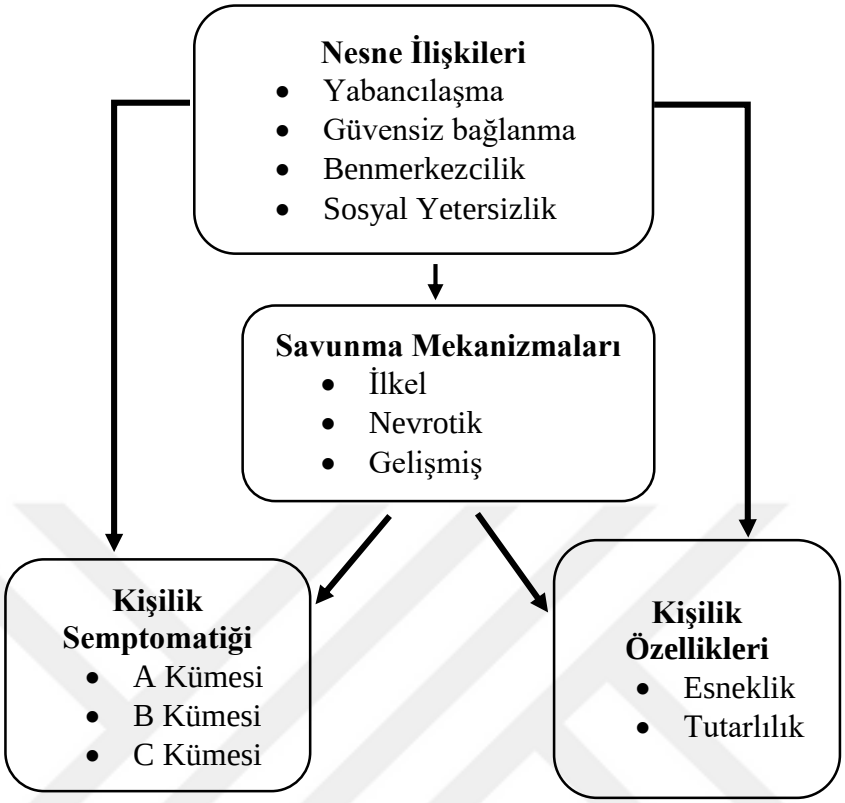
tutumlarının, yetişkinlikteki C kümesi kişilik patolojileriyle pozitif ilişkisi olduğunu göstermiştir.

Pek çok araştırmacı aradaki bu ilişkiye dair çok sayıda çalışma ortaya koysa da henüz bir fikir birliğine ulaşılmamıştır, çünkü bir çocuğun kişilik gelişiminde anne babanın tutumları tek başına etmen olmamaktadır; genetik özellikler, çevre, sosyo-ekonomik statü, akran grupları, ve yetişkinlikteki yaşam deneyimleri kişiliği etkilemektedirler (McCrae ve Costa, 1988).

1.5. Çalışmanın Amacı

Yapılan literatür taraması ışığında, bu çalışma, nesne ilişkileri (yabancılaşma, güvensiz bağlanma, benmerkezcilik ve sosyal yetersizlik), savunma mekanizmaları (ilkel, nevrotik ve gelişmiş) ve kişilik örüntüleri (semptomatoloji ve özellikleri) arasındaki ilişkileri araştırmayı hedeflemektedir. Buna ek olarak, nesne ilişkilerinin dışında, algılanan anne-baba tutumlarının (aşırı korumacılık, reddedicilik ve duygusal yakınlık) savunma mekanizmalarının kullanımında ve kişilik örüntülerinin gelişimindeki rolünü araştırmak, bu çalışmanın bir diğer hedefini oluşturmaktadır.

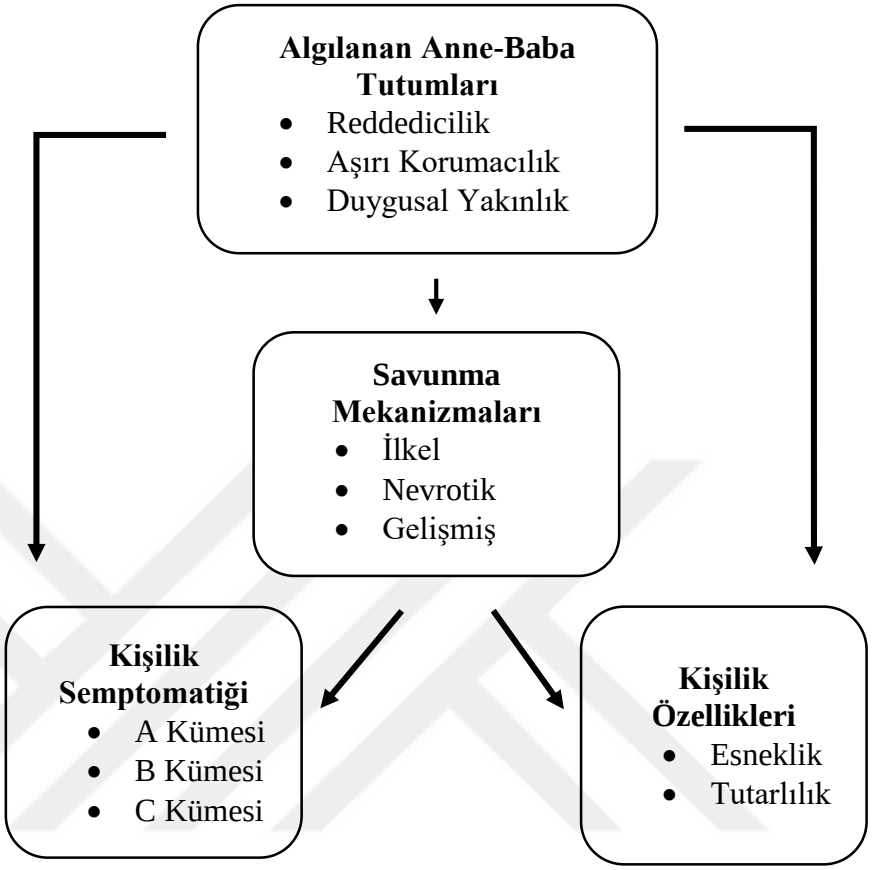
Figür 1. Çalışmanın Önerilen İlk Modeli



Bu araştırmadaki ilk modelin hipotezleri şu şekildedir:

1. İçselleştirilmiş nesne ilişkilerinin savunma mekanizmalarının gelişmişliğiyle ilişkili olması beklenmektedir.
2. İçselleştirilmiş nesne ilişkilerinin kişilik örüntülerinin gelişimiyle ilişkili olması beklenmektedir.
3. Nesne ilişkileri kontrol edildikten sonra, bireylerin baskın olarak kullandıkları savunmaların gelişmişlik seviyesinin, kişilik semptomatolojisinin ortaya çıkmasıyla ilişkili olması beklenmektedir.
4. Nesne ilişkileri kontrol edildikten sonra, bireylerin çoğunlukla faydalandıkları savunma mekanizmalarının kişilik özellikleriyle ilişkili olması beklenmektedir.
5. Savunma mekanizmalarının nesne ilişkileri ve kişilik semptomatiği arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmesi beklenmektedir.
6. Savunma mekanizmalarının nesne ilişkileri ve kişilik özellikleri arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmesi beklenmektedir.

Figür 2. Çalışmanın Önerilen İkinci Modeli



Bu araştırmadaki ikinci modelin hipotezleri şu şekildedir:

1. Algılanan anne-baba tutumlarının savunma mekanizmalarının gelişmişliğiyle ilişkili olması beklenmektedir.
2. Algılanan anne-baba tutumlarının kişilik örüntülerinin gelişimiyle ilişkili olması beklenmektedir.
3. Algılanan anne-baba tutumları kontrol edildikten sonra, bireylerin baskın olarak kullandıkları savunmaların gelişmişlik seviyesinin, kişilik semptomatolojisinin ortaya çıkmasıyla ilişkili olması beklenmektedir.
4. Algılanan anne-baba tutumları kontrol edildikten sonra, bireylerin çoğunlukla faydalandıkları savunma mekanizmalarının kişilik özellikleriyle ilişkili olması beklenmektedir.

BÖLÜM 2

YÖNTEM

2.1. Örneklem

Bu çalışma, yaşları 18 ile 67 arasında değişen (Ort = 28,10, SS = 8,94) 823 katılımcıyla yürütülmüştür. Katılımcıların 557 tanesi kadın ve 264 tanesi erkektir. Çalışmanın öncesinde katılımcılardan genel karakteristik özelliklerinin, ilk 5 senelerini geçirdikleri aile ortamlarının ve sağlık davranışlarının sorulduğu Demografik Bilgi Formu'nu doldurmaları istenmiştir. Buna göre, 732 katılımcının üniversite öğrencisi veya mezunu, 644'ünün orta gelir seviyesine sahip, 587'sinin bekar olduğu bilgisi edinilmiştir. Ayrıca katılımcıların 774'ünün ilk 5 yaşlarını geçirdikleri aile ortamlarında biyolojik anne ve baba bulunduğu öğrenilmiştir.

2.2. Ölçme Araçları

Çalışmanın verisi, Algılanan Ebeveyn Tutumları-Kısa Formu, Bell Nesne İlişkileri ve Gerçeklik Testi Envanteri, Savunma Biçimleri Ölçeği, Minnesota Çok Yönlü Kişilik Envanteri L ve K Alt-ölçekleri, Kişilik İnanç Ölçeği ve Temel Kişilik Özellikleri Ölçeği ile toplanmıştır.

2.2.1. Algılanan Ebeveyn Tutumları Ölçeği - Kısa Formu

(Arrindell ve ark., 1999)

Bu ölçek katılımcıların anne-babalarının çocuk yetiştirme tutumlarını nasıl algıladıklarını ölçmek amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Ölçeğin üç faktörü vardır: reddedicilik, duygusal yakınlık ve aşırı koruyuculuk.

2.2.2. **Bell Nesne İlişkileri ve Gerçeklik Testi Envanteri** (Bell, 1995)

İki ölçekten oluşan envanterin 45 maddesi bireylerin nesne ilişkilerini ölçmek için hazırlanmıştır. Nesne ilişkileri dört değişkenle ölçülmektedir: Yabancılaşma, güvensiz bağlanma, benmerkezcilik ve sosyal yetersizlik.

2.2.2.1. Yabancılaşma: Bireylerdeki yüksek yabancılaşma skoru, ilişkilerdeki temel güvensizliğin göstergesi olarak düşünülmektedir. Bu kişiler genellikle şüphecidirler ve tedbirli bir şekilde sosyal hayattan izole yaşamaya meyillidirler. Aidiyet hissi kurabildikleri bir ilişki kurmakta ciddi zorluk çekerler.

2.2.2.2. Güvensiz Bağlanma: Güvensiz bağlanmaya sahip kişiler, başkaları tarafından reddedilmeye karşı aşırı duyarlıdırlar. Ayrılıklara, kayıplara ve yalnızlıklara tahammül edemezler. Ayrıca, başkaları tarafından kabul görmek ve beğenilmek onlar için o kadar önemlidir ki terkedilme kaygıları onları esir alır.

2.2.2.3. Benmerkezcilik: Benmerkezci kişiler, kendi benliklerini dünyanın merkezi olarak algılarlar. Kendi bireysel amaçları dışında başka hiç kimsenin ihtiyaçları, inançları veya tutumları önemli değildir. İlişkilerinde, zorlayıcı, talepkar, manipulatif ve kontrolcüdürler.

2.2.2.4. Sosyal Yetersizlik: Sosyal yetersizlik puanı yüksek olan bireylerin utangaç ve tedirgin yapıları dikkat çekmektedir. Bu kişilere göre kişilerarası ilişkiler öngörülemez ve belirsizdir. Bu nedenle ilişkilerden kaçınarak, kaygı uyandıran durumlardan kendilerini korumaktadırlar.

2.2.3. **Savunma Biçimleri Ölçeği** (Andrews, Singh ve Bond, 1993)

Savunma biçimleri ölçeği ikişer madde ile 20 farklı savunma mekanizmasını ölçmektedir. Bu 20 mekanizma ilkel, nevrotik ve gelişmiş savunmalar olmak üzere 3 faktör altında değerlendirilmektedir.

2.2.4. Minnesota Çok Yönlü Kişilik Envanteri L ve K Alt-Ölçekleri (Hataway ve McKinley, 1940)

Katılımcıların ego savunmalarını ölçme amaçlı 15 maddeden oluşan L Alt-ölçeği ile 30 maddeden oluşan K Alt-ölçeği'nden faydalanılmıştır.

2.2.5. Kişilik İnanç Ölçeği (Beck ve Beck, 1991)

Bireylerin kişilik bozukluklarıyla ilgili işlevsel olmayan inançlarını ölçek için hazırlanan ölçek, DSM-III'te ve DSM-IV'te yer alan 10 kişilik bozukluğunu da kapsamaktadır. Bunlardan Şizoid ve Paranoid Kişilik Bozuklukları A Kümesi'ni, Antisosyal, Borderline (Sınırda), Histrionik ve Narsisistik Kişilik Bozuklukları B Kümesi'ni, Çekingen, Bağımlı ve Obsesif-Kompulsif Kişilik Bozuklukları C Kümesi'ni oluşturmaktadır.

2.2.6. Temel Kişilik Özellikleri Ölçeği (Gençöz ve Öncül, 2012)

Türk kültürü için Beş Faktör Modeli çerçevesinde geliştirilen ölçek, 6 temel kişilik özelliğini ölçmektedir. Duygusal tutarsızlık, dışa dönüklük, yeniliklere açıklık, uyumluluk, sorumluluk ve olumsuz değerlik faktörleri bulunmaktadır.

2.3. İşlem

Öncelikle, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan Etik kurul onayı alınmıştır. Ardından Demografik Bilgi Formu'nun ve diğer ölçeklerin bulunduğu bir basılı anket hazırlanmıştır. Anketi doldurmadan önce, katılımcılara, çalışmaya dair kısa bir bilgi içeren Bilgilendirilmiş Onam Formu imzalatılmıştır. Basılı anketin yanı sıra, internet ortamında da katılımcılara ulaşabilmek amacıyla özel bir portaldan faydalanılmıştır. Katılımcılara sosyal medya ve e-posta aracılığıyla ulaşılmıştır. Ayrıca, gerekli izinler alındıktan sonra, ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü'nden ders alan öğrenciler, ilave puan karşılığında çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılmışlardır. Anketin tamamlanması katılımcıların yaklaşık 30-45 dakikalarını almıştır.

2.4. İstatistiksel Analizler

Araştırmanın analizleri SPSS programı ile yapılmıştır. Analizlerden önce veriler kontrol edilmiştir. Çok sayıda soruyu yanıtlamamış olan katılımcılar çıkartılmıştır. Daha sonra demografik değişkenlerin, araştırmanın ölçekleri üzerindeki etkisini görebilmek amacıyla bir dizi varyans analizi uygulanmıştır. Ardından çalışmanın değişkenleri arasındaki ilişkileri değerlendirebilmek için iki set hiyerarşik çoklu regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Son olarak ise savunma biçimlerinin, nesne ilişkileri ve kişilik örüntüleri arasında aracı değişken olup olmadığını görmek için LISREL kullanılarak iki tane path analizi yapılmıştır.

BÖLÜM 3

BULGULAR ve TARTIŞMA

3.1. Çalışma Değişkenlerine Göre Demografik Değişkenlerin Seviyeleri Arasındaki Farklılıklar

Bu aşamada, cinsiyet ve yaşa göre, algılanan anne-baba tutumları, nesne ilişkileri, savunma mekanizmaları ve kişilik örüntülerindeki değişiklikler incelenecek ve tartışılacaktır.

3.1.1. Cinsiyete göre Çalışma Değişkenlerinin Seviyeleri Arasındaki Farklılıklar

Algılanan anne-baba tutumları değerlendirildiğinde, kadın katılımcıların, erkeklere oranla, annelerini daha reddedici ve her iki ebeveynini de daha korumacı olarak algıladıkları görülmüştür. Mahler'e göre (1981), ayrışma sürecinde, kız çocukları erkek çocuklarına göre daha fazla zorlanmaktadırlar. Bu durum, kızların ayrışma sürecinde annelerinin engel koyma eğilimiyle bağdaştırılmaktadır (Bergman, 1982). Bergman (1982), annelerin kız bebek sahibi olduklarında, kendilerine yeni ve daha iyi bir benlik oluşturabilmek için bunu bir şans olarak gördüklerini iddia etmektedir. Ancak, kızların bireyselleşme ihtiyacı, annelere hayal kırıklığı yaşatmakta ve bu nedenle ihtiyaçları doyrulmayan anneler, kızlarını daha fazla reddetme eğiliminde olmaktadırlar. Buna ek olarak, geleneksel Türk ailesinde, erkek çocuklar ailenin gelecekteki güvencesi olarak algılandığından, kız çocuklarına göre daha fazla değer görmektedirler (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1981). Dolayısıyla erkekler, kızlardan daha fazla değer ve kabul algısına sahip olabilmektedirler. Ayrıca yine Türk toplumunda kız çocukları ailelerin "namus meselesi" olduklarından anne ve babaları

tarafından aşırı korumaya maruz kalmaktadırlar (Kağıtçıbaşı, 1986). Nesne ilişkileri değerlendirildiğinde, sonuçlar kadın katılımcıların erkeklere göre daha fazla güvensiz bağlanmaya sahip olduklarını göstermiştir. Güvensiz bağlanma puanı yüksek olan kadınların, insan ilişkilerinde çok daha hassas oldukları söylenebilir. Ayrıca, kadınların erkeklerden daha genç yaşta sosyal yeterliliklerini geliştirdikleri bulunmuştur. Büyük olasılıkla, toplumun kadın ve erkeğe yönelik tutumlarının farklı olması nedeniyle böyle bir sonuç ortaya çıkmaktadır. Özellikle genç erkeklerin uygunsuz veya agresif davranışlarının "delikanlılık" gibi ifadelerle daha çok kabul gördüğünü söylemek mümkündür.

Savunma mekanizmalarının kullanımında cinsiyet farklılıkları yıllardır araştırılmaktadır (Cramer, 2006; Vaillant, 1993; Watson ve Sinha, 1998). Mevcut çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre, kadınlar, erkeklere göre nevrotik savunmaları daha fazla kullanmayı tercih etmektedirler. Furnham'a göre (2012), kadınlar içlerindeki öfkeyi göstermekte, erkeklere nazaran daha fazla zorluk yaşadıklarından, içsel duygularını ve düşüncelerini savunmalar aracılığıyla değiştirmeye daha fazla ihtiyaç duymaktadırlar. Ayrıca, Türk kültüründe de benzer bir şekilde, kadınlar kendilerini doğrudan ifade edememektedirler. Bu yüzden ilişkilerindeki sorunları çözmek ve ihtiyaçlarını ifade edebilmek için somatizasyon gibi nevrotik savunmalar kullanmaktadırlar.

Kişilik patolojilerinin gelişiminde cinsiyet rolleri incelendiğinde, erkek katılımcıların kadınlara göre antisosyal kişilik bozukluğu semptomlarına daha fazla sahip oldukları görülmüştür. Kadınlar neredeyse erkekler kadar öfkeye sahip olsalar da, bunu ifade edebilmek için erkeklerden daha farklı yollar tercih etmektedirler. Örneğin, erkekler çok daha fazla dürtüsel tepkiler gösterirlerken, kadınların çoğunlukla mazoşistik ya da manipülatif yollar seçtiği ve daha çok beyaz-yaka suçlar işledikleri gözlemlenmiştir (Forouzan ve Cooke, 2005). Kısacası, sosyal beklentiler nedeniyle kadınların, hissettikleri öfkeyi açıkça ifade etmekten kaçınarak daha dolaylı yollar tercih ettikleri, bu nedenle antisosyal semptomlara erkeklerden daha az sahip oldukları söylenebilir.

Kişilik özellikleri düşünüldüğünde erkek katılımcıların yeniliklere açıklık ve olumsuz değerlik skorlarının fazla olduğu görülürken, kadın katılımcıların uyumluluk özelliklerinin daha yüksek olduğu görülmüştür. Ancak bu farklılık, araştırmacılar tarafından içerik bazında değerlendirilmektedir. Yani, örneğin erkekler yeni fikirlere daha fazla açıkken, kadınların duygusal yaşantılara daha açık olduğu söylenebilir (Costa ve ark., 2001). Olumsuz değerlik faktörünün ise madde analizi yapıldığında, içeriğin erkekler için daha uygun olduğu görülmüş, toplumsal kabulü önemseyen kadınların dolayısıyla düşük puanlar aldığı düşünülmüştür (Gürcan, 2015). Son olarak, kadınların evrimsel ve toplumsal rollerinin, onlar üzerindeki uyumluluk beklentisini arttırdığı söylenebilir. Çocuk doğurmak, bakım vermek ve dış etmenlerden korumak gibi duyarlılık ve uyumluluk gerektiren davranışları gösterebilmesi için kadının "uyumluluk" özelliğini geliştirmesi gerekmiş olabilir.

3.1.2. Yaşa göre Çalışma Değişkenlerinin Seviyeleri Arasındaki Farklılıklar

Algılanan anne-baba tutumları değerlendirildiğinde, ileri yaş dönemindeki katılımcıların diğer yaş dönemlerindeki katılımcılara göre annelerini daha reddedici ve her iki ebeveynini de duygusal olarak daha uzak tanımladıkları görülmüştür. Bunun nedeni, geçtiğimiz yüzyılın ortalarına kadar, Türk anne-babaların çocuklarına sevgi göstermelerinin toplumsal olarak kabul görmemesi olabilir. Çocuğa gösterilen sevgi ve kabulün, çocuğu şımartacağına yönelik inanç, çocukların ihtiyaç duydukları duygusal bağı kurmalarını büyük olasılıkla engellemiştir.

Nesne ilişkileri değerlendirildiğinde, yabancılaşma, güvensiz bağlanma, benmerkezcilik ve sosyal yetersizlik genç insanlarda daha sık görülmüştür. Bell (2003), bireylerin olgunluk seviyesinin yaşla doğru orantılı olduğunu iddia etmiş, ancak yaptığı çalışmalarda bunu ispat edememiştir (Bell, 2003; Bell ve Billington,1986). Bu çalışma, Bell'in hipotezini destekler nitelikte sonuçlar ortaya koymuştur. Yaş ilerledikçe olgunluk seviyesinin artmasının nedeni,

insanların zamanla toplum içinde farklı rollere sahip olması olabilir. Sadece bir anne-babanın evladı olmaktan başka, arkadaş, eş/sevgili, öğrenci, idareci, çalışan, anne-baba olmak gibi yeni roller kazanırlar. Ayrıca, zamanla kazanılan öz-güven sayesinde, istenmeyen durumlardan bireyin kendisini koruyabileceğine dair inancı arttığından, ilişkilerinde daha esnek olabilmektedirler.

Çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre, nesne ilişkilerinde olduğu gibi, yaş ilerledikçe kullanılan savunma mekanizmaları da gelişmektedir. Yaşla birlikte bireylerin kendi dürtülerini kontrol etmek, kendi sınırlarını belirleyebilmek ve bir sorun karşısında uygun baş etme yöntemleri bulmak konusunda becerileri artmaktadır (Segal ve ark., 2007).

Çalışmanın analizleri gösteriyor ki kişilik bozukluklarının semptomları da yaş ilerledikçe azalmaktadır. İnsanların yaşlandıkça bir durum karşısında daha esnek ve dürtülerini kontrol etmekte çok daha başarılı oldukları daha önce de belirtilmişti. Buna ek olarak, B Kümesi kişilik bozuklukları semptomlarına sahip bireylerin, kendilerine zarar verecek riskli davranışlarının olduğu görülmektedir. Bu nedenle, bu gruptaki genç ölümlerin veya sakatlanmaların normal popülasyondan fazla olması, ileriki yaş verilerine sağlıklı bir şekilde ulaşılmasını engellemektedir (Casey ve Schrodt, 1989). Ayrıca yaşın ilerlemesiyle, genç yaşta sergiledikleri dürtüsel davranışlara bu kişilerin enerjileri yetmediğinden davranış örüntülerinde farklılaşma ortaya çıkmaktadır (Rosowsky ve Gurian, 1991).

Çalışmanın sonuçlarına göre, yaş ilerledikçe insanların sorumluluk, dışa dönüklük ve uyumluluk özellikleri artarken, duygusal tutarsızlık ve olumsuz değerlik özellikleri azalmaktadır. İnsanların, kişilik özellikleri, genetik yapılarına, yaşadıkları çevreye, gözlemlerine ve diğer insanların kendisine yönelik tutumlarına bağlı olarak değişebilmektedir (Caspi ve Roberts, 2001). Sorumluluk, dışa dönüklük, uyumluluk, duygusal tutarlılık ve olumlu değerlik özellikleri arttıkça kişi günlük hayatında çok daha rahat bir hayata

ulaşabilmektedir. Psikolojik iyilik hali ve başarı da bu sayede artış göstermektedir. Ayrıca, yaş ilerledikçe alınan sorumluluklar artmaktadır. Bu nedenle ilişkileri daha öngörülebilir yaşayabilmek için de zamanla insanlar kişilik özelliklerini değiştirebilmektedirler.

3.2. Hiyerarşik Regresyon Analizleri

Bu çalışmada algılanan anne-baba tutumları ve nesne ilişkileri bağımsız değişkenleri için iki set hiyerarşik regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Her bir setin iki alt seti bulunmaktadır. İlk alt sette savunma mekanizmaları bağımlı değişkenken, ikinci alt sette kişilik örüntüleri bağımlı değişkendir.

3.2.1. Savunma Mekanizmaları ve Kişilik Örüntüleriyle İlişkili Sonuçlar _ Algılanan Anne-Baba Tutumları

3.2.1.1. Savunma Mekanizmalarıyla İlişkili Sonuçlar

Analiz sonuçlarına göre, genç katılımcılardan annesini reddedici, babasını ise aşırı korumacı ve duygusal açıdan uzak olarak ifade edenler, ilkel savunmaları daha fazla kullanmaktadırlar. Cramer (2006), bebeklerin, kendilerini ayrılma kaygısından korumak için ilkel savunmalardan faydalandıklarını belirtmektedir. Bu bilgi ışığında, annenin reddediciliği ve babanın duygusal soğukluğunun, çocuğun ayrılma kaygısını daha da fazla tetiklediği söylenebilir. Ayrıca babanın aşırı korumacılığı büyük olasılıkla engellenmişlik hislerini tetiklemekte ve bu nedenle genç bireyler kendilerini bu istenmeyen duygudan kurtarabilmek için ilkel savunmaları kullanmayı devam etmektedirler.

Genç kadın katılımcılardan annesini duygusal açıdan sıcak ve aşırı korumacı olarak tanımlayanların nevrotik savunmaları daha fazla kullandıkları görülmüştür. Türk toplumunda anne, şefkatli, sıcak ve cana yakın, ancak aynı zamanda kaygılı ve telaşlı yapısıyla bilinmektedir. Bu nedenle çoğu zaman,

annenin aşırı korumacılığı onun sevgisinin işareti olarak kabul görmektedir. Bu sevgi hissini devam ettirebilmek için gençlerin güçlü bir figürün korumasına yönelik ihtiyaçlarını devam ettirdikleri düşünülebilir.
Son olarak katılımcılardan annesinin duygusal açıdan sıcak olduğunu belirtenlerin gelişmiş savunma mekanizmaları kullandıkları görülmektedir. Annenin sıcaklığı ve sevgisinin, kabul hissini arttırdığı, dolayısıyla bireylerin benlik değerlerinin ve öz-güvenlerinin arttırdığı düşünülmektedir. Sonuç olarak yetişkinlikte, yeni bir durumla karşılaştıklarında daha kolay baş edebilecek güce sahip oldukları söylenebilir.

3.2.1.2. Kişilik Örüntüleriyle İlişkili Sonuçlar

Genç erkek katılımcılardan annesini aşırı korumacı, babasını reddedici olarak tanımlayanlardan, ilkel savunmaları fazla, nevrotik savunmaları ise az kullananların A Kümesi kişilik semptomlarına daha fazla sahip olduğu görülmüştür. Bu durumda, aşırı korumacı annelerin çocuklarına dışarıdaki insanların art niyetlerine dair sürekli bir mesaj verdikleri düşünülmektedir. Başka insanlardan zarar gelebileceği düşüncesi ise, babaların reddedici tutumlarıyla daha da pekişmektedir. Bir diğer deyişle, bu kişiler, babalarından bile zarar gördükleri bir dünyada, insanlardan kendilerini koruyabilmek için uzak durmayı tercih etmektedirler. Bu nedenle insan ilişkilerindeki kaygıdan beslenen nevrotik savunmaları kullanmayı tercih etmemektedirler.

Genç katılımcılardan annesini aşırı korumacı ve babasını reddedici olarak tanımlayanlardan, ilkel savunmaları fazla, gelişmiş savunmaları az kullananların B Kümesi kişilik semptomları gösterdiği görülmüş. Bu semptomlara sahip kişiler, kendilerini koruma içgüdüsüyle, aşırı korumacı anneleriyle reddedici babalarını bölünme mekanizması kullanarak birbirinden ayrıştırmış olabilirler. Annelerinin aşırı korumacılığı nedeniyle öz-güvenlerini güçlendiremediklerinden, annelerinden alacakları kaynaklara sürekli ihtiyaç duymaktadırlar. İhtiyaçlarını giderebilmek için ise annelerini içselleştirmeye

başlarlar. Bu arada, babalarının reddediciliği, bu kişilerdeki kaygıyı ve öfkeyi arttırabilir. Benlik değerlerini korumak için, babalarının kendilerinde uyandırdığı duyguları inkar ederken, babalarının onlara yönelik davranışlarını, yetişkinlikte başkalarına yansıtarak içlerindeki kötüyü atmaya çalışabilirler. Böylece fantezi dünyasındaki yaşamlarına devam ederler.

Genç katılımcılardan anne-babasını aşırı koruyucu ve babasını duygusal açıdan soğuk bulanların, ilkel ve nevrotik savunmaları fazla, gelişmiş savunmaları az kullananların C kümesi kişilik semptomlarına daha fazla sahip oldukları görülmüştür. Aşırı korunma, kişide engellenmişlik duygularını arttırabilir. Ancak, çocuk eğer anne-babasının bu tutumlarını kabul etmezse, babasının duygusal uzaklığı nedeniyle kabul görmeyeceğini düşünebilir ve onları kaybetmekten korkabilir. Bu nedenle, çocuk, anne-babasına yönelik kabul görmeyecek olumsuz bir duyguya sahip olduğunda, kendisini bu duygusundan dolayı suçlu hissederek duygularını bastırmaya ve onları yok etmeye çalışır. Kendi kötülüğüne inanmış olan kişi, sosyal hayatında kabul görmeyeceği korkusu ve aşırı bir utangaçlıkla yaşamaya başlar.

Daha önce de belirtildiği üzere, Beş Faktör Modeli bu çalışmada tutarlılık ve esneklik üst faktörleriyle değerlendirilmiştir. İleri yaş dönemindeki katılımcılardan anne-babasını duygusal açıdan sıcak ve annesini diğerlerine göre daha az reddedici olarak tarif edenlerden, ilkel savunmaları az, gelişmiş ve nevrotik savunmaları fazla kullananların sosyal hayatla daha uyumlu olduğu görülmüştür. Ebeveynlerin kabullenici ve duygusal açıdan yakın olmaları, büyük olasılıkla çocuklar için güvenli bir alan oluşturmakta ve savunmalarını güçlendirmek için elverişli bir ortam sunmaktadır. Bu güvende olma ve kabul görme hissini devam ettirebilmek için de bu kişiler yetişkinliklerinde toplumun beklentilerine uyum sağlamayı tercih etmektedirler denebilir.

İleri yaş dönemindeki katılımcılardan anne-babasını duygusal açıdan sıcak ve babasını diğerlerine göre daha az korumacı olarak tarif edenlerden, ilkel

savunmaları az, gelişmiş savunmaları fazla kullananların sosyal hayat içinde bireyselliklerini daha fazla ortaya koydukları ve yeniliklere daha açık oldukları görülmüştür (esneklik). Anne-babanın kabulü ve sevgisi ve kısmi düzeydeki korumacılığı sayesinde kişi kendi otonomisini geliştirmeyi başarabilmektedir.

3.2.2. Savunma Mekanizmaları ve Kişilik Örüntüleriyle İlişkili Sonuçlar _ Nesne İlişkileri

3.2.2.1. Savunma Mekanizmalarıyla İlişkili Sonuçlar

Genç katılımcılardan güvensiz bağlanma ve sosyal yetersizlik rapor edenlerin, ilkel savunmaları kullanmaya daha çok meyilli oldukları görülürken, daha az yabancılaşma ve güvensiz bağlanma rapor edenlerin daha çok gelişmiş savunmaları kullandıkları görülmüştür. Bu farklılığa rağmen, benmerkezcilik her iki savunma biçimi için de yüksek değerlerde kendisini göstermektedir. Daha önce de bahsedildiği üzere psikolojik olgunlaşma beraberinde daha işlevsel nesne ilişkilerini ve savunma mekanizmalarını getirmektedir. Eğer anne, çocuğunun duygusal ihtiyaçlarını etkili bir şekilde karşılamazsa, çocuğun benlik gelişimi zarar görür ve durur. Benmerkezcilik ise bireyin benlik değerini sağlıklı bir şekilde koruması için ihtiyaç duyduğu bir yapı olmasına karşın, sağlıksız bir benmerkezcilik, çocuğu ilkel seviyede tutabilir.

Genç kadın katılımcılardan güvensiz bağlanma ve benmerkezciliği yüksek olan ancak yabancılaşması az olanların, nevrotik savunmalardan sıklıkla faydalandığı görülmüştür. Güvensiz bağlanması olan bireylerin başkaları tarafından kabul görmeye yönelik takıntıları olabilmektedir. Bu nedenle, kendi ihtiyaçlarını doyurabilmeye ve kaygılarını azaltmaya o kadar odaklıdırlar ki, bu durum onları sağlıksız bir benmerkezciliğe götürmektedir.

3.2.1.2. Kişilik Örüntüleriyle İlişkili Sonuçlar

Genç erkek katılımcılardan benmerkezciliği ve yabancılaşması fazla olanların, ilkel ya da gelişmiş savunmaları sıklıkla kullanırken, nevrotik savunmaları kullanmadıklarında A Kümesi kişilik semptomlarına daha fazla sahip oldukları görülmüştür. Yabancılaşma ile A Kümesi semptomları arasındaki direk ilişki düşünüldüğünde bu durum tesadüf değildir. Ayrıca bu kişiler yalnız kalmaya yönelik herhangi bir kaygı yaşamadıklarından nevrotik savunmaları da kullanmayı tercih etmezler. Ancak, sosyal hayattan izole olabilmek için kimisi ilkel savunmalardan faydalanırken, kimisi duygularını ve düşüncelerini daha rasyonel bir şekilde bastırabileceği gelişmiş mekanizmaları kullanabilmektedir.

Genç katılımcılardan güvensiz bağlanma, yabancılaşma ve benmerkezciliği baskın olanların ilkel savunmalardan fazlasıyla faydalandıkları durumda, B Kümesi kişilik semptomları geliştirdiği görülmüştür. Özellikle narsisistik ve borderline semptomlara sahip kişilerin erken dönem çocukluk dönemlerinde hem duygusal hem de fiziksel olarak anne babaları tarafından çok daha fazla istismara uğradıkları bilinmektedir (Masterson, 1976; 1993). Gerçekte başkalarıyla yakın ilişkiler kurmaya ihtiyaç duysalar da, sevdikleri kişiler tarafından reddedilme veya terkedilme kaygıları nedeniyle, sanki onlara ihtiyaçları yokmuş gibi davranarak, kendilerini ilişkilerden uzak tutmaya çalışmaktadırlar. Farklı bir deyişle, bir ilişkinin varlığı bu bireylerde terkedilme kaygılarını uyandırdığından, çok ihtiyaç duymalarına rağmen ilişkilerden uzak durmaya çalışmaktadırlar.

Genç katılımcılardan, güvensiz bağlanma, benmerkezcilik ve sosyal yetersizlikleri baskın olanların, ilkel ve nevrotic savunmalardan faydalanırken, gelişmiş savunmaları az kullanmaları durumunda C Kümesi kişilik semptomları geliştirdiği görülmüştür. İlişkilerdeki belirsizlik bu kişiler üzerinde ciddi bir kaygı uyandırmaktadır. Tutarlı ve yakın ilişkilere sahip olmak isteseler de bu

belirsizlikten kaynaklanan kaygıdan kendilerini koruyabilmek için ilişkilerde kaçınıcı bir tutum sergilemektedirler.

İleri yaşlardaki katılımcılardan güvensiz bağlanma ve yabancılaşma skorları düşük olanların, gelişmiş ve nevtorik savunmalardan faydalanmaları durumunda toplumsal normlara uyumluğun, tutarlılığın, arttığı görülmüştür. Son olarak, benmerkezciliğin yükselirken diğer nesne ilişkileri değişkenlerinin azaldığı ileri yaşlardaki katılımcıların gelişmiş savunmaları daha fazla kullandıkları durumda, toplumsal normlara uyumun azalarak esnekliğin arttığı görülmüştür.

Sonuç olarak bu çalışma, klinik alanda ciddi bir engel olan kişilik örüntülerini anlama amaçlı yürütülmüştür. Çalışmanın sonuçları terapistlere, tedavilerini planlama sürecinde ışık tutacak bilgilere sahiptir. Ayrıca, anne-babalara, çocuklara yönelik tutumlarının onlar üzerindeki etkisini gösterebilecek iyi bir kaynak niteliği taşımaktadır.

APPENDIX J: CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information

Surname, Name: Gürol Işık, İncila
Nationality: Turkey (TC)
Date and Place of Birth: 6 September 1986, Tavşanlı
Marital Status: Married
Phone: 05363345643
Email: incila.gurol@yahoo.com

Education

2009 – 2016	Ph.D., after Bachelor's Degree in Clinical Psychology, Middle East Technical University, Ankara
2004 – 2009	B.S., in Department of Psychology, Middle East Technical University, Ankara

Internships & Work Experiences

12/2012 – Present	Olgu Psychological Counseling Center / Clinical Psychologists – Psychotherapist
01/2015 – 03/2016	Research Assistant in a TUBİTAK project
09/2011 – 9/2015	Middle East Technical University, Ayna Clinical Psychology Unit / Clinical Psychologists and Supervisor
05/2010 – 09/2010	TEİAŞ Social Facilities Kindergarten Psychologist
02/2011 – 05/2011	Etlik İhtisas Education and Research Hospital / Psychiatry Department / Psychologist Intern
09.2010 – 01.2011	Hacettepe University Medical School Psychiatry Department / Psychologist Intern
02.2010 – 05.2010	GATA Child Psychiatry Department / Psychologist Intern

06.2008 – 07.2008	Gazi University Medical School Psychiatry Department / Psychologist Intern
01.2008 – 02.2008	Ali Osman Sonmez Oncology Hospital / Psychologist Intern
01.2007 – 02.2007	Ali Osman Sönmez Nursing Home / Psychologist Intern

Projects

10/2014 - Present	Parent Effectiveness Training / Trainer
02/2013 - Present	Editorial board membership and reviewer of AYNA Clinical Psychology Journal
02/2009 – 06/2009	Field practice in Associations of Schizophrenia Patients
02/2009 – 06/2009	Field Practice with children with specific learning disability in Ankara University Medical School Child Psychiatry Department
09/2008 – 06/2009	Field Practice with children with autism in Ankara Autistic Individuals Associations

Publication & Seminars

Gurol, I. (2013). Borderline kişilik örüntüsünde bölünme mekanizması ve psikoterapi süreci vaka örneği. *Ayna Clinical Psychology Journal, 1*(1), 1-12.

Bozo. Ö., Gürol, İ., Özbağrıaçık, P. & Özekin, F.(2007). The Relationship Between Religiosity and Death Anxiety: A Cross Sectional Study, 10th European Congress of Psychology.

Gürol Işık, İ. (2015). Benim Balonlarım Var, Bilkent University

Gürol Işık, İ. (2014). En Çok Bağıran mı Sahiden İşitilir?, Olgu Psychological Counseling Center.

Gürol, İ. (2013). Sınavdan Öte, Şahinkaya College

APPENDIX K: TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü [ ]

Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü [X]

Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü [ ]

Enformatik Enstitüsü [ ]

Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü [ ]

YAZARIN

Soyadı : Gürol Işık
Adı : İncila
Bölümü : Psikoloji

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : Object Relations, Perceived Parental Rearing Styles, and Defense Mechanisms in Relation to Personality Traits and Symptoms of Personality Disorders

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans [ ] Doktora [X]

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. [ ]
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir. [ ]
3. Tezimden bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz. [X]

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: