

**YEDITEPE UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

**THE MEDIATING ROLE OF SELF-RELATED MENTALIZATION IN
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTIFICATION AND
SEPARATION-INDIVIDUATION**

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THE MEDIATING ROLE OF SELF-BASED MENTALIZATION
IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTIFICATION AND SEPARATION
INDIVIDUATION

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ABSTRACT

THE MEDIATING ROLE OF SELF-RELATED MENTALIZATION IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTIFICATION AND SEPARATION- INDIVIDUATION

This study investigates the mediating role of self-mentalization in the relationship between parentification and separation-individuation. Furthermore, another aim of this study is to explore the psychometric properties of the Filial Responsibility Scale (Evlât Sorumluluđu Ölçeđi) for adapting it to the Turkish language. The sample consisted of 282 participants whose ages ranged from 18 to 78 years ($Mean=40.7$, $SD= 14.6$, 72% female, 28% male). Demographic information form, Filial Responsibility Scale, Parentification Inventory, Mentalization Scale, and Separation Individuation Inventory were filled respectively. In the first part of the study, factor analysis revealed a three-factor structure of the 22-item Filial Responsibility Scale (Evlât Sorumluluđu Ölçeđi) that assesses instrumental parentification, emotional parentification, and perceived fairness of parentification. Psychometric properties including internal reliability, revealed that the Turkish version of the scale has sufficient psychometric properties for further use in Turkish studies. In the second part of the study, analyses of correlation and mediation indicated that self-mentalization has been shown to have a partial mediating role in the relationship between all subscales of parentification that assesses parent-focused parentification, sibling-focused parentification, perceived benefits of parentification, emotional parentification, instrumental parentification and perceived fairness of parentification, and total scores of separation-individuation. The results and further implications were discussed in the light of literature.

Keywords: Parentification, Separation individuation, Mentalization

ÖZET

EBEVEYNLEŞME VE AYRILMA BİREYLEŞME İLİŞKİSİNDE KENDİLİK TEMELLİ ZİHİNSELLEŞTİRMEİN ARACI ROLÜ

Bu çalışma ebeveynleşme ve ayrılma bireyleşme arasındaki ilişkide kendilik temelli zihinselleştirmenin aracılık rolünü araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışmanın diğer amacı, duygusal ebeveynleşme, araçsal ebeveynleşme ve algılanan adaletsizlik boyutlarını ölçen Evlat Sorumluluğu Ölçeği'nin Türkçeye adaptasyon çalışmasını gerçekleştirmek ve Türkçe alan yazınına katkı sağlamaktır. Çalışmanın örneklemini 18 ve 78 yaş aralığındaki 282 katılımcıdan oluşmaktadır. ($Ort.=40.7$, $SS=14.6$, %72 kadın, %28 erkek). Değişkenleri ölçmek için sırasıyla Demografik Bilgi Formu, Evlat Sorumluluğu Ölçeği, Ebeveynleşme Envanteri, Zihinselleştirme Ölçeği ve Ayrılma-Bireyleşme Envanteri kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın ilk kısmında, faktör analiz bulguları 22 soruluk Evlat Sorumluluğu Ölçeği'nin orijinal çalışmaya benzer şekilde üç boyutlu yapısının korunduğunu göstermiştir. ESÖ'nün Türkçe adaptasyon çalışması, Türkçe versiyonun psikometrik özelliklerinin Türkçe dilinde yapılacak çalışmalarda kullanılabileceğini göstermiştir. Çalışmanın ikinci kısmında, ölçeklerin alt boyutları arasında yapılan korelasyon analizleri sonucu, ebeveyne yönelik ebeveynleşmenin duygusal ebeveynleşmeyle ($r=.86$), kardeşe yönelik ebeveynleşmenin ise araçsal ebeveynleşmeyle ilişkisinin ($r=.72$), en yüksek ölçekler arası ilişkilere sahip oldukları bulunmuştur. Ebeveynleşme Envanteri ve Evlat Sorumluluğu Ölçeği ile ölçülen ebeveynleşmenin tüm alt boyutları ebeveyne yönelik ebeveynleşme, kardeşe yönelik ebeveynleşme, algılanan yarar, duygusal ebeveynleşme, araçsal ebeveynleşme, algılanan adaletsizlik boyutları için yapılmış altı aracılık rolü analizi, hipotezleri doğrular şekilde kendiliğe yönelik zihinselleştirmenin ebeveynleşme ve ayrılma bireyleşme ilişkisinde kısmi aracılık rolü olduğunu göstermiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları literatür ışığında tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Ebeveynleşme, Ayrılma bireyleşme, Zihinselleştirme

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

SES	Socioeconomic status
MentS	Mentalization Scale
MentS-S	Self-Mentalization
MentS-O	Other-Mentalization
MentS-M	Motivation to Mentalization
PI	Parentification Inventory
PFP	Parent-Focused Parentification
SFP	Sibling-Focused Parentification
PBP	Perceived Benefits
FRS	Filial Responsibility Scale
EP	Emotional Parentification
IP	Instrumental Parentification
PF	Perceived Fairness
SII	Separation-Individuation Inventory

“But I will add, however, that in any idea worth its salt, or if it bears the stamp of novelty, or even if it’s just the considered end product of a contemplative mind, there’ll always be something about it that will never be communicable to other people, were you to write volumes or spend thirty-five years explaining it; something will always refuse to leave your brain and will stay put there forever more. You may easily die and take the most important part of your idea with you to your grave without ever having passed it on to anyone else”

(Dostoyevsky, 1869, p. 328)

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Family is the first system that forms the basis of relational experiences carried through the life cycle. Family theories remarked that subsystems underlying the family system have differing role provisions of responsibilities, reversing roles may result in parentification. distributions and responsibilities that are delineated clearly for the healthy functioning of all systems. These role distributions are transmitted through interactive experiences within family across generations that form the basis of rules on how to form relationships with self and others. These interactions lay the groundwork for the capacity to conceive of the minds of self and others, which can be defined as mentalization or reflective functioning (Fonagy & Luyten, 2002). The ability to attribute mental states to self and other's minds constituting emotions, desires, and thoughts facilitates forming relationships and our navigation in social realms. When role assignments in the family are not distributed insofar as each subsystem has fair Parentification refers to children's taking on parental roles regarding emotional or instrumental tasks in order to fulfill parental expectations at the expense of their developmental needs (Chase, 1999). In this context, not only deprivation of parental responsiveness but also the expectancy of caretaking behavior may limit their capacity for self-reflection. As every individual passes through the phases of separation from their families, the parental roles assigned to children may undermine the necessary development of an individuated and authentic identity which is formed through reflecting on representations about self and others (Mahler et al., 1975).

Hence, this study aims to investigate the role of self-mentalization in the relationship between parentification and separation-individuation. Another aim of this study is the adaptation of the Filial Responsibility Scale which measures emotional parentification, instrumental parentification, and perceived fairness, into the Turkish language. In this chapter, the constructs of parentification, mentalization, and separation-individuation have been elaborated on in the light of theoretical underpinnings and empirical findings.

1.1. Parentification

Parentification has been defined as “boundary dissolution” (Kerig, 2005), “role reversal” (Macfie et al., 2005), “little parents” (Byng-Hall, 2008), “young carers” (Aldridge & Becker, 1993), adultification (Burton, 2007). Nancy Chase (1999) claimed that *‘parentification entails a functional and/or emotional role reversal in which the child sacrifices his or her own need for attention, comfort, and guidance to accommodate and care for logistical or emotional needs of a parent’* (p. 5). On the unhealthy part of the continuum of responsiveness, parents abdicate their parental responsibilities and do not provide the essential parental structure in which they recognize children’s burden, and protect the child from carrying excessive load. Through explicitly or implicitly demanding unrealistic parental care from their children, children learn that parental needs should be prioritized. Consequently, the demands and expectations deplete children’s energy and time for pursuing their own developmentally fundamental activities such as exploration of friendships and childhood activities. The resignation of their rightful status of being a child results in the missing crucial opportunities for fulfilling their needs, pleasures, challenges, and emerging developmental capabilities. In Chase’s (1999) words, *“Children thus learn first to give up their childhood, and then, with a cycle of abdicating needs and responsibilities well grooved, they become candidates for later abdicating adult responsibilities, including those involved in raising children.”*

Although the expectations from parents exceed the capability and developmental maturity of the child, children may intentionally choose to provide for the needs of parents or caregivers may assign these roles to the children, (Aldridge, 2006, Mechling, 2011). In both ways, the child recognizes that a sense of closeness eliminates loss and anxiety by providing care and fulfilling the needs that are normally provided by the parents for the child. (Barnett & Parker, 1998). However, it may be impossible for a child to heal the ill or depressed parent, as the never-ending task of healing may evoke feelings of guilt and shame that are carried through patterns of caretaking behavior towards others. On the other hand, the sense of competency and pride in accomplishing tasks may convey that the child would be honored on the condition that the child must prove his or her efficiency in demanded tasks. Consequently, the child acknowledges these implications as important and begins to see that the parental needs outweigh the importance of other needs including his or her own needs. Consequently, children prioritize parental needs whereby reducing distress becomes more important than

being engaged in developmentally crucial activities and achievements that normally shape childhood such as exploring, learning, and playing. As a result, the child would have difficulties in creating an individuated identity that requires experiences such as forming secure relationships with parents, engaging in social interactions with peers, and learning new abilities (Boszormenyi-Nagy & Spark, 1973; Bowlby, 1969; Hooper, 2007a, 2007b).

It is fundamental to bear in mind that responsiveness to parental needs and demands is not an inherently problematic aspect. The role reversal and occasional parentification is a healthy process to the extent that the efforts are recognized and appreciated by the parents. Essentially, the children's competency and sense of responsibility are encouraged by a certain amount of parentification which can also contribute to the family system and emerging capabilities of sensitivity and reciprocity in the context of interpersonal relationships. (Hooper, 2007a). When children's efforts are reciprocated by necessary support and recognition, the hierarchy in the family is still intact and the children are not left to themselves. However, the problem arises when parents take their children's efforts for granted, avoid their needs, and renounce their parental responsibilities (Lutman, 2019). In this scenario, the reason why children are tied to the responsibility of giving support stems from the apprehension that parents refrain from parental responsiveness rather than their conscious choice. As a result, their desire to get the appropriate parental care is manifested as fulfilling the emotional needs of family members.

1.1.1. Family Dynamics of Parentification

Minuchin and his friends (1967) used the term *parental child* to demonstrate the violation of subsystem boundaries based on the structural family theory. Structural family theory postulates that the family functions through repeated interactions that establish when, how, and to whom one relates (Minuchin, 1974). The structural theory conceptualizes the family as a system embedded in a larger psychosocial context. The subsystems in the family are differentiated in terms of their rules, tasks, boundaries, power, and hierarchy. In other words, members of each subsystem have specific roles that allow individual freedom to develop interpersonal skills that are assigned to each subsystem without the interference of other subsystems.

Boundaries are on a continuum of rigid boundaries on one end to diffuse boundaries on the other end. In a properly functioning family, clear boundaries open up a space for communication and support that allows cohesiveness by maintaining a structure. Moreover, boundaries protect the family from being disorganized and overwhelmed by necessary changes during development and growth, either coming from developmental changes within subsystems or external demands to adjust the social environment (Vetere, 2001). For example, enmeshed families with diffuse boundaries may insist on preserving familiar interactions when threatened by an individual's autonomy during adolescence. On the other hand, rigid boundaries might impede the necessary guidance and support needed by parents, resulting in disengagement. In these families, the members become extremely self-sufficient and might seek support outside the family.

Minuchin et al. (1967) observed that the parental child can be part of the parental subsystem by carrying parental responsibilities as a necessary condition in single-parent, large families of lower economic classes. Their emphasis was on functional tasks including meal preparation, sibling care, and worry about finances concerning the survival and welfare of the family. By extending the scope of the role reversal to a larger social and economic context, they maintained that the child might gain a sense of responsibility and autonomy if the division of responsibilities is well-defined. Hence, the efforts of the children are recognized and supported by parental figures who have power and authority. Parental roles do not necessarily lead to deteriorating effects unless the parents abdicate their roles and the demand from the family exceeds the capacity of the child. From the structural family theory perspective, parentification in the context of diffused generational boundaries has implications for the structural rearrangement of power and authority in the subsystems (Minuchin, 1974).

Parentification was coined as a term by Boszormenyi-Nagy and Spark (1973). Unlike Minuchin and his friends who emphasized functional roles, Boszormenyi-Nagy and Spark (1973) rest their perspective on the covert, unconscious, and invisible relational patterns of relationships. Their contextual theory underscores the importance of ethical-existential aspects of relationships. They propose that ledgers of responsibility and obligation are carried through multiple generations. Thus, relationships aim to maintain the balance of these ledgers. Yet, it is not viable to keep the balance of the ledger, as children lack the capability of reciprocating the care that parents can provide them. They propose that to balance the

ledger and pay the debt that children owe to their parents, each generation gives the support and unrequited nurturance that their parents give them to their offspring. However, when parental support is deficient and parents grow up without their developmental needs met, these needs become “accounts due” which are projected onto their children who are consciously or unconsciously expected to provide for the debts their previous generation created. Hence, parentification in Boszormenyi-Nagy and Spark’s perspective is conceptualized in an intergenerational context in which compensation of loss shapes the relational dynamics across generations. The relational dynamics of parentification lie in the nonverbal and unconscious loyalty to the internalized expectations and obligations that form the structure of the family relationships, which resembles the superego function of Freud (1923). Parallel to that claim, Boszormenyi-Nagy (1962) described the “counter-autonomous superego” as moral inhibition towards any spontaneous and autonomous reactions that would risk the relational cohesion of the family.

According to Boszormenyi-Nagy and Spark’s (1973) perspective, parentification is not necessarily pathological, as it carries a regressive core of fulfillment of infantile wishes that exist in all kinds of intimate relationships. Therefore, they intended to emphasize the prominence of emotional gratifications in close relationships without pathologizing this phenomenon. They suggest that emotional relationships become central to the extent that possessive and infantile needs of being united and fear of loss are in play in the relational stage. Their description of parentification is “*by definition, parentification implies the subjective distortion of a relationship as if one's partner or even children were his parent.*” (p. 151). By attributing parental roles to the children, they project what they internalized in the family of origin, hence, recreating the parent-child relationship in a reverse form in which children are expected to fulfill what was lacked in the previous generation. To some extent, internalizing an image of a responsible parental role by temporary parentification is an important step towards emotional growth by learning to be responsible and care for the other (Chase, 1999). It can also alleviate parental distress and labor. However, when this role is imposed upon the child with obligation, either in overt or covert form, the balance of give and take and reciprocity are not ensured, one-sided expectation of fulfilling parental role enlists the children to take on the parental role and never have a chance to be a child.

Moreover, Boszormenyi-Nagy and Spark (1973) described different overt and covert role assignments that children perform. The children can undertake caregiving roles either

overtly by manifesting it such as caring for siblings and doing housework, or covertly by holding their parents' marriages together, cheering up the parents, and mediating conflicts. They also depicted the sacrificial role, also known as the scapegoat role in which the child is assigned to the delinquent or innocent victim role. By being the self-sacrificing innocent victim, the child aims for the cohesion of the family. In a similar vein, the rebellious and delinquent acts of a child can be seen as an expression of the sacrificial role of being ill by attracting attention and maintaining the relatedness of the family. In contrast, neutral roles are more silent and well-functioning on the surface compared to manifest caretaking and scapegoat roles. For example, the child who is assigned to well sibling role may unconsciously know that the parents cannot support them, thus keeping all the anxiety, fear, and anger to themselves. They hide or even disown unwanted feelings that are recognized by their parents, to create an image of a beneficial and well-functioning member of the family who keeps the family chaos organized. They may satisfy parental expectations by being successful at school or being a mediocre student. As a result, their false self-organization impedes the expression of their true self which carries feelings of emptiness and inadequacy. Hence, their premature roles may deprive them of age-appropriate experiences as they cannot exist in any realm as a subject on their own, they are "neither a 'giver' nor a 'receiver'" (Boszormenyi-Nagy and Spark, 1973, p. 158). Thus, their subjective experience of self is jeopardized, following their claim that "*Every subjective experience implies an underlying self-other or symbolically interpersonal context.*" (Boszormenyi-Nagy & Spark, 1973, p.9),

From the family systems theory perspective, Bowen (1978) delineated family relationships by defining family as "an undifferentiated family ego mass". The differentiation of self is central to his theory, as the degree of differentiation is pertinent to what extent the family as a unit and its members function in a balanced manner. In the suboptimal range, the undifferentiation results in symbiotic relationships in which the experience of self is lost by not distinguishing the self and other. In emotionally fused and undifferentiated relationships, the anxiety raised by the conflict of the dyadic unit cannot be contained. Thus, Bowen (1978) describes three ways to control the anxiety produced by the lack of differentiation; marital conflict between the spouses, dysfunction of a spouse while over-functioning of the other, and transferring the problem to the children. Bowen defines the family projection as the basic process by which parental problems, varying degrees of maturity, and immaturity are projected onto children who operate to attenuate the tension and burden of their parents' fused anxieties. Similar to a table that will fall with two legs, the third leg of the family,

generally the child, is chosen to carry the stress and conflict. Thus, the innately sensitive child serves the role of soothing the family conflict and gratifying the parental needs of undifferentiated and immature parental figures who cannot function as differentiated individuals.

Bowen (1978) underscores the importance of emotional differentiation as not equated with physical separation. Even though the children's adolescents start to “tear themselves away to establish pseudo-selves with a pseudo-separation from their parents” (Bowen, 1978, p. 109), they stay emotionally attached to their family of origin. Children or adolescents, who have grown away from their families may be endlessly attached to their undifferentiated parents by their assigned roles in the family (Chase, 1999). Similar to Boszormenyi-Nagy and Spark’s notion of loyalty, children incorporate the relationship to maintain the ties with them. When they take the message that others’ needs should be prioritized and while doing so, the self becomes in the service of the other to maintain the relationship with them. Hence, the boundaries become blurred, resulting in what family therapists described as “enmeshment”, or “co-dependency” (Olson and Gariti, 1993). In Bowen’s (1978) terms, the *basic self* is lost, as the true self of the child is replaced with an *adaptive self* that repeatedly acts in the service of other significant figures in the family (as cited in Olson and Gariti, 1993). The resulting situation is the loss of nurturance, appropriate personal experiences, and self-worth, which are stones in the road to identity and purpose (Olson and Gariti, 1993).

1.1.2. Defining the Scope of Parentification

Integrating the theories of Minuchin et al. (1967), Bowen (1978), and Boszormenyi-Nagy and Spark, (1973); Jurkovic (1997) underlined the importance of conceptualizing parentification empirically for clinical relevance. Nine parameters were pointed out to delineate the boundaries of parentification. *Overtiness* refers to the extent to which parentification is expressed overtly. In addition to covert caretaking behaviors such as doing laundry or meal preparation, Jurkovic (1997) emphasized the elusiveness in detecting the loyalty of children to their abusive parents, even in the absence of any covert responsibilities. *The type of role assignment* refers to the distinction of the tasks assigned to the children such as meal preparation or soothing the sibling. *The extent of responsibility* alludes to the severity of damage depends on to what degree the level and duration of parentification is clearly defined. *The object of caretaking* refers to whom (parents, siblings) the caretaking behavior is directed. *Age appropriateness* relates to the child’s capability to reciprocate parental

expectancy. *Internalization* is defined as to what extent children identify with assigned roles. *Family boundaries* specify the boundaries within a family. *Social legitimacy* refers to the degree to which culturally normative and customary the caretaking behavior is, and *ethicality* refers to the fairness of the give-and-take balance between parents and children. Finally, the *destructive parentification to infantilization continuum* includes to what extent caretaking behavior results in constructive, healthy non-parentification, infantilization, and destructive parentification.

Jurkovic (1997) described the parentification process as a continuum resulting in from unhealthy to destructive outcomes. Constructive and healthy non-parentification are considered to be healthier than other types of parentification. When the roles assigned to children are both challenging and age-appropriate, children with healthy non-parentification histories develop necessary abilities without the roles becoming a burden on their shoulders. Considering constructive parentification, despite carrying an excessive number of responsibilities related to either overt tasks or covert caretaking roles, children gain competency and a sense of responsibility in the presence of parental support and recognition. Children may also do the tasks for a limited time, which does not deplete their capacity to engage in age-appropriate activities. On the other hand, in the context of destructive parentification, children are not only responsible for an excessive burden but also unacknowledged.

Regarding defining characteristics of role assignments, Jurkovic (1997) makes a distinction between instrumental and emotional (expressive) parentification. Instrumental role assignments are logistical, visible, and functional tasks such as fulfilling household chores, preparing meals, and taking young siblings to the school. Reducing the family stress by completing these tasks may contribute to children's feelings of competence and accomplishment, in the presence of recognition by parents. In line with that, research conducted with children living in urban poverty has underlined the influence of moderate levels of instrumental and emotional caregiving on better social functioning in the presence of a validating environment (McMahon & Luthar, 2007). Emotional parentification refers to the covert form of reciprocating the emotional needs of the family members, including taking the role of peacemaker or mediator in the presence of marital discord. While both forms of parentification become detrimental when the burden of the tasks exceeds the capacity of children, it was claimed that expressive or emotional parentification carries the greater risk of

compromising children's well-being compared to instrumental assignments which are generally more recognized and structured for a limited time (Chase, 1999, Jurkovic et al. 1991, Minuchin, 1974). In contrast, children who have the goal of filling the emotional void or calming the chaos, carry the emotional burden for an indeterminate time. This never-ending task may not be completed for the other members of the family at the expense of their development, which impedes future adult relationships (Hooper, 2007a).

1.1.3. Recent Conceptualizations of Parentification: Boundary Dissolution

In the scope of developmental psychology, Sroufe (1985) extended the scope of role reversal by defining "boundary dissolution" whereby role distortions of the child as a parent, child as a spouse, and child as a mate are also included. Along this line of conceptualization, Kerig (2005) integrated multiple definitions and constructs into a comprehensive term of boundary dissolution which was defined as "*a loss of a complex set of phenomena involving the loss of psychological distinctiveness between individuals or the confusion of their interpersonal roles.*" (p. 06). Kerig (2005) expanded the idea of role reversal so that the concept of "boundary dissolution" comprises four interrelated concepts; enmeshment, intrusiveness, role reversal, and spousification. In her conceptualization, not only the reversal of parental and child roles but also other forms of transgression of boundaries such as intrusiveness or overprotection are pertinent to the debilitating results of not recognizing the child's distinctiveness. *Enmeshment* is related to the whole family where all members' involvement with each other is extreme to the point that the needs for autonomy and independence of a member risk the oneness and sameness of the family. *Intrusiveness*, on the other hand, is associated with a hierarchical relationship in which the parent is coercive and not respectful of the child's autonomy. Intrusiveness is related to psychological control (Barber, 2002) which involves strategies such as guilt-induction and withdrawal of love to manipulate the child's inner life, and overprotectiveness as a form of infantilizing and controlling parental behaviors that hinder children's making their own decisions. *Role reversal* covers both parentification and adultification. While both terms include placing the child in an adult position, parentification implies the parents' expectancy of nurturance and parental care from the children; adultification is related to role diffusion in which the child becomes a best friend, companion, or peer (Jacobvitz & Sroufe, 1987). *Adultification* can also be related to triangulation in which the anxiety aroused by marital conflict is alleviated by the child by acting as a moderator, problem-solver, or decision-maker (Kerig, 1995, 2005;

Margolin, et al., 2001). In comparison with parentification in which parental behavior is expected, adultification seems less detrimental; as less strict boundaries may pave the way for a warm, close relationship for both parent and child. *Spousification* occurs either in a hostile or affectionate manner when the parental expectancy is targeted on romantic and partnership needs due to the unavailability of the spouse. To summarize, children and adolescents are confined to adult relationships that are beyond their capabilities, they develop “competence at a cost” (Hetherington, 1999). Being the special child costs being an individuated being having age-appropriate interests and social experiences.

1.1.4. Context of Parentification: Risk Factors

Research has delineated the risk factors and the context influencing parentification underlying various outcomes. The implication of gender’s effect on parentification is evasive (Hooper et al., 2011). Research conducted with adolescents demonstrated that females reported taking on parental roles higher than males, (Maysless et al., 2004) and the demands of emotional support tend to be requested by mothers rather than fathers (Perris et. al, 2008). In addition, females were likely to take the initiative to take care of their mothers more than their male counterparts (McMahon & Luthar, 2007). While a vast amount of research has shown that parentification is more prevalent for females than males (Byng-Hall, 2008; Castro et al., 2004; Goglia et al., 1992), males may be subjected to qualitatively different roles such as household chores and financial concerns (Khafi et al., 2014). Regarding the emotional roles fulfilled by children, males are more likely to be assigned to roles such as romantic partners and playmates by their mothers (Sroufe & Ward, 1980). Upon discerning emotional and instrumental tasks, the participation of males in instrumental parentification has come into prominence in several studies, which supports the claim that distinguishing different types of parental tasks is crucial for a grounded study (Köyden & Uluç, 2018; McMahon & Luthar, 2007).

Age was another factor that demonstrated equivocal results (Jurkovic et al., 1999). Regarding the birth order, the interaction of gender and age was emphasized in the literature as eldest girls are more likely to reverse roles than their siblings (McMahon & Luthar, 2007). Regarding the onset of parentification, the developmental perspective engages in a thorough examination of role-reversal patterns in which representations of role-reversal patterns of mothers anticipate shaping role-reversal patterns of their children even before they are born (Macfie et al., 2015). In line with their perspective, intergenerational transmission of

relational patterns regarding parentification has been touched upon by several researchers (Boszormenyi-Nagy & Spark, 1973; Jurkovic, 1997; Miller, 1979)

Moreover, socioeconomic status is linked with parentification. In economically disadvantaged families, children's burden can be manifested as a contribution to the family's finances from an early age, which may compromise their age-appropriate activities (Karagöbek, 2014; Mchannon & Luthar, 2007; Sroufe & Ward, 1980). Research has been conducted on immigrant children's language and cultural brokering, where children take on the role of translator for family members who do not speak the language of the new country or who have physical disabilities (Oznobishin & Kurman, 2009). Both forms of brokering influence instrumental and emotional burdens on children and adolescents in immigrant families (Titzmann, 2012). On the other hand, in line with the emphasis of Jurkovic (1997) on the perceived fairness of parentification, parental support in immigrant families has been suggested to have a protective role in the self-competence of children.

The influence of dysfunctional relationships between parents, and psychological and physical problems of family members on parentification has been touched upon by a vast amount of research. Parallel to Bowen's conceptualization of the child's role as holding the family unit together, children with role-reversal behavior are likely to manifest controlling, mediating, or protecting roles in the face of marital discord (Borchet, & Lewandowska-Walter, 2017; Peris et al, 2008), parental divorce (Jurkovic et. al, 2001; Mayseless et al., 2004), or domestic violence (Fortin et al., 2011). Moreover, increased occurrence of parentification has been widely established in the presence of parental psychological problems (Aldridge, 2006; Mayseless et. al, 2004; Van Parys et al., 2015). Specifically, the presence of substance abuse and alcohol addiction within the family has been widely studied concerning parentification and its deteriorating outcomes (Burnett et al., 2006; Carroll & Robinson, 2000; Chase et al., 1998). Furthermore, negative outcomes of sibling-focused parentification are associated with having siblings with physical limitations (Levante et. al, 2023), anorexia nervosa (Matthews et al. 2021), schizophrenia (Smith et al., 2016), autism spectrum disorder (Tomeny et al., 2016). Concerning medical conditions and physical limitations, both instrumental and emotional parentification occur in the presence of cancer (Joung & Kim, 2022) chronic pain and fatigue (Umberger et al., 2015), fibromyalgia and fatigue (Duryea, 2008), and HIV infection (Edwards et al., 2012, Tompkins, 2007) within the family.

1.1.5. Positive Outcomes

Even though destructive outcomes have been extensively substantiated, previous studies have shown a complex picture related to the consequences of parentification. Childhood parentification may become a source of strength and resilience for some children. Nevertheless, for some children deleterious effects of parentification may pave the way for adult psychopathology and distress. Previous studies have shown the link between parentification and meaning-making (Hooper, 2007a) and post-traumatic growth (Hooper et al., 2008), cognitive empathy (van der Mijl & Vingerhoets, 2017), social competence and prosocial behavior (Beffell & Nuttall, 2020; Tompkins, 2007), quality of sibling relationships (Borchet et al., 2020) and school achievement with instrumental parentification (Borchet et al., 2021). In their meta-analysis study, Dariotis et al., (2023) undertook a detailed investigation on the dimensions of parentification related to positive outcomes, indicating that significant positive outcomes such as self-esteem are closely linked with perceived benefits (Borchet et al., 2020), and perceived fairness (Nuttall et. al, 2021; Saha, 2016). Corresponding to that, Jurkovic (1997) and Hooper (2007) underscored the importance of children's meaning-making and perception of parentification as fair and appropriate. Taking these findings into consideration, the question arises as to how and why parentification traces different trajectories in terms of mental health outcomes.

1.1.6. Negative Outcomes

A substantial body of research underpinning the negative consequences of childhood and adolescent parentification has been focused on psychopathology. One of the most examined psychopathology outcomes of parentification has been internalizing problems such as depression (Arellano et al., 2018; Jankowski et al., 2011; Hooper et al., 2011; Shifren & Kachorek, 2003), anxiety (Mays & Krueger, 2021; Arellano et al., 2018; Jacobvitz & Bush, 1996), eating disorders (Rowa, Kerig, & Geller, 2001) and somatization (Hooper & Wallace, 2010). Moreover, taking on parental roles is associated with externalizing problems (Nuttall, Valentino & Borkowski, 2012; McMahon & Luthar, 2007), attention problems and hyperactivity during childhood (Jacobvitz et al., 2004), risky sexual behavior and substance abuse during adolescence (Stein et al., 1999).

Furthermore, Jurkovic (1997) remarked that children who take on parental roles carry on their relationship problems into adulthood. In line with that, parentification during childhood years predicted excessive caretaking in adult relationships (Mayseless et al., 2004; Valteau et al., 1995) and compromised romantic relationships (Madden & Shaffer, 2016). Jones and Wells (1996) showed that childhood parentification is linked with masochistic and narcissistic personality traits. In a study exploring the defense mechanisms related to parentification, the reversal of child and parental roles was shown to be related to splitting defense mechanism but not dissociation (Wells & Jones, 1998). For a more detailed account of shame and guilt-based organization of parentification linked with these studies, the authors also examined guilt-proneness and shame-proneness in another study which delineated a positive association between shame and parentification, (Wells and Jones, 2000). Congruently, Wells, Glickauf-Hughes & Jones (1999) revealed the link between parentification and codependency, which were proposed to be related to shame-based but not guilt-based characteristics. Taking consideration of these empirical findings, Wells and Jones (2000) stressed that when adults carry on their internalized parental expectations to adulthood, they are more likely to feel shame regarding their incomplete and devalued self-representations, compared to feeling guilty about making mistakes. They may feel compelled to relate to others by caretaking behavior, resulting in other-directed and codependent identity formation. Moreover, Fullinwider-Bush and Jacobvitz (1993) stressed the negative influence of parentification on identity development in their empirical study with a sample of undergraduate women who had role-reversal patterns with their parents. In a similar vein, imposter syndrome which is related to feelings of inauthenticity and inadequacy by the high standards of expectations, is also found to be associated with parentification (Castro et al., 2004). While several authors concluded that parentification implicates deteriorating results, how children perceived role-reversal experiences in their family had been stressed to influence the negative outcomes in several studies (Uluç & Köyden, 2022; Kuperminc et al., 2009; Hooper et al., 2008).

1.2. Development of Parentification: Psychoanalytical Models

In addition to structural and functional interpersonal family dynamics, which Karpel (1976) referred to as “preconditions”, psychoanalytic theories deepen our perspective of parentification regarding intrapsychic and developmental implications. Therefore, in this part, psychoanalytic perspectives, attachment theory, mentalization, and separation-individuation

are explained to have a complete grasp of the subjective experience of a child who takes on an adult role.

Historically, many psychoanalytical theories underpinned that emotionally deprived parents may unconsciously assign their children to certain roles that substitute parental figures that they lacked during childhood. For example, Anna Freud (1965), claimed that a “broken home” following separation or death of parents can create a role vacuum that is often filled by a child. She emphasized the deteriorating effects of children’s being prematurely preoccupied with providing the adult functions in the family.

According to British psychoanalyst Winnicott (1971), *good enough mother* gathers all her attention and care to provide a *holding environment* in which the true self emerges. The primary maternal occupation allows the mirroring of aliveness and spontaneous expressions of true self. The acknowledgment and emerging of true self can be summarized as “*When I look I am seen, so I exist. I can now afford to look and see.*” (Winnicott, 1971, p. 114). When the caregiver cannot provide a consistent holding, children’s “going on being” is interrupted immaturely by external demands, intrusions, or the nonexistence of the caregiver. In return for these impingements by the caregiver, the child adapts to the environment immaturely, repressing the true self and exhibiting a “*false self*”. In a similar vein, children with parentification histories are at risk of identifying with their false selves and hiding their authentic expressions to maintain emotional ties with their parents. Consequently, false self-adaptations may manifest in various forms such as taking on caretaking roles and perfectionistic strivings for parental ideals (Jurkovic, 1997).

Karpel (1976) examined the intrapsychic and interpersonal processes regarding parentification in his qualitative study. He argued that a child’s capability for sensitivity and capacity for concern (Winnicott, 1965) lay the ground for parentification, in addition to the major contribution of preconditions of the family such as parental characteristics, failure of parenting, and family structure. He stressed the importance of the child’s capacity for concern, especially feelings of guilt that precipitate the child’s caretaking behavior. Correspondingly, Miller (1981) emphasized vulnerability arising from the sensitivity of the child in response to unrealistic demands imposed by parents with narcissistic characteristics.

Grounded in Erikson’s psychosocial ego development theory (1959), the excessive demand on the child may impede the children’s integration of dialectical tensions during the

stages of initiative versus guilt, and industry versus inferiority. Carrying the unresolved conflicts arising through these stages to the identity versus role confusion stage, adolescents embark on a journey through experimenting with different roles in society. However, children with parentification histories whose identities are centered around caretaking roles may be challenged to engage in necessary age-appropriate activities and new idealizations to integrate a coherent subjective identity during these stages.

1.3. Separation-Individuation Theory

Mahler, Pine & Bergman (1975) defined separation-individuation as the “psychological birth of the infant”. They delineated the emergence of independent and individuated self through separation and individuation through four major stages of development.

In *the normal autism stage*, the infant is in a sleep-like state whereby the infant is not responsive to the outside other than internal physical sensations such as pain, relief, or frustrations. Although the vital functions of the infant are enabled by the caregiver to ensure homeostatic equilibrium, the infant cannot discern that the satisfaction of needs is dependent on the outside. In *the normal symbiosis stage*, due to the mother’s maternal preoccupation, the child is immersed in a dual unity with the mother. In this stage, the infant slowly recognizes the caregiver’s physical characteristics such as smile, smell, and voice. Moreover, the infant observes that the needs are satisfied by the caregiver, even though the infant is proposed to have “a delusion of common boundary” with the caregiver (Mahler et al., 1975, s. 45). The omnipotence of the infant during the normal autistic stage is transformed into an omnipotence of the dual unity with the caregiver. The beginning of the splitting mechanism is marked during this stage, as feelings of pleasure and displeasure are slowly internalized into good and bad representations. The caregiver’s capacity to mirror the infant’s physical and psychological needs serves as the basis of internalized emotion-regulative representations, which form the basis of the capacity to regulate affective states on their own (Diamond & Keefe, 2024). Optimally, caregivers provide the essential regulation of physical needs consistently and markedly. As a result of a contingent mirroring or holding the infant, separation anxiety is minimized by the overlap of mental states in symbiosis (Fonagy et al., 2002). However, when the infant experiences catastrophic trauma or unresponsiveness, the infant is left with uncontained anxieties similar to what Winnicott (1974) called a fear of breakdown.

Normal autism and normal symbiosis stages precede separation-individuation stages constituting hatching/differentiation, practicing, rapprochement, and object constancy substages. In the *hatching/differentiation substage*, around four to five months of age, the child with increased motor ability begins to break away from the mother-infant egg, as Mahler remarked as “hatching from the mother-infant symbiotic common orbit” (Mahler, Pine & Bergman, 1975, s. 299). The child begins to direct his/her attention to external surroundings. Following this, the faces of strangers are compared with the mother’s face, to distinguish between familiar and non-familiar. The sense of amazement and curiosity at newly discovered external reality is the hallmark of differentiation between mother and non-mother. Nevertheless, the discovery of strangers may also precipitate stranger anxiety. According to Mahler (1975), the extent to which stranger anxiety is perceived as an abrupt change or mild stranger reaction is dependent upon the accomplishment of the optimal symbiotic stage. During this stage, the child may react by asserting the self or resisting in reaction to engulfment anxiety (Diamond & Keefe, 2024). In the hatching subphase, the child slowly recognizes not only his or her physical separateness but also psychological separateness from the mother.

In *the practicing stage*, the ability to move away from the mother physically paves the way for a “rapid body differentiation from the mother” and the development of autonomous functions near the mother (Mahler, Pine & Bergman, 1975, s. 299). The child begins to explore the external surroundings with increased autonomy and exuberance. However, the inability to rely on internal representations of the mother leads the child to return periodically to the mother for “emotional refueling”. During this phase, the mother’s being nearby during emotional refueling and tolerating the child’s increased need for freedom and exploration during practicing, lays the groundwork for optimal individuation in subsequent stages. The child internalizes self and other representations through the mother’s reaction towards autonomy and refueling. However, negotiating autonomy and closeness is reliant on how the mother resolves her own symbiotic needs. If the mother intrudes upon the child based on satisfying her need for closeness instead of acknowledging the child’s need for freedom, the child would have a constricted autonomy development. Similar to Bowen’s (1978) claim that pseudo-separation of tearing away from parents is not equated with individuation, physical separation during the practice period prolongs the actual psychological separation.

In *the rapprochement subphase*, from 18 to 24 months of age, the child goes through the beginnings of rapprochement, rapprochement crisis, and individual solutions regarding the rapprochement crisis. The child's task in the rapprochement phase is to resolve the conflict arising from ambivalence towards autonomous strivings and feeling close to the mother. Behaviorally, the child may seem to oscillate between clinging to and distancing himself or herself from the mother. With the acquisition of language, the child wants to share newly found discoveries with the mother who serves the role of organizing and interpreting inner and outer experiences (Bergman & Harpaz-Rotem, 2004). As the language allows for a different kind of closeness, the verbal interaction between the mother and the child enables the child to resolve separation anxiety to develop a reflective self in interaction with the mother. As the increasing awareness of separation becomes more salient with experiences of frustration such as inevitable misunderstandings or the mother's inability to satisfy all the needs of the child, the child recognizes the impossibility of the mother's omnipresence and self's omnipotence as expected. Due to inevitable frustrations in the relationship with the mother, negative experiences may be separated from the positive aspects. Unlike the splitting mechanism which forms the basis of the representations in the symbiotic phase, the splitting defense mechanism in this phase is an exemplar of inability to contain both positive and negative aspects. The ambivalence of love and hate toward the mother propels the development of more integrated representations of self and others. During this phase, the child has an important task of integrating not only autonomous strivings and needs of proximity but also positive and negative representations of self and others. Fundamentally, the mother's reaction to the child's ambivalence toward the mother is crucial in consolidating the rapprochement phase. If the mother can resolve her conflicts and be available in response to behavioral manifestations of ambivalent feelings of the child such as anger tantrums, clinging, or controlling behaviors; the child internalizes the representation of the mother, which consequently forms the basis of modulating capacity of dysregulating experiences.

In *the object constancy subphase*, the child integrates the positive and negative aspects of the mother into a more coherent and stable representation. As self and other boundaries become clear, the child relies on the internalized regulating and gratifying functions of object representation to maintain the self even in the absence of the mother. On the path of identity formation, the development of a coherent self is pertinent to what extent aggressive feelings are modulated by satisfying aspects of the mother who can reflectively metabolize negative experiences. Similar to other subphases of separation-individuation, the

mother's ability to be consistent and available in response to the child's developmentally appropriate needs of symbiosis, separation, and ambivalence, renders the separation-individuation as a relational challenge and accomplishment. Similar to the porcupine's dilemma of getting close for warmth and fear of getting stung by the quills, to what extent the child negotiates the tensions between intimacy and independence essentially depends on the mother's reaction towards separation.

Peter Blos (1967) expanded Mahler's (1975) ideas and proposed that adolescents pass through a second individuation process. Adolescents embark on restructuring earlier developmental models to integrate a new identity. During this phase, their perception of parental figures colored by idealization starts to give their place into oscillating between all good and all bad. Adolescents pass through regressive phases to integrate infantile emotional investments and separate from them for individuation. In other words, this phase is characterized by regressions in the service of progressions. Not only do they start to renounce their infantile investments during these regressions; but also, they seek new identities in social realms. Similar to Erikson's identity formation (1959), Blos (1967) proposed that this new form of identity is carried through adulthood. Regarding parentification, adolescents who do not have the opportunity to renounce their infantile investments and explore social settings may have difficulties in their individuation process.

Mahler (1975) remarked that separation-individuation takes a lifelong time and problems in the separation-individuation phase may lead to susceptibility to psychopathology in adulthood (Blos, 1975). For example, the defense mechanism of splitting and grandiosity in adulthood may presumably derive from the problems during the practicing and rapprochement period (Mahler et al., 1975). Moreover, the relationship between manifestations of borderline personality and separation-individuation problems has been underlined by several researchers (Christenson & Wilson, 1985; Pine, 1979). Specifically, Christenson and Wilson (1985) noticed a similarity between borderline personality disorder and separation-individuation pathology, considering the inability to differentiate between self and others, splitting, and inability to be alone. Similar to this line of thought, Cooper (1989) emphasized the link between masochistic defenses and problems in the rapprochement phase. Several empirical studies have demonstrated that increased separation individuation problems are associated with internalizing problems such as somatization (Kızılkaya, 2018), depression (Kins et al., 2012), anxiety and interpersonal sensitivity (Lapsley et al., 2001), codependency

and enmeshment (Bacon & Conway, 2021) and dysfunctional dependence and self-criticism (Kins et al., 2012), and insecure attachment (Hazan & Shaver, 1987).

Correspondingly, children who take on caregiving roles may have an increased risk of accomplishing an identity around parental expectations. Due to the inability of the parents, the child not only is unsupported for his or her needs but also has an additional caregiving responsibility resulting in an excessive burden through the aforementioned challenging stages. Through the lens of separation-individuation, the inability of the parent to be present during the normal autism and normal symbiosis stages may hinder the optimal development of omnipotence and leave the child with uncontained anxieties that are carried through other stages of life. Furthermore, in early differentiation and practicing subphases, age-appropriate autonomous strivings may not be supported by the mother's unresolved conflicts around separation.

Regarding parentification, a study conducted with emerging adults who have caregiving responsibilities for their siblings with chronic illness and disability indicated that separation individuation problems were associated with parentification, especially perceived unfairness of the caretaking behavior (Stevens, 2015). Mayseless and Sharf (2009) demonstrated that induction and psychological control over the autonomous needs of adolescent young girls were associated with impairments in individuation. Moreover, another study revealed that young women with alcoholic parents had significantly more problems in the separation-individuation process in comparison to young women without alcoholism within the family (Pasternak & Schier, 2014). Furthermore, their sense of injustice regarding parentification in the past influenced the difficulties of separation-individuation problems and parentification in the present. Considering all the points concerning parentification and separation-individuation, children with parentification histories tend to have a constricted line of development regarding self and individuality.

1.4. Attachment Theory

Separation anxiety had a central focus not only in Mahler's (1975) theory, but also in Bowlby's (1973) theory which was developed during the same period without talking to each other. While Mahler (1975) focused on the separating internal representations and constructing an individuated self-representation within the relationship, Bowlby (1973) emphasized the actual separation and different strategies of the child for coping with the separation (Blum, 2004).

Bowlby (1973), similar to Mahler (1975), underlined the importance of early relationships with the mother in shaping the relational world of adults. He stressed the importance of the caregiver's responses in regulating the instinctual needs of the child. According to attachment theory, all mammals including humans have a universal need to form close relationships (Bowlby, 1969; 1973). Children seek comfort from their caregivers for their survival, as internal regulatory capacities are not developed during infancy. The child approaches the caregiver in search of security, depending on the child's perception of the environmental cues that foster a need for regulating uncontrollable arousal (Sroufe et al., 2005). Attachment behaviors of the infant can be manifested as crying, clinging, or smiling, which are reciprocated by the attachment figure by holding, soothing, or touching. Hence, parental sensitivity paves the way for the child's experience of the secure base on which the children explore the world confidently (Bowlby, 1973).

Over the first years, these experiences of approaching the caregiver and respective responses elicited by the caregiver were collected into internal working models of self and others. *Internal working models* of self and attachment figures function for the child to interpret the meaning of the self and others' behaviors, predict future behaviors, and establish responses in interpersonal relationships (Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985). Ainsworth expanded upon Bowlby's ideas and supported the attachment theory empirically by developing Strange Situation Task (i.e., Strange Situation, Ainsworth et al., 1978). In this task, children are classified as secure, insecure/avoidant, and insecure/resistant by their behavioral response to the separation from the caregiver, arrival of a stranger, and return of the caregiver in a controlled experiment. Securely attached children feel confident that in the presence of a threatening situation, the caregiver will be available. In return of the caregiver, they are reassured by the caregiver's proximity and direct their attention to exploratory activities again. In contrast, insecurely attached children in anxious and avoidant categories

are not ensured that the care will be given in a continued and predictable manner. Insecure/Avoidantly attached children show little response upon the caregiver's leaving, do not seek proximity when the caregiver returns, and approach both strangers and the caregiver indifferently. Their over-regulating of affect may stem presumably from not modulating the experiences by a caregiver, or from intrusive parenting behavior (Fonagy, 1999). In contrast, anxiously/resistantly attached children use underregulating strategies to seek proximity even in the presence of the caregiver. Their inability to regulate anxiety, frustration, and anger stems from presumably seeking the caregiver's response to modulate their experience.

A fourth classification, namely disorganized attachment was presented by Main and Solomon (1986) to delineate incoherent, abusive, and fearful relationships with the caregiver. Children with this type of attachment style are both frightened and demanding for comfort in the relationship with the caregiver. Parents are presumed to be unable to regulate their unresolved conflicts related to their history of loss or trauma, which hinders their availability for the child to be a secure base (Main & Hesse, 1990; van IJzendoorn et al., 1999). In this context, children become confused about approaching or distancing the caregiver who displays contradictory behaviors. To control the unpredictable nature of the relationship, disorganized children at 6 years old display controlling behavior towards the caregiver, either in a punitive or caregiving manner (Main & Cassidy, 1988; Wartner et al., 1994). These types of controlling behavior in which the child takes on the parental role is described as "role reversal" by attachment researchers (Bowlby, 1988; Main et al., 1985; Solomon et al., 1995). In addition to punitive and caregiving controlling behaviors, role-reversal patterns may clear the path that they learn to receive the care and attention they seek from a parental figure by taking on the roles of comforter, playmate, and romantic partner in response to covert demands of parents (Macfie et al., 2015; Main & Cassidy, 1988).

1.4.1. Attachment Disorganization and Role Reversal

In connection with the parentification phenomenon, Macfie, Brimariu & Lyons-Ruth (2015) reviewed the role of role-reversal patterns within the context of disorganized attachment in the infancy period. Lyons-Ruth and Spielman (2004) who studied relational patterns of disorganized attachment, claimed that the inability to regulate the fear within the parent-child dyad results in not only fear but also role-confused and withdrawing behaviors that would leave the child disorganized. They developed a coding schema for assessing frightening and frightening behaviors within disruptive communication between parents and

disorganized children. In their assessment, two subgroups of infant disorganized behavior emerged as the disorganized approach type and the disorganized avoidance/resistance type. By children's behavior, maternal disorganized behaviors are categorized into two subgroups of hostile and fearful parenting profiles.

In the hostile disorganized parental behavior subgroup, parents behave in a conflicting mixture of intrusive and demanding manner, both rejecting the child and expecting the child to attend to their needs. In return for hostile self-referential parental communication, children display oscillating strategies of regulation and conflicting behaviors of resistance and avoidance. While parents in the hostile disorganized subgroup suppress their vulnerability, parents in the helpless disorganized subgroup show tense, shy, and anxious behavior. In contrast to the hostile parental disorganized subgroup, fearful-withdrawing parental disorganized behavior is harder to detect; as the parental figure is inhibited, withdrawing, hesitant, and helpless in the interaction with children in disorganized-approach subtype. They may become helpless because of being overwhelmed by the demands of the children. Nevertheless, in the absence of arousal, parents in helpless disorganized groups can soothe the children, which makes it difficult to distinguish more secure types of attachment relationships. In contrast with the disorganized-avoidant/resistant group, children in disorganized-approach group take the initiatives to take control of the helpless parent by approaching and displaying controlling behavior. Caregiving and punitive behavior of children and helpless parent subtype in disorganized attachment are important to explore, considering how implicit relational understanding of role-reversal sets out early in life.

In sum, children with insecure and disorganized attachment develop various mechanisms, one of which is caregiving behavior to stay close to the parents as in role reversal. Both empirical and theoretical underpinnings illustrate the influence of parentification on attachment and attachment-related disorders such as BPD (Macfie, Brimau & Lyons-Ruth, 2015; Engelhardt, 2012; Earley & Cushway, 2002), while some failed to find any association (Mayselless et al., 2004). For example, Katz, Petracca & Rabinowitz (2009) revealed the mediating role of anxious attachment in the relationship between depressive symptoms and daughters' emotional role reversal with their mothers. Carlson, Egeland, and Sroufe (2009) indicated a positive pattern between BPD symptoms at age 28 and role reversal during infancy.

Aligned with that, Bowlby (1980) described the “compulsive caregiving” phenomenon in which the child grows up looking after an ill parent or being forced to give caregiving. Compulsive caregivers developed internal working models of self as deserving care only if giving care to the other. Thus, they are driven by guilt for not being enough, or by self-blame provoked by the members of the family to accomplish the caregiving role (Byng-Hall, 2002). Compulsive caregivers spend most of their time providing care for others, even when it is not welcomed and needed. Eventually, the possessive caregiving may evoke feelings of imprisonment in the other (Bowlby, 1980).

1.5. Mentalization

Fonagy and his colleagues (1991, 1999, 2001) developed the concept of mentalization based on psychoanalytic treatments with borderline patients and attachment theory. Mentalization or reflective functioning refers to the mental capacity to distinguish between self and others, and represent minds of self and others in terms of intentional states such as desires, thoughts, and emotions (Fonagy et. al, 2002). Mentalization or reflective functioning encompasses a wide range of cognitive, social, and emotional capacities (ToM, empathy, mindfulness) that involve conscious and unconscious mental imagining of self and others (Choi-Kain & Gunderson, 2008). In a complex and ever-changing world, mentalization capacity enables engaging in mental imagining of self and other’s minds efficiently and coherently to navigate interpersonal relationships.

Mentalization is a multifaceted construct that consists of four polarities that underlie neurobiologically unique circuitries: a) automatic versus controlled mentalizing, b) self-directed versus other-directed mentalization c) mentalizing based on external and internal features of self and other d) cognitive versus affective mentalizing (Fonagy & Luyten, 2009). Automatic mentalizing involves phylogenetically older neurobiological pathways that organize reflective processes in a fast and reflexive manner. On the other hand, more developed circuitries that enable humans to engage in collaboration and communication facilitate controlled or explicit mentalization. Controlled mentalization refers to the engagement in a deliberate, reflexive, and conscious mental activity to infer self and other’s mental states in a complex form. While simplistic forms of automatic mentalizing are used to process threatening information during the aroused states of fight/flight, interpersonal relationships require more complex forms of controlled mentalization that eliminate biases

arising from stressful situations (Fonagy et al., 2002). Moreover, mentalization can be directed at the experience of self or others, both of which may be based on external features (posture, facial expressions) or inferring internal states of mind. Lastly, mentalization in the optimal range requires the balance between cognitive mentalization which involves perspective-taking and the capacity to infer desires and beliefs by the behavior, and affective mentalization of processing emotional states of self and others. It is also important to note that the capacity to mentalize is context-dependent; in a social setting that heightens arousal may precipitate more automatic mentalization based on external features, while the same person may engage in a more deliberate mentalization in another setting.

Luyten et al. (2020) elucidated that balanced mentalization involves both polarities facilitated harmoniously and flexibly by what the social context requires. Imbalances in polarities of mentalization are related to specific characterizations of psychopathology (Bateman et al., 2013; Fonagy & Luyten, 2018). They also stressed the importance of the examination of mentalization considering its multidimensional nature that contains several aspects related to different aspects of psychopathology.

1.5.1. The Development of Mentalization Capacity

Mentalization or reflective functioning begins to develop within the context of early attachment relationships (Fonagy et al., 2002). In a secure relationship, the capacity of the caregiver to observe the child's mind, attune to emotions, and reflect on the mind facilitates developing reflective functioning of the self. At the beginning of life, infants are born with a complex and confusing mixture of physiological and psychological experiences. To bind these experiences with more symbolic processing, the caregiver resonates with and reflects on these experiences. In a secure relationship, optimally, the caregiver responds with a congruent and marked mirroring of the child's mental state. By attributing meaning to mental states, the child also acknowledges the self as being an agent whose desires and thoughts have an impact on the external world intentionally. The problem may arise if the mirroring is incongruent with the child's internal experience, thus creating a "not real" representation that resembles Winnicott's (1971) false self notion that characterizes narcissistic personality (Fonagy et al., 2006). Moreover, the emotional mapping serves as the basis of second-order representations which are constructed through the caregiver's contingent and similar

responses that are not the same in intensity as the child's mental state. Second-order representations convey complex symbolic meanings to attenuate the child's unmanageable and unmodulated self-states. If the caregiver gives a response that maintains the same intensity, the child is left with intolerable anxiety and may carry this feeling and representation unmodulated through the other stages of life. Furthermore, if the response is not marked, the child would take the message that his or her feelings affect other people, and in the worst case, overwhelm them. Thus, the capability of the caregiver to reflect the child's internal state with marked mirroring instead of expressing his/her feelings facilitates the creation of boundaries between minds.

Fonagy (1999) claimed that fear of panic attacks and attribution of anxiety may be related to the inability to modulate the affects by second-order representations. Similar to Bion's (1962) notion of "containing" and Winnicott's (1971) notion of "holding", the caregiver responds to unregulated and intolerable feelings in a coherent and contingent way. In other words, the child learns to be stable through the storm, through the reflection of his or her caregiver's response. In addition, the child gets the ownership of the storm, by acknowledging the impact on external reality. Hence, the child not only slowly acquires the capacity to reflect on one's self without disintegration, but also interprets other people following the accumulated experiences of dyadic interactions with the mother, parallel to internal working models of self and others (Bowlby, 1973). In other words, as Fonagy (1999) remarked that "*She thinks of me as thinking, therefore, I exist as a thinker*" illustrating how sensitive and reflective parenting paves the way for the development of a self as an agent who has desires, beliefs, and thoughts.

1.5.2. Prementalizing Modes

The child develops a capacity to mentalize through the stages of different prementalizing modes (Fonagy & Target, 1997). In the *psychic equivalence mode*, the boundaries between internal and external are blurred. Not only the external world may be misconstrued by internal reality or phantasies, but also the child may perceive the physical reality exactly as how it appears. In the *teleological mode*, the focus is directed to external and goal-directed behavior with a limited internal understanding of the mental states. Although there is a certain amount of attributing mental states, these mostly involve the explanation of observations. In the *pretend mode*, thoughts and feelings become dissociated

from external reality. As explicit mentalizing takes precedence over implicit mentalizing, the child may ruminate on thoughts that are not connected to reality. In this mode, the child may engage in hyper-mentalizing and pseudo-mentalizing, as the attribution of mental states to another's mind may be rigid and not compatible with the external reality. De-realization and dissociation are the most extreme forms of pretend mode. These states, similar to different dimensions of mentalization, may also re-emerge by the increased arousal or complex situations in adults. Furthermore, these modes inform us how unintegrated "alien-self" parts may be projected to others with externalizing in impaired forms of mentalizing.

In the optimal developmental path, adults and parents with a reflective capacity integrate these modes and connect inner and outer reality for the child by engaging in a shared mental activity (Fonagy & Target, 2006). Regarding the child's intentionality, the sensitivity of the caregiver to mirror the child enables the child to understand his or her behaviors as a product of his or her desires, thoughts, and emotions. In sum, the development of the teleological mode to intentional understanding and sense of agency is influenced by to what extent the parent attributes intentions to the children (Fonagy & Target, 2006).

1.5.3. Mentalization and Attachment Strategies

Following that mentalization is developed in secure relationships, and attachment strategies elucidate the development of thinking about the minds of self and others (Luyten et al. 2020). In secure attachment, feeling secure in the presence of a consistent caregiver may lay the groundwork for attributing their behavior in terms of mental states coherently. Conversely, children with insecure attachment may not use their parents as a source of attributing mental states to their behavior and integrating their responses to mentalize self, due to either children's defense mechanisms or parental figures' impaired forms of mentalizing (Fonagy, 1999). In the context of parentification, parental distress, and mental or physical problems may limit parental reflective functioning in response to the child's attachment strategies. For example, an anxious or depressive parent may react with an unmodulated response towards an anxious child who uses a hyperactivating attachment strategy to get close to the caregiver. Since there is no difference between reflection and experience, heightened arousal maintains its intensity, similar to panic attacks (Fonagy, 1999). Presumably, the child may internalize the unmodulated reflection as a representation of self, resulting in internalizing problems. Hence, the subjective experience of the child's

anxiety would not be attenuated and symbolized just as in psychic equivalence mode. On the other hand, parents may not respond congruently to the insecure child's subjective experience, or deny its significance by attributing the behavior not to mental states but physical conditions as in hypoactivating attachment strategy. Avoidance of mental states may be also used as a strategy by children with avoidance attachment in response to intrusive parenting that overwhelms the child with heightened arousal.

Finally, in disorganized attachment, not only is the caregiver is unreliable source for providing contingent responses, but it also evokes anxiety and fear that threaten the child. Considering the unpredictable behaviors of the parent, the child becomes hypervigilant and strives to interpret the parent's mind, to control possible threatening reactions at the expense of reflecting of self (Fonagy, 1999). In disorganized attachment, before the emergence of clear boundaries between mental states of self and others, the child internalizes the image of a parent as a source of fear and persecution in emotional abuse, even in some cases the image of the self as a source of fear stemming from the fearful responses of the caregiver. Since the child has not yet integrated pre-mentalization modes into proper mentalization capacity, the external physical trauma may not be separated from internal experience, as the psychic equivalence mode dominates the subjective experience. These internalizations that are not marked and mirrored due to the inability of parental reflective functioning, constitute the self-experience. Not only the lack of mirroring but also having a disturbing interaction with the caregiver may result in unmodulated alien parts within the self. Since these feelings resulting from trauma and abuse are tremendously difficult for a child to metabolize, these parts may be dissociated to the extent that the self does not feel and think anything. Not only the impaired self-experience but also attributing others as having mental states become frightening (Fonagy & Target, 2006). In other words, the other's mind containing harmful intentions would not be accessed if the child does not conceive of the other's agency.

As discussed in previous parts, role-reversal patterns in disorganized attachment may also result in hypermentalization. Fonagy and Target (2006) explained how mentalizing others at the expense of self has an organizing influence on aberration in self-experience. Especially, in disorganized attachment, the child may compulsively think about the other's mind since the child's survival may depend on the parents in conflicting situations. In this way, the child attributes rigid mental states to others to alleviate the uncertainty and inconsistency of parenting. This pattern of relating may be salient in situations where the

child still has a compulsive need to maintain the attachment with an abusive parent. Correspondingly, hypermentalizing was associated with general psychopathology including borderline personality disorder (McLaren et al., 2022). Dissipating the alien parts may also be manifested by projection and projective identification (Klein, 1946) in which the uncontained parts are projected onto others who are controlled to act according to these disowned parts. Ultimately, problems in parental reflective functioning may lead to an inability of the child to find his or her subjectivity in the eyes of the parent.

In line with the fact that mentalization develops in secure interpersonal relationships, parental reflective functioning assessed before the birth of the child was shown to predict infant security in the second year of age (Fonagy et al., 1991). Nevertheless, another study conducted with parents with histories of trauma and abuse indicated that increased reflective functioning of deprived mothers predicted the security of their children. (Fonagy et al., 1994). This finding raises not only hope for breaking the cycle of intergenerational transmission of deprivation but also the question of what kind of intricate mechanisms underlie impairments in mentalization.

1.5.4. Mentalization and Psychopathology

Borderline Personality Disorder has been one of the most studied psychopathologies linked with emotional trauma and mentalization problems (Fonagy & Luyten, 2009, Bateman & Fonagy, 2010). Children with histories of early emotional neglect, and physical or sexual abuse grow up in environments where they lack any secure base for self-regulating. In this context, reflective functioning and acknowledgment of mental states are replaced with rapid and indeliberate mentalizing, they become more susceptible to problems in mentalizing and developing personality disorders (Fonagy & Luyten, 2009). Moreover, their heightened sensitivity due to increased arousal may render them sensitive to external cues, which may weaken the boundaries between self and others (Luyten et al., 2012). BPD is characterized by impaired mentalization, specifically, inflexibility in switching between exterior and interior. Oscillations of merging and avoidance of mental states of self and other may stem from the impairments of both egocentric bias which refers to the domination of self over other representations, and allocentric bias which refers to the domination of other over self-representations (De Meulemeester, Benedicte, & Luyten, 2021). In line with deficiencies in self-other distinction, a study revealed the mediating role of the differentiation of self in predicting the mentalization capacities of a sample of women (Todosijević & Kojić, 2022).

Deficits in mentalization have been extensively studied with BPD, which is characterized by a disturbance in self-experience such as incoherence of identity (Wilkinson-Ryan, & Westen, 2000), sense of agency (Moore, 2022), somatization (Kızılkaya, 2018), and, alexithymia (Barberis et al., 2019, Wallin, 2007). Not only mentalization theories but also other perspectives such as dialectical behavioral therapy emphasized the role of invalidating parental mirroring in BPD in relation to the instability of self-image and overreliance of others (Linehan, 1993). BPD has been also strongly associated with incoherent narrative identity constituting differing thoughts, desires, and values that connect the past and future, (Jørgensen, 2006). In addition to impaired narrative self-experience, on the contemporary accounts of mentalization, Fotopoulou and Tsakiris (2017) remarked that impaired self-experience with others can be related to embodied mentalization, which refers to the subjective experience of selfhood constituting bodily signals that are integrated through the early relationships. The same pattern is also salient with alexithymia which can be defined as difficulty in recognizing and understanding one's emotions. Correspondingly, the link between alexithymia and borderline states was shown to be linked to mentalization deficits (Löf, Clinton & Ryden, 2018).

As discussed in previous chapters on separation-individuation; internalizing problems, and impaired self-experience in somatization have also been linked with separation-individuation by several studies. For example, a study examining the Rorschach Test protocol administered to adolescents has shown a link between difficulties in separation-individuation, failure to mentalization, and addictive behavior (Stavrou, 2022). Ann-Cardigan (2009) delineated the deficits in self-mentalizing and the sense of agency in her paper presenting a case study of a patient with masochistic personality. She underlines the importance of impairments in reflecting on one's thoughts may be exhibited in self-defeating patterns.

Grounded on the conceptualization of mentalization as a multidimensional concept that enables studying human thinking based on various dimensions, polarities of self and other mentalization are essential in examining specific characterizations of psychopathology, (Ballespi et al., 2021; Luyten et al., 2020). To date, few studies have explored the self and other polarities. In a recent study, Ballespi et al., (2021) hypothesized to find associations between internalizing and externalizing symptoms with self and other polarities, respectively, but no associations were found. While other-mentalization was linked with social, role, and general functioning; self-mentalization was positively linked to self-esteem and

transcendence which refers to the ability to pursue life goals. Another recent study with a sample of adolescents revealed that self but not other mentalization moderated the relationship between BPD symptoms and somatic complaints, indicating that lack of emotional clarity in BPD increased the risk of somatization (Ballespí, 2022).

1.6. The Aim of the Study

Taking all points into consideration, the capacity to mentalize self-experience depends on the sense of agency to attribute thoughts, desires, and beliefs to behaviors that will exert an influence on the external world. According to Fonagy and Target (2006), children conceive of themselves as mental agents as long as their parents reflect on their behaviors and underlying intentions. The subjective experience of self is constructed by the ongoing and marked mirroring of the child's changing states, which are integrated into the capacity to mentalize self and others. Following Fonagy and Target's (2002) claim that some children may use their mentalization capacities in order to read others' minds at the expense of their mental states, examination of self and other based mentalization is crucial to discern possible differences in these points.

As discussed previously, parentification occurs when the child takes on the role of the parent. Employing caretaking behavior, the child not only is unsupported for his or her needs but also has an additional caregiving responsibility resulting in an excessive burden through the aforementioned challenging stages of separation-individuation. Additionally, self-directed mentalization develops within the relationship with adults who have a reflective stance toward the child's mind. Through the lens of mentalization and parentification, it was hypothesized that adults with parentification histories lacked the necessary interactive experiences with parents who provide a secure environment. In a similar vein, parentification may exacerbate the child's separation of self-representations from maternal representations, and growing individuality in the presence of emotionally available parents during the phases of separation-individuation.

In summary, thinking about thoughts, feelings, and desires of self and others has a crucial role in integrating an internal object representation and an individuated self-representation during separation individuation phase. It has also been delineated that adults with parentification histories tend to have an interpersonal context in their families which limits

the development of the capacity to reflect on self, considering the burden of taking care of others. Not only their self-representation is colored by caretaking behavior, but also deficiency in mentalizing self may result in problems in the unfolding process of separating self-representation from others to have a coherent and individuated identity during separation-individuation phase. Thus, it was hypothesized that taking on a parental role during childhood would influence the difficulties in reflecting on the subjective experience of self during the separation-individuation process. Hence, self-mentalization which refers to the capacity to reflect on one's subjective experience, would mediate the relationship between parentification and separation individuation.

The second aim of this study is to adapt the Filial Responsibility Scale to Turkish. As several studies pointed out the outcomes of parentification are pertinent to the type of roles on which the children take (Dariotis, 2023; Engeldhart, 2012), the adaptation of the Filial Responsibility Scale has a crucial importance in distinguishing between instrumental, emotional parentification, and perceived unfairness of parentification. As the need for a measurement tool for discerning the emotional and instrumental parentification in Turkish has been underlined by some researchers (Uluç & Köyden, 2022), this study will contribute to the literature for conducting further studies on parentification with Turkish-speaking samples.

1.7. The Hypotheses of the Study 1

H.1: Parentification and separation-individuation problems are positively correlated.

H.1.1.: Parent-focused parentification and sibling-focused parentification are positively correlated with separation-individuation problems.

H.1.2.: Perceived benefits of parentification is negatively correlated with separation-individuation problems.

H.1.3: Emotional parentification, instrumental parentification, and perceived unfairness are positively correlated with separation-individuation problems.

H.2: Self-related mentalization is negatively correlated with separation-individuation problems.

H.3: Self-related mentalization is negatively correlated with parent-focused parentification, sibling-focused parentification, emotional parentification, instrumental parentification, and perceived unfairness of parentification.

H.4: Self-related mentalization is positively correlated with the perceived benefits of parentification.

H.5: Other-related mentalization is positively correlated with parent-focused parentification, sibling-focused parentification, emotional parentification, instrumental parentification, and perceived unfairness of parentification.

H.6: Other-related mentalization is negatively correlated with the perceived benefits of parentification.

H.7: Self-related mentalization mediates the relationship between parentification dimensions (parent-focused parentification, sibling-focused parentification, perceived benefits of emotional parentification, instrumental parentification, and perceived unfairness of parentification) and separation individuation problems.

1.8. The Rationale of the Study 2

The rationale for the adaptation of the Filial Responsibility Scale stemmed from a need for an instrument that differentiates different types of parentification (instrumental and emotional parentification) for the Turkish-speaking population (Uluç & Köyden, 2022, Karagöbek, 2014). Filial Responsibility Scale was developed by Jurkovic et. al (2001) to measure parentification in terms of emotional and instrumental parentification in addition to the perceived fairness of parentification. Psychometric properties of the Filial Responsibility Scale were reexamined by Hooper and Wallace (2010) and found to have a three-factor structure that consisted of 23 items. Karagöbek (2014) translated the Filial Responsibility Scale into Turkish with the aim of the adaptation of FRS. The analyses of her study with 92 participants did not support the factor structure in order to use FRS in studies with Turkish speaking population. Therefore, the main aim of the second study is the exploration of the psychometric properties related to factor structure, internal reliability, and correlations among other study variables for the adaptation of FRS into Turkish language.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1. Participants

The data collection was conducted utilizing the convenience sampling method and a total of 302 participants filled the online survey via Google Forms. Since Parentification Inventory included Sibling focused Parentification Subscale, 20 participants who did not report to have any siblings were not included in the analyses. Therefore, the sample consisted of 282 participants whose ages range from 18 to 78 years ($M=40.7$, $SD= 14.6$). Females ($N=203$) accounted for 72% of the sample, while males ($N=79$) constituted 28%. Almost half of the participants (52.8%) reported their SES as middle, 12.4% as low/middle and 30.9% as middle/high. Since low SES (1.4%) and high SES (2.5%) groups represented a low proportion of the participants, SES groups were categorized into three categories. While low SES group and low/middle group were merged into low/middle SES, high SES group and middle/high SES group were merged into middle/high SES. Low SES (13.8%), middle SES (52.8%) and high SES (33.4%) will be used for further analyses due to practicality. Descriptive statistics about demographic data are displayed in Table 1. Table 2 presents the education levels of participants' mothers and fathers. Table 3 displays the descriptive statistics regarding the presence of physical and psychological violence and receiving psychological support. Table 4 is related to the descriptive statistics regarding the caregivers of the participants and family members under the participants' care. Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics regarding the presence of physical problems within family and family members with special needs. Table 6 represents descriptive statistics regarding participants' ratings indicating the quality of their relationships with their mothers and fathers, and the ratings indicating the quality of their relationship with their parents during childhood. Table 7 depicts descriptive statistics regarding the presence of psychological problems within family.

Table 1*Descriptive Statistics of Demographic Data*

Variables		N	%
Age	18-30	109	39
	31-40	31	11
	41-50	53	19
	51-60	66	23
	+60	23	8
Gender	Female	203	72
	Male	79	28
SES	Low	4	1.4
	Low-Middle	35	12.4
	Middle	149	52.8
	Middle-High	87	30.9
	High	7	2.5
SES of participants' upbringing	Low	32	11
	Low-Middle	66	23
	Middle	114	40
	Middle-High	68	24
	High	2	1
Level of Education	Primary School	2	0.8
	High School Graduate	12	4.3
	High School Student	1	0.4
	Undergraduate Student	38	13.5
	Bachelor's Degree	143	50.7
	Master's Student	25	8.9
	Master's Degree	39	13.8
	Doctoral Student	10	3.5
	Doctoral Degree	12	4.3
Work Status	Employed	168	59.6
	Not employed	114	40.4
Relationship Status	Married	140	49.6
	In a relationship	68	24.1
	Single	50	17.7
	Divorced/Widowed	24	8.5
Living with/in	Family	198	70.2
	Friends	23	8.2
	Alone	48	17.0
	Partner	11	3.9
Neighborhood where one's majority of lifetime spent	Metropolitan city	189	67.0
	Province	53	18.8
	District	31	11.0
	Town	3	1.1
	Village	6	2.1
Family Unit	Nuclear Family	215	76.2
	Extended Family	58	20.6
	Single Parent	9	3.2

Number of Siblings	1	101	35.8
	2	84	29.8
	3	35	12.4
	4	19	6.7
	5	12	4.3
	6+	31	11.0
Birth Order	1	115	40.8
	2	85	30.1
	3	38	13.5
	4	24	8.5
	5	9	3.2
	6+	11	4
Parental Death	Both living	172	61.0
	Father deceased	54	19.1
	Mother deceased	10	3.5
	Both deceased	46	16.3
Marital Status of Parents	Together	152	53.9
	Divorced	25	8.9
	Mother and/or Father not alive	105	37.2
Age when parents were divorced	<10	8	2.8
	10-19	13	4.6
	20-30	7	2.5
Presence of Physical Violence within Family	Yes	96	34
	No	186	66
Presence of Psychological Violence within Family	Yes	130	46.1
	No	152	53.9
Received any Professional Psychological Support	Yes	102	36.2
	No	180	63.8
Receiving Professional Psychological Support	Yes	46	16.3
	No	236	83.7

Table 2*Descriptive Statistics for the Education Levels of Participants' Mothers and Fathers*

	Mother's Education Level		Father's Education Level	
	N	%	N	%
Illiterate	38	13.5	3	1.1
Literate	23	8.2	22	7.8
Primary School	76	27.0	77	27.3
Middle School	29	10.3	37	13.1
High School	62	22.0	53	18.8
Bachelor's Degree	46	16.3	73	25.9
Graduate Degree	8	2.8	17	6.0

N=282

Table 3*Descriptive Statistics Regarding the Caregivers of the Participants and Family Members under Participants' Care*

Variables		N	%
Caregivers	Mother	259	91.9
	Father	167	59.2
	Grandparents	59	20.9
	Siblings	40	14.2
	Relatives	7	2.5
	Kindergarten/School/Babysitter	27	9.6
	Step Mother/Father	3	1.1
	None	2	0.7
Family members under participants' care	None	186	66
	Siblings	53	18.8
	Mother	37	13.1
	Father	23	8.2
	Grandparents	13	4.6
	Relatives	2	0.7
	Other	3	1.1

N=282

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics Regarding the Presence of Physical Problems within Family and Family Members with Special Needs

Presence of Someone with Special Needs within Family	Yes	7	2.5
	No	275	97.5
Special Needs Specified	Walking disability	3	1.1
	General care	2	0.7
	Psychological Problems	1	0.4
	Alzheimer	2	0.7
Presence of Physical Problems within Family	Yes	43	15
	No	239	85
Family Member/s Who Has/Have Physical Problems	Mother	13	4.6
	Father	10	3.5
	Sibling	14	5
	Grandparents	5	1.8
Physical Problems within Family	Physically Challenged		
	Mother	3	1.1
	Father	5	1.7
	Sibling	11	3.9
	Grandparents	5	1.8
	Cancer	3	1.1
	Heart Disease	5	1.7
	Other (Fibromyalgia, Thyroid, Kidney Disease, Parkinson, Diabetes, Chronic Disease, Alzheimer)	11	3.9

N=282

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics Regarding Participants' Ratings Indicating the Quality of Their Relationships with Their Mothers and Fathers, and the Ratings Indicating the Quality of Their Relationship with Their Parents During Childhood

Relationship Quality	Relationship with Mother		Relationship with Father		Relationship Between their Parents	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very bad	7	2	20	7	30	11
Bad	17	6	28	10	46	16
Neither good nor bad	45	16	63	22	68	24
Good	112	40	100	35	99	35
Very good	101	36	71	25	39	14

N=282

Table 6*Descriptive Statistics Regarding the Presence of Psychological Problems within Family*

		N	%
Presence of Psychological Problems within Family	Yes	57	20
	No	225	80
Family Member/s Who Has/Have Psychological Problems within Family	Mother	21	7.5
	Father	21	7.5
	Sibling	13	4.6
	Extended family	4	1.4
Psychological Problems within Family	Depression	21	7.5
	Depression (Mother)	15	5.3
	Depression (Father)	2	0.7
	Depression (Sibling)	5	1.7
	Anxiety	13	4.6
	Anxiety (Mother)	8	2.8
	Anxiety (Father)	2	0.7
	Anxiety (Sibling)	2	0.7
	Anger (Father)	4	1.4
	Bipolar	9	3.2
	Addiction	4	1.4
	OCD	1	0.4
	Autism (Sibling)	1	0.4
	Neurological Disorder	1	0.4
	PTSD (Father)	1	0.4
	Personality Disorders	2	0.8
Undiagnosed	8	2.8	

N=282

2.2. Materials

2.2.1. Informed Consent Form

Informed Consent Form (see Appendix A) included the information pertinent to the purpose of the study, confidentiality, anonymity, and their right to quit the study. In addition, the contact information of the researcher was given in case they had any questions or concerns about the study.

2.2.2. Demographic Information Form

Demographic Form encompassed questions regarding participants' age, gender, SES, SES of participants' upbringing, level of education, work status, relationship status, with whom participants live, neighborhood where one's majority of a lifetime spent, family unit, number of siblings, birth order, parental death, marital status of parents, age when participants' parents were divorced, level of education of participants' parents, presence of physical and/or psychological violence, receiving psychological support, perceived parental relationship quality, participants' quality of relationships with their mothers and fathers, presence of mental health problems in the family, presence of chronic physical conditions in the family, predominant caregivers of the participants and family members under participants' care.

2.2.3. Filial Responsibility Scale, Adult version (FRS)

Filial Responsibility Scale is a self-report scale that was developed by Jurkovic, Thirkield & Morrell (2001). The original scale consisted of 60 items, 30 items assessing adult parentification and 30 items assessing adolescent parentification. Participants responded on a 5-point Likert Scale, 1 point indicating "I totally disagree" and 5 points indicating "I totally agree". FRS assesses instrumental parentification, emotional parentification, and perceived unfairness of parentification, with three subscales consisting of 10 items each. Items in the instrumental parentification subscale reflect participants' caretaking behaviors involving tasks such as household cleaning, cooking, or providing financial support. Items in the emotional parentification subscale assess emotional responsibilities which participants had in their childhood such as taking on the role of mediator or adult role. Perceived fairness is

related to what extent participants perceive their parentification is fair, with higher scores implying higher unfairness. Reexamining the psychometric properties of the scale, Hooper and Wallace (2010) found a three-factor structure of the scale and named it the Parentification Questionnaire. Karagöbek (2014) translated the FRS-Adult version into Turkish to adapt it into Turkish, finding a two-factor structure. In this study, FRS-Adult was adapted into Turkish, utilizing the translated version of Karagöbek (2014) with her approval (see Appendix D). The thorough examination and details of the adaptation study are further explained in the results section.

In this study, internal consistency of the FRS scale was satisfactory, as Cronbach's Alpha value of the total scale was $a = .91$, of the Perceived Fairness was $a = .89$, of the Emotional Parentification was $a = .85$, and of the Instrumental Parentification was $a = .76$.

2.2.4. Parentification Inventory

Parentification Inventory (PI) is a 22-item self-report scale assessing parentification retrospectively. Items regarding participants' experience of parentification in their childhood are rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale (1:Never, 5: Always). The Parentification Scale was developed by Hooper (2009). Hooper, Doehler, Wallace, and Hannah (2011) conducted further studies to assess the psychometric properties of PI consisting of three factors. The internal consistency of the total scale was found to be .84; while Parent-Focused Parentification assessed by 12 items had a Cronbach value of $a = .86$, Sibling-Focused Parentification assessed by 7 items had a Cronbach value of $a = .84$, and Perceived Benefits/Adaptation assessed by 3 items had a Cronbach value of $a = .79$. Higher scores on the scale indicate higher levels of parentification and perceived benefits of parentification.

Turkish adaptation study involving university students was conducted by Köyden (2015), (See Appendix C). In the Turkish version of the Parentification Inventory (Ebeveynleşme Envanteri), internal consistency of the total scale found to be satisfactory with a Cronbach's Alpha value of $a = .82$. regarding subscales, Parent-Focused Parentification consisting of 9 items had a Cronbach's value of $a = .83$, Sibling-Focused Parentification consisting of 5 items had a Cronbach's Alpha value of $a = .76$, Perceived Benefits/Adaptation consisting of 6 items had Cronbach value of $a = .73$.

In this study, internal consistencies of Parent-Focused Parentification ($a = .87$), Sibling Focused Parentification ($a = .77$), Perceived Benefit/Adaptation ($a = .78$) and the total scale ($a = .83$) were satisfactory.

2.2.5. The Mentalization Scale (MentS)

The Mentalization Scale was developed by Dimitrijević et al., (2018) in order to assess mentalization in terms of self-related mentalization, other-related mentalization, and motivation to mentalization. The original scale has 28 items that are rated on a 5-point Likert scale, (1: completely incorrect, 5: completely correct). Mentalization Scale was adapted to Turkish by Törenli Kaya and her colleagues (2021). The scale consists of 3 subcategories; self-related mentalization (MentS-S), others-based mentalization (MentS-O), and motivation to mentalization (MentS-M). Each category consists of 7 items on a 5-point Likert scale. There are 28 items in total, 10 of which are reversed. The reliability of the original scale and Turkish adaptation were the same, Cronbach's a was .84. Cronbach's alpha values of subcategories were also satisfactory, MentS-S was .76 and .78, MentS-O was .77 and .80, MentS-M was .77 and .79, in the original and Turkish adaptation respectively.

In this study, internal consistencies of the total MentS total scale ($a = .83$), MentS-S ($a = .79$) MentS-O ($a = .80$) and MentS-M ($a = .68$) were satisfactory.

2.2.6. Separation-Individuation Inventory (SII)

The Separation-Individuation Inventory (SII), as presented in Appendix F, is a self-report measure developed by Christenson et al. (1985), in order to examine the separation-individuation issues on the basis of the psychoanalytic developmental theory by Margaret S. Mahler. 39 items are assessed on 10-point Likert type scale (1: not characteristic of mine, 10: very characteristic of mine). The inventory has 3 subscales measuring deficiency in differentiation, defense mechanism of splitting, and separation-individuation related relationship problems. Higher scores in SSI indicate more difficulties in separation-individuation. The total score of the scale is calculated by summation of all items and the possible range of total score is between 39 and 390. A score higher than 190 is reported to indicate a separation-individuation pathology. The original scale had the internal reliability as $a = .92$.

Internal consistency of the total scale was reported to be $\alpha=.90$. Cronbach's alpha coefficients are $\alpha=.78$ for the splitting subscale, $\alpha=.80$ for the lack of differentiation, and $\alpha=.65$ for the separation-individuation related relationship problems subscale. The split-half reliability coefficient was reported to be .89.

Reliability analyses were conducted to check internal consistency for the present study. In this study, Cronbach's alpha values for the whole scale ($\alpha=.91$), splitting ($\alpha=.82$), differentiation ($\alpha=.81$), and relationship problems ($\alpha=.75$) were satisfactory for further analyses.

2.3. Procedure

Ethical approval was obtained from the Ethics Committee of Yeditepe University prior to data collection. Data was collected by convenience sampling method, as the survey link was shared through social media platforms. Participants filled out the materials via Google Forms, an online survey platform. The Informed Consent Form (See Appendix A) informed participants about the study, voluntary participation, confidentiality and anonymity, the right to quit the study, and the contact information of researchers. Following the approval of giving consent to the study, the participants were given the Parentification Inventory (Appendix C), Filial Responsibility Scale (Appendix D), Mentalization Scale (Appendix E), Separation-Individuation Inventory (Appendix F), and Demographic Form (Appendix B). After filling the measurement tools, the participants were briefly informed about the study objectives. The survey took approximately 10-15 minutes to fill in all the questions.

2.4. Data Analyses and Research Design

This study aimed to investigate the relationship between parentification, mentalization, and separation-individuation by applying correlational research design.

2.4.1. Data Analyses of the Adaptation Study

For the adaptation study of the Filial Responsibility Scale, Principal Component Analysis using JAMOVI Software was conducted to determine factor structure and loaded items on each factor. For internal consistency of the scale, Cronbach's alpha values were determined. Correlations between the Filial Responsibility Scale and the Parentification Inventory were calculated for the construct validity of the scale.

2.4.2. Data Analyses of the Main Study

Upon determination of the factor structure of FRS, preliminary analyses for gender and SES-based differences of the study variables were assessed by conducting MANOVA. Correlations between study variables of parentification assessed by PI and FRS, mentalization assessed by MentS, and separation-individuation assessed by SII were calculated. For the assumptions of mediation analyses, VIF, and Tolerance values were checked for the multicollinearity assumption and analyzability of the scale for factor analyses. A series of multiple regressions for mediation analyses were conducted for the mediating role of self-related mentalization in the relationship between six parentification dimensions and separation-individuation difficulties.



CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Adaptation of Filial Responsibility Scale (Evlat Sorumluluğu Ölçeği)

Filial Responsibility Scale was developed by Jurkovic et. al (2001) to measure parentification. The original scale had 30 items which consisted of 10 items for each subscale assessing emotional parentification, instrumental parentification and perceived fairness. Hooper and Wallace (2010) conducted a Principal Component Analysis in order to reexamine the psychometric properties of Filial Responsibility Scale. In their study, the scale consisted of 23 items with a three-factor structure, which explained 49% of total variance. Three factors explained the total variance as follows: perceived fairness 29%, emotional parentification 13.4% and instrumental parentification 6.5% of the total variance. Regarding reliability statistics, Cronbach's Alpha value for emotional parentification was .82, for instrumental Parentification was .81, and for perceived fairness was .88.

Karagöbek (2014) translated the Filial Responsibility Scale into Turkish with a back translation method. The analyses of her study with 92 participants revealed a two-factor structure. The first factor named Parentification instead of Emotional Parentification explained 27.50% of the total variance, and the second factor named Instrumental Parentification explained 10.16% of the total variance, together with 37.67% of the total variance explained. Cronbach's Alpha for the total scale was .84, for emotional parentification .80 and for instrumental parentification .19. Therefore, Instrumental Parentification Subscale was not used for further analysis in her study. The Turkish translation of Filial Responsibility Scale was used in this study with her permission.

Using JAMOVI Software, Principal Component Analysis was conducted to determine the factor structure of the Filial Responsibility Scale. Regarding the suitability of the data for factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value (Kaiser, 1974) assessing sampling adequacy is expected to be at least .50. Also, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) assessing correlations among items is expected to be significant (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Results

yielded KMO value of .91 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($\chi^2 = 2895.99$, $df = 231$, $p < .001$), indicating the suitability of the data for factor analysis.

Principal Component Analysis was run with different types of rotations including Varimax (Orthogonal) and Oblimin (Oblique) Rotation. Oblimin (Oblique) Rotation was preferred to balance expected correlations between components. Criteria regarding factor structure included evaluation of eigenvalues, break points in the scree-plot graph, and item selection with loadings of at least .40 for only one component (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2012). Loading of 6 components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 were extracted. However, the scree-plot graph and parallel analyses presented a three-factor structure, similar to the factor structure of the original scale. Thus, the data was analyzed following a three-factor structure.

Upon the determination of the three-factor structure, items were reviewed for sufficient factor loadings and the presence of cross-loadings. Item 19 and 16 were deleted as factor loadings of these items were less than .40. Factor analyses were run until three factors presented a clear factor saturation. Other Items (1, 12, 14, 17, 27, and 28) were excluded because either the difference of the factor loadings of cross-loading items was less than .10 or factor loadings failed to exceed .40. Item 14 was excluded because of its uniqueness value being .72 (MacCallum et al., 2001). Similar to the original scale, the Turkish version of Filial Responsibility Scale which consisted of 22 items distributed into three factors, explained 54.42% of the total variance. Perceived Fairness explained 22.88% of the total variance, Emotional Parentification explained 17.02 % of the total variance, and Instrumental Parentification 14.52% of the total variance. (see Table 8)

In the final version, items that are contained in the factors were compared with the study of Hooper and Wallace (2010). Similar to their study, Perceived Fairness Subscale contained 9 items of which only Item 11 was not contained in the original scale. In their study, Item 11 "*In my family I often made sacrifices that went unnoticed*" was included in the Emotional Parentification Subscale. Furthermore, Item 17 "*My parents often tried to get me to take their sides in conflicts.*" was excluded in this study due to cross-loadings on factors, while it was included in Perceived Fairness Subscale in the original study. In the original study, Emotional Parentification included 7 items. Items 11, 12, 1 and 7 of the original scale were not included in this study. Instead, Turkish version had Items 5, 18, 30, 20 in Emotional Parentification Subscale. The comparison of items is discussed comprehensively in the

discussion section. Regarding Instrumental Parentification, while the original scale had 5 items, the Turkish version of FRS had 6 items. Only Item 19 which was in the original study, was not included in the Turkish version. In addition, Items 29 and 8 were included in the Instrumental Parentification Subscale.

Regarding the discriminant validity of the subscales, high correlations among factors (e.g. $r > .75$) become problematic concerning the capability of the subscales of the measure to discriminate different dimensions, according to Farrell (2010). In this study, interfactor correlations that range between .49 and .60 were considered to be sufficient to assume discriminant validity (Table 7).

Table 7

Intercorrelations between Perceived Fairness, Emotional Parentification and Instrumental Parentification Subscales

	Perceived Fairness (Algılanan Adaletsizlik)	Emotional Parentification (Duygusal Ebeveynleşme)	Instrumental Parentification (Araçsal Ebeveynleşme)
Perceived Fairness	-		
Emotional Parentification	.55***	-	
Instrumental Parentification	.49***	.60***	-

N = 280, Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Table 8

Factor Loadings of the Items from the Result of Principal Component Analysis with Oblimin Rotation

	1	2	3
Factor 1: Algılanan Adaletsizlik (Perceived Fairness)			
21) Ailemdeki insanlar beni çok iyi anlardı.*	.87		
25) Bazı nedenlerden dolayı benim için anne ve babama güvenmek zordu.	.81		
10) Sık sık aile bireyleri beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattır.	.79		
15) Ne zaman bir problemim olsa annem ve babam yardımcıydılar.*	.79		
7)	.69		
26)	.60		
4)	.60		
11)	.44		
23)	.45		
Factor 2: Duygusal Ebeveynleşme (Emotional Parentification)			
9) Kendimi aile içinde bir hakem gibi hissederim.	.76		
2) Bazen, annem ve babamın yardım isteyecekleri kişinin sadece ben olduğumu hissederdim.	.72		
5) Ailemde sık sık yaşıma göre olgun olduğum söylenir.	.73		
18) Ailemin bana ihtiyacı olmasa bile ben kendimi onlara karşı sorumlu hissederdim.	.60		
24)	.58		
30)	.55		
20)	.45		

	1	2	3
Factor 3: Araçsal Ebeveynleşme (Instrumental Parentification)			
6) Sıklıkla, ailemdeki bir üyenin fiziksel bakımında görevliydim. (yıkamak, beslemek, giydirmek gibi)			.75
13) Sık sık ailenin çamaşır yıkama işlerini yapardım.			.75
8) Aileme para getirmek için çalıştım.			.61
22)			.57
3)			.52
29)			.52
Eigenvalues	8.00	2.49	1.48
Variance Explained %	22.8	17.02	14.52

**Reverse Items*

3.1.1. Internal Consistency of Filial Responsibility Scale

The internal consistency of the Filial Responsibility Scale was measured in accordance with the three-factor structure found in this study. Cronbach's Alpha measures ranging between .76 and .91 had satisfactory values for conducting further analyses. Cronbach's Alpha values and range of item-total correlations are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Internal Consistency Measures of Filial Responsibility Scale

	Cronbach's Alpha	Item-Total Correlation Range
Perceived Fairness	.89	(.49-.76)
Emotional Parentification	.85	(.44-.69)
Instrumental Parentification	.76	(.45-.58)
Filial Responsibility Scale- Total Score	.91	(.29-.75)

3.2. Gender and SES-Based Differences of Study Variables

Preliminary analyses of MANOVA were conducted to examine gender and SES-based differences in study variables. Parent-Focused Parentification, Sibling-Focused Parentification, Perceived Benefits Subscales of the Parentification Inventory; Instrumental Parentification, Emotional Parentification, Perceived Fairness Subscales of Filial Responsibility Scale, MentS-M, MentS-O, MentS-S Subscales of Mentalization Scale and MentS-Total Score, Splitting, Differentiation, Relationship Problems of Separation Individuation Inventory were assigned to dependent variables. Gender with two levels of women and men, and SES with three levels of low, middle, and high were assigned for comparison variables. Since homogeneity of covariance assumption was not assumed, Wilks' Lambda values were used for the analysis assumptions, (Ateş et. al, 2019).

Results of MANOVA indicated significant results for the main effects of gender, (Wilks' $\lambda = 0.89$, $F_{(13,264)} = 2.49$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .05$), and SES (Wilks' $\lambda = 0.95$, $F_{(6,548)} = 5.135$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .05$). However, no significant interaction effect was observed ($p > 0.5$). Emotional Parentification, Instrumental Parentification, Subscales of Separation Individuation Inventory, and Parentification Inventory did not differ in terms of gender, $p > .05$. However, women scored significantly higher than men on Perceived Fairness (Adaletsizlik), MentS-Total, MentS-S, MentS-O, and MentS-M, as the results are shown in Table 10.

Table 10

Group Comparisons of gender for Perceived Fairness and MentS scores

	M	SD	M	SD	F
	Female		Male		
Perceived Fairness	2.65	1.07	2.36	.91	4.48*
MentS-M	4.22	.54	3.96	.52	13.55***
MentS-O	4.22	.50	4.08	.53	4.42*
MentS-S	3.64	.79	3.47	.85	5.42*
MentS-Total	100.90	11.09	96.22	11.28	10.04**

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

In terms of SES, Perceived Fairness, Perceived Benefits, MentS-M, Splitting, Differentiation, and Relationship Problems had significant group differences, while no other group differences were found in any other subscales (see Table 11). Post-hoc analyses with Bonferroni correction revealed that the low SES group scored significantly higher than the high SES group on Differentiation, ($F(2, 279) = 5.44, p < .05$) and Relationship Problems $F(2, 279) = 3.15, p < .05$, while no other group differences were observed between SES groups. Splitting scores of the low SES group were significantly higher than middle SES and high SES group $F(2, 279) = 6.10, p < .05$. While the low SES group scored significantly higher than middle SES and high SES group on Perceived Fairness (Adaletsizlik) $F(2, 279) = 5.73, p < .05$, their scores were significantly lower than middle SES and high SES groups on Perceived Benefits $F(2, 279) = 3.73, p < .05$. For MentS-M scale, middle SES groups scored significantly lower than low SES groups, $F(2, 279) = 3.58, p < .05$.

Table 11

Group Comparisons of SES for Perceived Fairness, Perceived Benefits, Splitting, Differentiation, Relationship Problems, and MentM scores

	Low SES		Middle SES		High SES		F
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	
Perceived Fairness	3.07	1.08	2.50	1.02	2.46	.98	5.73**
Perceived Benefits	3.24	.84	3.61	.79	3.63	.83	3.73*
Splitting	4.81	1.42	4.00	1.65	3.75	1.57	6.10**
Differentiation	4.35	1.24	3.78	1.66	3.40	1.42	5.44**
Relationship Problems	4.42	1.11	3.87	1.49	3.79	1.27	3.15*
MentS-M	4.35	.44	4.09	.58	4.17	.51	3.58*

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

3.3. Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

Descriptive statistics of the study variables and subscales are presented in Table 12. The normality of the scales was evaluated by the criteria that values of skewness and kurtosis range between -2 and +2 are sufficient to assume normality (George and Mallery, 2010). As a result, all subscales and total scores of the Parentification Inventory, Filial Responsibility Scale, Mentalization Scale, and Separation-Individuation Inventory presented normal distributions. In addition to scales, age was also assumed to be distributed normally, as values of skewness and kurtosis were .24 and -1.22, respectively.

Table 12

Descriptive Statistics of Study Variables

	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
MentS-M	4.15	.55	2.63	5.00	-.50	-.30
MentS-O	4.18	.51	2.67	5.00	-.34	-.57
MentS-S	3.59	.81	1.00	5.00	-.43	-.15
MentS-Total Score	99.59	11.32	71.00	125.00	-.12	-.65
Perceived Fairness	2.57	1.03	1.00	5.00	.41	-.84
Emotional Parentification	2.92	1.01	1.00	5.00	.27	-.86
Instrumental Parentification	1.80	.84	1.00	4.83	1.27	1.22
Filial Responsibility Scale- Total Score	54.37	17.94	22.00	108.00	.58	-.39
Parent Focused Parentification	2.64	.92	1.00	5.00	.38	-.58
Sibling Focused Parentification	1.96	.83	1.00	4.80	1.01	.46
Perceived Benefit	3.56	.82	1.17	5.00	-.57	-.25
Parentification Total	60.19	12.79	29.00	106.00	.40	-.03
Splitting	4.03	1.63	1.00	9.17	.62	.09
Differentiation	3.73	1.55	1.00	8.93	.61	.11
Relationship Problems	3.92	1.38	1.00	9.31	.81	1.36
Separation Individuation Total Score	151.57	54.96	45.00	356.00	.71	.74

3.4. Correlation between Scales

Correlations of Filial Responsibility Scale with the Parentification Inventory, Separation Individuation Inventory, Mentalization Scale are displayed in Table 13.

Table 13

Correlations of Filial Responsibility Scale with Parentification Inventory, Separation Individuation Inventory and MentS

	Emotional Parentification	Instrumental Parentification	Perceived Fairness	Filial Responsibility Total Score
Parent Focused Parentification	.82***	.56***	.38***	.68***
Sibling Focused Parentification	.57***	.76***	.37***	.63***
Perceived Benefits	-.34***	-.35***	-.74***	-.61***
Parentification Total Score	.70***	.56***	.13*	.50***
Splitting	.34***	.29***	.54***	.49***
Differentiation	.35***	.33***	.52***	.50***
Relationship Problems	.35***	.27***	.44***	.44***
Sep-Ind Total	.37***	.32***	.54***	.52***
MentS-M	-.01	.10	.17**	.12*
MentS-O	.16**	.27**	.06	.18**
MentS-S	-.27***	-.22***	-.39***	-.31***
MentS-Total	-.01	.06	-.13*	-.09

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

3.4.1. Filial Responsibility Scale Scores and Parentification Inventory Scores

The results revealed that emotional parentification had strong and positive correlations with parent focused parentification, $r(280) = .82, p < .001$; and parentification total score, $r(280) = .70, p < .001$. A moderate and positive correlation was also observed between emotional parentification and sibling focused parentification, $r(280) = .57, p < .001$. Moreover, there was a significant and negative correlation between emotional parentification and perceived benefits, $r(280) = -.34, p < .001$.

Instrumental parentification was found to have a strong and positive correlation with sibling focused parentification, $r(280) = .76, p < .001$; moderate and positive correlations with parent focused parentification, $r(280) = .56, p < .001$; and parentification total score, $r(280) = .56, p < .001$. Also, there was a significant and negative correlation between instrumental parentification and perceived benefits, $r(280) = -.35, p < .001$.

There was a strong and negative association between perceived fairness and perceived benefits, $r(280) = -.74, p < .001$. On the other hand, perceived fairness had significant positive associations with parent focused parentification, $r(280) = .38, p < .001$; and sibling focused parentification, $r(280) = .37, p < .001$. Perceived fairness was also associated with parentification total score, with a positive but weak correlation, $r(280) = .13, p < .001$.

Filial Responsibility-Total Score had strong and positive correlations with parent focused parentification, $r(280) = .68, p < .001$; and sibling focused parentification, $r(280) = .63, p < .001$. a strong and negative correlation with perceived benefits, $r(280) = -.61, p < .001$; while moderate and positive correlation with parentification total scores, $r(280) = .50, p < .001$.

3.4.2. Filial Responsibility Scale Scores and Separation Individuation Inventory Scores

Correlations between Filial Responsibility Scale and Separation Individuation Inventory are presented in Table 13.

Perceived fairness had significant and positive correlations with splitting, $r(280) = .54, p < .001$; differentiation, $r(280) = .52, p < .001$; relationship problems, $r(280) = .44, p < .001$; and separation individuation total score, $r(280) = .54, p < .001$.

Moreover, emotional parentification was significantly and positively correlated with splitting, $r(280) = .34, p < .001$; differentiation, $r(280) = .35, p < .001$; relationship problems, $r(280) = .35, p < .001$; and separation individuation total score, $r(280) = .34, p < .001$.

Similarly, there were significant and positive correlations between instrumental parentification and splitting, $r(280) = .29, p < .001$; differentiation, $r(280) = .33, p < .001$; relationship problems, $r(280) = .27, p < .001$; and separation individuation total score, $r(280) = .32, p < .001$. Filial responsibility total scores had significant and positive correlations with $r(280) = .49, p < .001$; differentiation, $r(280) = .50, p < .001$; relationship problems, $r(280) = .44, p < .001$; and separation individuation total score, $r(280) = .52, p < .001$.

Table 14

Correlations between Subscales and Total Scores of Parentification Inventory, MentS and Separation-Individuation Inventory

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Parent-Focused Parentification	—											
2. Sibling-Focused Parentification	.61 ***	—										
3. Perceived Benefit	-.21 ***	-.25 ***	—									
4. Parentification Total	.91 ***	.71 ***	.13 *	—								
5. MentS-M	.09	-.01	-.03	.06	—							
6. MentS-O	.26 ***	.11	.09	.27 ***	.45 ***	—						
7. MentS-S	-.24 ***	-.18 **	.30 ***	-.14 *	.23 ***	.25 ***	—					
8. Ments-Total	.00	-.06	.20 ***	.06	.70 ***	.72 ***	.76 ***	—				
9. Splitting	.29 ***	.27 ***	-.38 ***	.17 **	.06	-.09	-.58 ***	-.34 ***	—			
10. Differentiation	.32 ***	.32 ***	-.39 ***	.21 ***	.01	-.07	-.61 ***	-.37 ***	.82 ***	—		
11. Relationship Problems	.30 ***	.27 ***	-.36 ***	.19 **	.01	-.06	-.60 ***	-.36 ***	.78 ***	.77 ***	—	
12. Separation Individuation-Total	.33 ***	.31 ***	-.41 ***	.21 ***	.03	-.08	-.64 ***	-.39 ***	.93 ***	.94 ***	.91 ***	—

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

3.4.3. Mentalization and Filial Responsibility Scale

MentS-S scores had significant and negative correlations with emotional parentification, $r(280) = -.27, p < .001$; perceived fairness, $r(280) = -.39, p < .001$; filial responsibility total score, $r(280) = -.31, p < .001$; weaker correlation with instrumental parentification, $r(280) = -.22, p < .01$, (see Table 15).

Regarding other-mentalization, there was a significant and positive association between MentS-O scores and emotional parentification, $r(280) = .16, p < .001$. Also, MentS-O scores were positively correlated with instrumental parentification $r(280) = .27, p < .01$; and Filial Responsibility Total Score, $r(280) = .18, p < .01$. However, MentS-O scores was not significantly associated with perceived fairness, $p > .05$.

MentS-M Scores were found to be positively associated with perceived fairness, $r(280) = .17, p < .01$; and Filial Responsibility Total Score, $r(280) = .12, p < .05$. Nevertheless, MentS-M Scores were correlated with neither emotional parentification, nor instrumental parentification, $p > .05$.

Lastly, MentS-Total Scores had a negative and weak correlation with perceived fairness, $r(280) = -.13, p < .001$. There were no correlations of MentS-Total with emotional parentification, instrumental parentification and Filial Responsibility Total Score, $p > .05$.

Table 15*Correlations of MentS Scores with Other Variables*

	MentS-M	MentS-O	MentS-S	MentS-Total
Emotional Parentification	-.01	.27**	-.27***	-.06
Instrumental Parentification	.10	.16**	-.22***	.02
Perceived Fairness	.17**	.06	-.39***	-.13*
Filial Responsibility Total Score	.13*	.18**	-.37***	-.08
Parent Focused Parentification	.09	.26***	-.24***	.00
Sibling Focused Parentification	-.01	.11	-.18**	-.06
Perceived Benefits	-.03	.09	.30***	.20***
Splitting	.06	-.01	-.58***	-.34***
Differentiation	.01	-.07	-.61***	-.37***
Relationship Problems	.01	-.06	-.60***	-.36***
Separation-Individuation Total	.03	-.08	-.64***	-.39***

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

3.4.4. Mentalization and Separation Individuation Inventory

Regarding self-mentalization, MentS-S scores had significant and negative associations with splitting, $r(280) = -.58, p < .001$; differentiation, $r(280) = -.61, p < .001$; relationship problems, $r(280) = -.60, p < .001$; and S-I Total Score $r(280) = -.64, p < .001$.

MentS-Total Scores had significant and negative correlations with Splitting, $r(280) = -.34, p < .001$; Differentiation, $r(280) = -.37, p < .001$; Relationship Problems, $r(280) = -.36, p < .001$; and Separation Individuation Total Score, $r(280) = -.39, p < .001$. Neither MentS-O nor MentS-M significantly correlated with any subscales of S-I and S-I-Total, $p > .05$.

3.4.5. Mentalization Scale and Parentification Inventory

Correlation analyses between Mentalization Scale Scores and Parentification Scale Scores indicated that MentS-O scores were found to be positively correlated with Parent-Focused Parentification, $r(280) = .26, p < .001$. Nevertheless, MentS-O scores were not associated with Sibling Focused Parentification and Perceived Benefits, $p > .05$.

MentS-S had a significant and negative correlation with Parent-Focused Parentification, $r(280) = -.24, p < .001$, and a positive correlation with Perceived Benefits of Parentification, $r(280) = .30, p < .001$. Furthermore, MentS-S scores had significant but very weak correlations with Sibling Focused Parentification, $r(280) = -.18, p < .001$.

Also, a significant and positive association was observed between MentS-Total scores and Perceived Benefits, $r(280) = .20, p < .001$. However, MentS-Total scores were not found to be associated to any other subscales of Parentification Inventory, $p > .05$.

MentS-M did not have a significant association with subscales and total score of the Parentification Inventory, $p > .05$.

3.4.6. Parentification Inventory and Separation Individuation Inventory

Parent-Focused Parentification had significant and positive correlations with Splitting, $r(280) = .29, p < .001$; Differentiation, $r(280) = .32, p < .001$; Relationship Problems, $r(280) = .30, p < .001$; and Separation Individuation Total Score, $r(280) = .33, p < .001$. In line with that, Sibling Focused Parentification had significant and positive correlations with Splitting, $r(280) = .27, p < .001$; Differentiation, $r(280) = .32, p < .001$; Relationship Problems, $r(280) = .27, p < .001$; and Separation Individuation Total Score, $r(280) = .31, p < .001$.

In contrast, Perceived Benefits had negative correlations with all subscales and total score of Separation-Individuation, namely Splitting, $r(280) = -.38, p < .001$; Differentiation, $r(280) = -.39, p < .001$; Relationship Problems, $r(280) = -.36, p < .001$; and Separation Individuation Total Score, $r(280) = -.41, p < .001$.

Parentification Total Score was positively but weakly correlated with all subscales and total score of Separation-Individuation, namely Splitting, $r(280) = .17, p < .01$;

Differentiation, $r(280) = .21, p < .001$; Relationship Problems, $r(280) = .19, p < .001$; and Separation Individuation Total Score, $r(280) = .21, p < .001$.

3.5. Mediation Analyses for the Mediating Role of Self-Related Mentalization between Parentification and Separation Individuation

For the assumptions of mediation analyses, VIF, and Tolerance values were acceptable for the multicollinearity assumption. A series of multiple regressions for mediation analyses were conducted using JAMOVI Software.

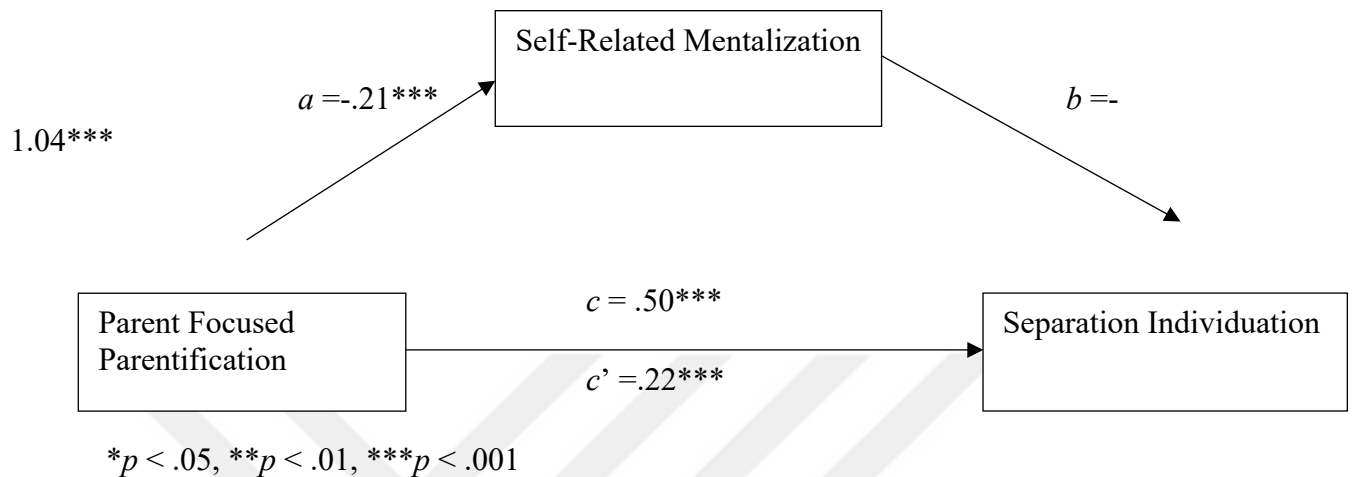
3.5.1. Mediating Role of Self-Related Mentalization between Subscales of Parentification Inventory and Separation Individuation

3.5.1.1. Mediating Role of Self-Related Mentalization in the Relationship between Parent-Focused Mentalization and Separation-Individuation

Mediation analyses were performed to assess the mediating role of self-mentalization on the link between parent-focused parentification and separation-individuation pathology. The correlation between parent-focused parentification and self-relation mentalization was significant ($\beta = -.21, SE = 0.05, t = -4.22, p < 0.001, CI [-0.31, -0.10]$). Moreover, self-related mentalization and separation-individuation difficulties were negatively associated ($\beta = -1.04, SE = 0.08, t = -13.05, p < 0.001, CI [-1.23, -0.85]$). The results revealed that the total effect of parent-focused parentification on separation-individuation difficulties was significant, ($\beta = .50, SE = 0.09, t = 5.85, p < .001, CI [.33, 0.68]$). Upon the inclusion of the self-mentalization, the relationship between PFP and SI was still significant but the level of effect decreased ($\beta = .28, SE = 0.07, t = 4.02, p < 0.001, CI [0.13, 0.43]$). The indirect effect of parent-focused parentification on separation-individuation difficulties through MentS-S was significant ($\beta = .22, SE = 0.06, t = 4.01, p < .001$). The total model presented in Figure 1 significantly accounted for 44% of the total variance, $F(2,279)=111.46, p < .001$.

Figure 1

Mediation Model for Self-Related Mentalization in the Relationship between Parent Focused Parentification and Separation-Individuation

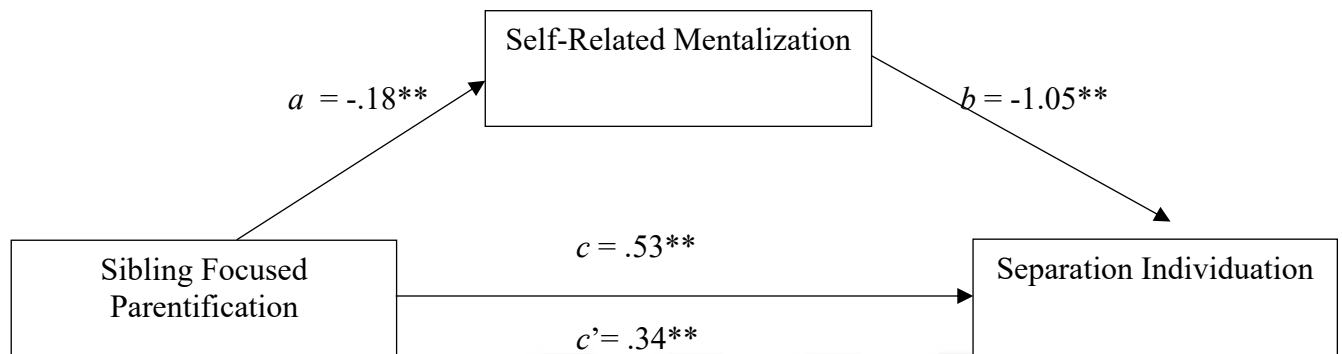


3.5.1.2. Mediating Role of Self-related Mentalization in the Relationship between Sibling-Focused Parentification and Separation-Individuation

As a result of the mediation analysis, the total effect of sibling-focused parentification on separation-individuation difficulties was significant, ($\beta = .53, SE = .10, t = 5.49, p < .001, CI [0.35, 0.73]$). The correlation between sibling-focused parentification and self-relation mentalization was significant ($\beta = -.18, SE = 0.06, t = -3.15, p < 0.001, CI [-0.29, -0.06]$). Moreover, self-related mentalization and separation-individuation difficulties were negatively associated ($\beta = -1.05, SE = 0.1, t = -13.48, p < 0.001, CI [-1.23, -0.87]$). The results revealed that MentS-S significantly mediates the relationship between sibling-focused parentification and separation-individuation pathology ($\beta = .19, SE = 0.06, t = 3.06, p < .001, CI [0.06, 0.34]$). Nevertheless, after accounting for the MentS-S, sibling-focused parentification and separation-individuation difficulties were significantly and positively associated, but the level of effect decreased ($\beta = .34, SE = 0.08, t = 4.45, p < 0.001, CI [0.18, 0.50]$). The total model shown in Figure 2 significantly accounted for 45% of the total variance, $F(2,279) = 114.52, p < .001$.

Figure 2

Mediation Model for Self-related Mentalization in the Relationship between Sibling Focused Parentification and Separation-Individuation



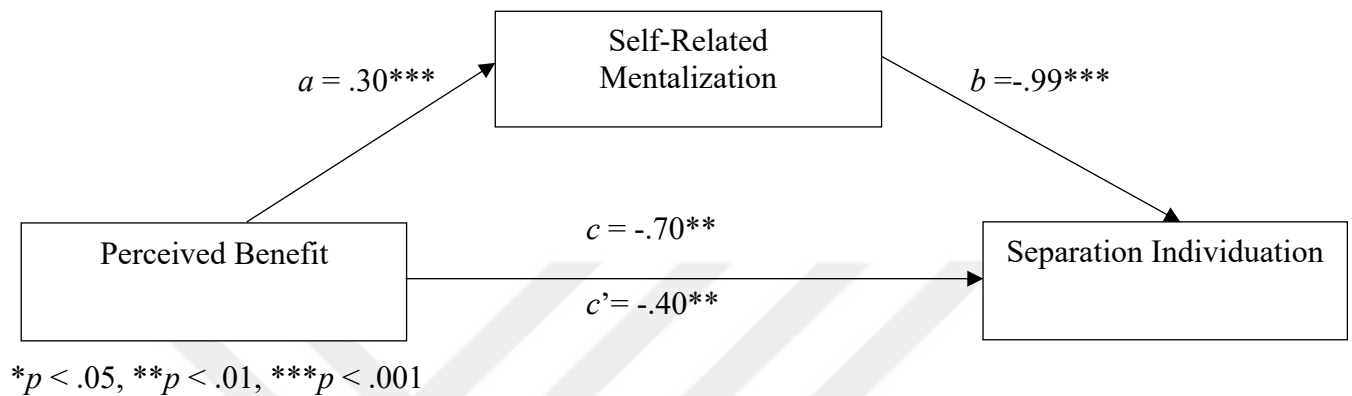
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

3.5.1.3. Mediating Role of Self-related Mentalization in the Relationship between Perceived Benefits and Separation-Individuation

The results of mediation analysis revealed that the total effect of MentS-S on the relationship between perceived benefit and separation-individuation was significant ($\beta = -.70$, $SE = 0.09$, $t = -7.46$, $p < .001$, $CI [-0.91, -0.47]$). The correlation between perceived benefit and self-relation mentalization was significant ($\beta = .30$, $SE = 0.06$, $t = 5.30$, $p < 0.001$, $CI [0.17, 0.42]$). Moreover, self-related mentalization and separation-individuation difficulties were negatively associated ($\beta = -.99$, $SE = 0.08$, $t = -12.48$, $p < 0.001$, $CI [-1.17, -0.80]$). MentS-S mediated the relationship between the perceived benefits of parentification, as the indirect effect of MentS-S between the relationship of perceived benefits and separation-individuation difficulties was significant ($\beta = -0.30$, $SE = 0.06$, $t = -4.88$, $p < .001$, $CI [-0.44, -0.17]$). With the inclusion of MentS-S, the relationship between PB and SI was still significant but the level of effect lessened ($\beta = -.40$, $SE = 0.08$, $t = -5.13$, $p < .001$, $CI [-0.58, -0.22]$). The total model presented in Figure 3 significantly accounted for 46% of the total variance, $F(2,279) = 119.99$, $p < .001$.

Figure 3

Mediation Model for Self-related Mentalization in the Relationship between Perceived Benefits and Separation-Individuation



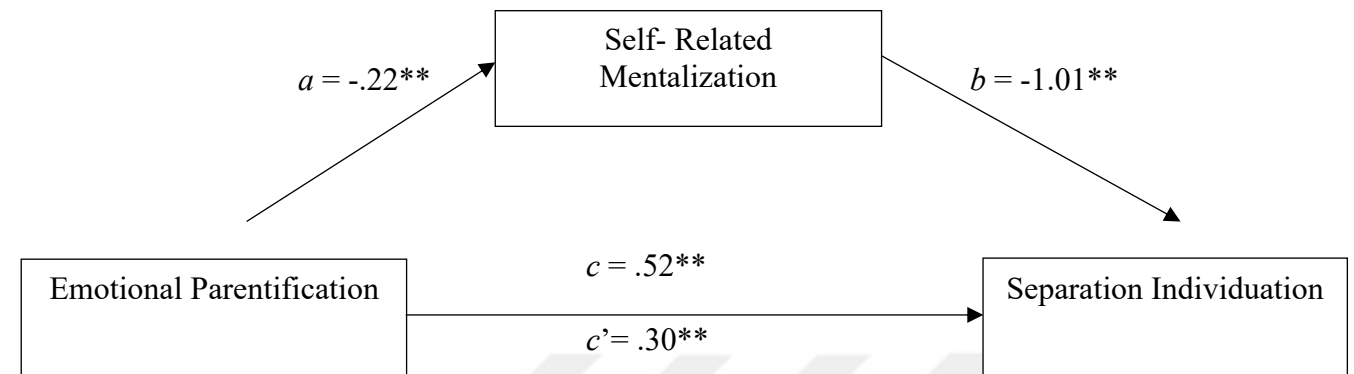
3.5.2. Mediating Role of Self-Related Mentalization between Subscales of Filial Responsibility Scale and Separation Individuation

3.5.2.1. Mediating Role of Self-related Mentalization in the Relationship between Emotional Parentification and Separation-Individuation

The results of mediation analysis revealed that the total effect of MentS-S on the relationship between emotional parentification and separation-individuation difficulties was significant ($\beta = .52$, $SE = 0.08$, $t = 6.73$, $p < .001$, $CI [0.36, 0.68]$). The correlation between emotional parentification and self-relation mentalization was significant ($\beta = -.22$, $SE = 0.05$, $t = -4.79$, $p < 0.001$, $CI [-0.31, -0.13]$). Moreover, self-related mentalization and separation-individuation difficulties were negatively associated ($\beta = -1.01$, $SE = 0.08$, $t = -12.76$, $p < 0.001$, $CI [-1.19, -0.84]$). A positive and significant indirect effect showed that MentS-S mediated this relationship, ($\beta = .22$, $SE = 0.05$, $t = 4.49$, $p < .001$, $CI [0.13, 0.34]$). When including MentS-S into the model, the relationship between emotional parentification and separation-individuation difficulties was still significant but the level of effect lessened ($\beta = .30$, $SE = 0.06$, $t = 4.64$, $p < 0.001$, $CI [0.17, 0.43]$). The total model displayed in Figure 4 significantly accounted for 45% of the total variance, $F(2,279) = 115.99$, $p < .001$.

Figure 4

Mediation Model for Self-Related Mentalization in the Relationship between Emotional Parentification and Separation-Individuation



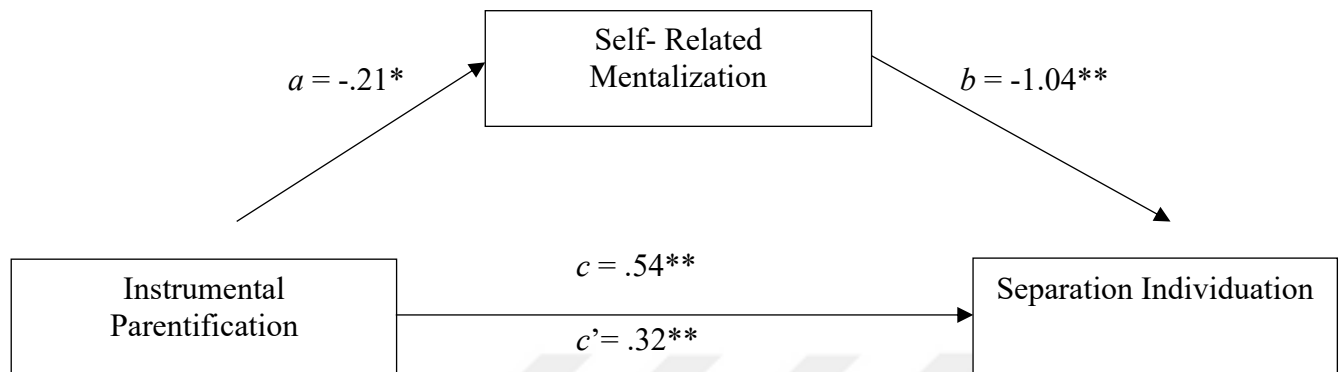
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

3.5.2.2. Mediating Role of Self-Related Mentalization in the Relationship between Instrumental Parentification and Separation-Individuation

The results of mediation analysis revealed that the total effect of MentS-S on the relationship between EP and SI was significant ($\beta = .54$, $SE = 0.09$, $t = 5.74$, $p < .001$, CI [0.33, 0.77]). The correlation between instrumental parentification and self-relation mentalization was significant ($\beta = -.21$, $SE = 0.06$, $t = -3.77$, $p < 0.001$, CI [-0.33, -0.09]). Moreover, self-related mentalization and separation-individuation difficulties were negatively associated ($\beta = -1.04$, $SE = 0.08$, $t = -12.76$, $p < 0.001$, CI [-1.21, -0.87]). A positive and significant indirect effect showed that MentS-S mediated this relationship, ($\beta = .22$, $SE = 0.06$, $t = 3.62$, $p < .001$, CI [0.09, 0.38]). The relationship between EP and SI was still significant, but the level of effect decreased when including MentS-S into the model, ($\beta = .32$, $SE = 0.08$, $t = 4.25$, $p < 0.001$, CI [0.16, 0.49]). The total model depicted in Figure 5 significantly accounted for 45% of the total variance, $F(2,279) = 113.04$, $p < .001$.

Figure 5

Mediation Model for Self-Related Mentalization in the Relationship between Instrumental Parentification and Separation-Individuation



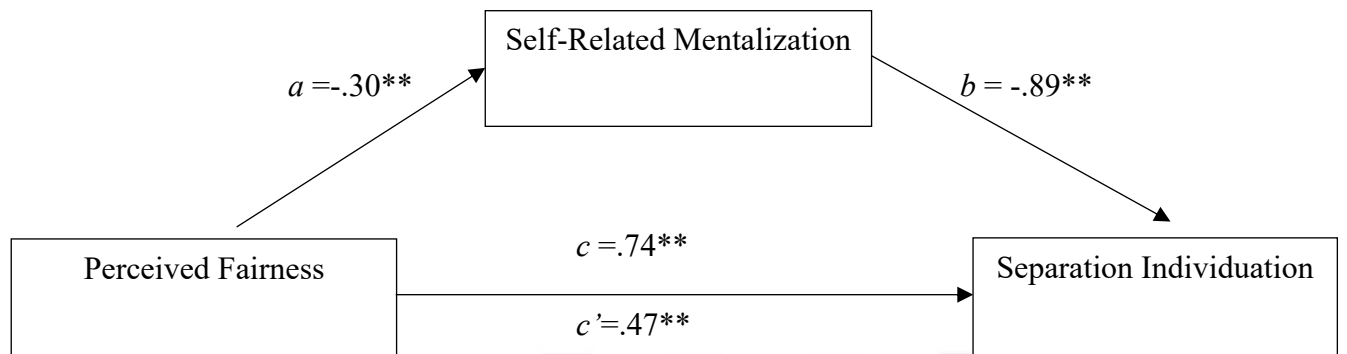
* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

3.5.2.3. Mediating Role of Self-Related Mentalization in the Relationship between Perceived Fairness and Separation-Individuation

The results of mediation analysis revealed that the total effect of self-mentalization on the relationship between PF and SI was significant ($\beta = .74$, $SE = 0.07$, $t = 10.73$, $p < .001$, CI [0.59, 0.89]). The correlation between perceived fairness and self-relation mentalization was significant ($\beta = -.30$, $SE = 0.04$, $t = -7.03$, $p < 0.001$, CI [-0.40, -0.21]). Moreover, self-related mentalization and separation-individuation difficulties were negatively associated ($\beta = -0.89$, $SE = 0.08$, $t = -11.31$, $p < 0.001$, CI [-1.06, -0.71]). A positive and significant indirect effect showed that MentS-S mediated this relationship, ($\beta = 0.27$, $SE = 0.05$, $t = 5.97$, $p < .001$, CI [0.18, 0.39]). Nevertheless, the relationship between PF and SI was still significant but the level of effect decreased ($\beta = .47$, $SE = 0.06$, $t = 7.58$, $p < 0.001$, CI [0.35, 0.60]). The total model significantly accounted for 51% of the total variance, $F(2,279) = 146.27$, $p < .001$.

Figure 6

Mediation Model for Self-Related Mentalization in the Relationship between Perceived Fairness and Separation-Individuation



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

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

4.1. Adaptation of Filial Responsibility Scale (Evlat Sorumluluğu Ölçeği)

The psychometric properties of the Filial Responsibility Scale (Evlat Sorumluluğu Ölçeği) were examined in the aim for adaptation of the scale to Turkish language. The factor structure of Filial Responsibility Scale in Turkish speaking sample was determined as three-factor solution by conducting Principal Component Analysis with Oblimin (Oblique) Rotation. Internal consistency of the scale was satisfactory with Cronbach's alpha values for perceived fairness, emotional parentification and instrumental parentification being .89, .85 and .76. In this study, Perceived Fairness Scale had nine items explaining 22.8% of the variance, similar to the original study in which Perceived Fairness Scale that nine items explained 29% of variance. Item 17 indicating "*My parents often tried to get me to take their sides in conflicts*", was not included in the Turkish version of the Filial Responsibility Scale. Instead, Item 11 indicating "*In my family I often made sacrifices that went unnoticed*" that was included in emotional parentification scale in the original study (Hooper, 2009), and Turkish version (Karagöbek, 2014), was contained in the perceived fairness subscale in this study. The reason why this item was not included in the emotional parentification scale in this study may be that this claim emphasizes on the lack of recognition of the parents, rather than sacrifices that would impose the difficulties. In line with several studies indicating the importance of recognition of the caretaking behavior by parents, it is compatible to include this item in the perceived fairness scale (Jurkovic, 1997; Uluç & Köyden, 2022).

Furthermore, emotional parentification subscale of the original study included seven items explaining 13.4% of the variance. Correspondingly, the Turkish version of the emotional parentification subscale contained seven items explaining 17.02% of the variance. However, items 1, 12, and 27 of the original scale were included neither in emotional parentification subscale nor in the total scale. Instead, items 5, 18, 20, and 30 were included in the Turkish version of emotional parentification subscale. Items contained in both the original version and Turkish version is displayed in Table 16.

Table 16*Items Contained in the Original Version and the Turkish Version of Emotional Parentification Subscale*

Items that are common in the original version and Turkish version	
24) I often felt that my family could not get along without me.	24) Sık sık ailemin bensiz iyi geçinemeyeceğini düşündüm.
9) I often felt like a referee in my family.	9) Kendimi aile içinde bir hakem gibi hissedirim.
2) At times I felt I was the only one my mother or father could turn to.	2) Bazen, annem ve babamın yardım isteyecekleri kişinin sadece ben olduğumu hissedirdim.
Comparison of the items that are not common in the original version and Turkish version.	
1) I did a lot of the shopping (e.g., for groceries or clothes) for my family.	5) Ailemde sık sık yaşıma göre olgun olduğum söylenir.
27) I helped manage my family's financial affairs (e.g., making decisions about purchases or paying bills).	18) Ailemin bana ihtiyacı olmasa bile ben kendimi onlara karşı sorumlu hissedirdim.
12) It seemed like family members were always bringing me their problems.	20) Bazen anne babamdan daha çok sorumluluk sahibiymişim gibi gelirdi.
11) In my family I often made sacrifices that went unnoticed.	30) Aile içinde sıklıkla bir çocuktan ziyade bir yetişkin gibi hissedirdim.

While two items, specifically, Item 1 and 27 that are included in the original study are about the child's financial contribution in the family, it is comprehensible that these items are not contained in emotional parentification subscale. In contrast to the expectation that these items would be included in the instrumental parentification, it is possible that doing shopping, and managing financial affairs are attributed to the men's responsibilities (Köyden ve Uluç, 2018). Considering that the major proportion of the sample consisted of women participants, it is comprehensible that instrumental parentification subscale included items (Items 3, 6, 8, 13, 22, and 29) that are associated with doing laundry, helping household chores, taking care of the siblings that are shown in Table 18.

Instrumental parentification subscale in the original scale had five items which explained 6.5% of the total variance. In this study, the instrumental parentification subscale contained six items explaining 14.52% of the variance. The items are shown in Table 17. Items 8 and 29 emphasizing the financial responsibilities that may even hinder their school work were added to the instrumental parentification subscale. It is comprehensible that the instrumental parentification scale included items that are related to academic disadvantages related to taking on parental roles in terms of financial concerns in this study.

Table 17*Items Contained in the Original Version and the Turkish Version of Instrumental Parentification Subscale*

Items that are common in the original version and Turkish version	
3) I helped my brothers or sisters a lot with their homework.	3) Kardeşlerime ev ödevlerinde çok yardım ettim.
6) I was frequently responsible for the physical care of some member of my family (e.g., washing, feeding, or dressing him or her).	6) Sıklıkla, ailemdeki bir üyenin fiziksel bakımında görevliydim. (yıkamak, beslemek, giydirmek gibi)
13) I often did the family's laundry.	13) Sık sık ailenin çamaşır yıkama işlerini yapardım.
22) My parents expected me to help discipline my siblings.	22) Anne ve babam benden kardeşlerimi yetiştirmeye yardımcı olmamı beklerdi.
Comparison of the items that are not common in the original version and Turkish version	
19) I was rarely asked to look after my siblings	8) Aileme para getirmek için çalıştım.
	29) Evdeki sorumluluklarım yüzünden okulu devam ettirmek bazen zor olurdu.

Parentification is a construct encompassing a wide range of components. Thus, this study has contributed to the literature by adaptation of Filial Responsibility Scale to compare different types of parentification, as suggested by previous literature (Dariotis, 2023, Hooper and Wallace, 2010). Correlations between Filial Responsibility Scale and Parentification Questionnaire indicated the consistency of the two scales assessing parentification regarding the construct validity of Filial Responsibility Scale. Although the adaptation of the scale has revealed sufficient psychometric properties, further analyses of test-retest reliability with a homogeneous sample considering gender and SES are recommended.

Comparing the two scales assessing parentification, the correlation between emotional parentification and parent-focused parentification ($r=.82$), was higher than the correlation between emotional parentification and sibling-focused parentification ($r=.57$). On the other hand, the correlation of instrumental parentification with sibling-focused parentification was higher ($r=.76$) than with parent-focused parentification ($r=.56$). This finding is in line with previous studies (Hooper et al., 2011; Uluç & Köyden, 2018) demonstrating that parent-focused parentification is associated with the emotional tasks more than instrumental tasks. In contrast, sibling-focused parentification is related to instrumental tasks more than emotional tasks. Perceived benefits had significantly negative correlations with both emotional parentification ($r=-.34$), and instrumental parentification ($r=-.35$). Perceived benefits subscale was also negatively associated with the perceived unfairness subscale ($r=-.74$). These results can be interpreted as that consideration of parentification as beneficial or unfair does not depend on the type of the tasks.

4.2. Gender and SES-based differences

Regarding gender, women reported significantly higher than men on the perceived fairness, MentS-S, MentS-O, MentS-M, and MentS-Total. In line with the previous findings, emotional parentification, parent-focused parentification, and sibling-focused parentification did not differ in terms of gender (Uluç & Köyden, 2022). Gender did not influence the scores of instrumental parentification either, as opposed to previous literature (Uluç & Köyden, 2022). For the perceived fairness scale, women scored higher on their perception of parentification as unfair. This result was not supported by the opposing findings that men scored higher on perceived unfairness scale (Arellano et al., 2018; Jankowski et al., 2011; Uluç & Köyden, 2022), and lower on perceived benefits subscale (Köyden & Uluç, 2018).

This might have resulted from the sample being heterogeneous in terms of gender, with the 72% of the sample consisting of female participants. Another reason why women's perception of unfairness regarding parentification is much more salient, and there was no difference of gender on instrumental parentification in this study; might be speculated to result from the sample's inclusion of participants with a wide range of age including middle adulthood. Specifically, the mean age of the participants was approximately 20 years of age in those studies indicating the men's reporting of perceived unfairness of parentification and instrumental parentification as higher than women. In contrast, this study has a mean of 40.7 years of age. During emergent adulthood years, men are expected to contribute to the family, which may intensify their negative perception of the parentification. One can argue that during emerging adulthood, women who take on parenting roles may be appreciated for their behavior and competency, such as being a well-sibling or special child. The role of being a caretaker may be expected from women without recognizing the sacrifice with increasing age. Hence, the detrimental effects of being deprived of childhood activities and excessive burden may be experienced later in life. Moreover, as Kağıtçıbaşı (1990) suggested, societal change influenced the value of children by changing from economic and utilitarian to psychological in parallel to an increase in the preference for girls as children. Thus, in this study with a mean age of 40.7 years and consisted of mostly women might include participants from the previous generation in which the value of the children was tied to their contribution to the utilitarian matters, and preference for boys was higher. Hence, women from the previous generation might have considered the parentification as unfair because of their emotional burden not being recognized. In conclusion, the change from economic values to psychological values might have influenced the difference of gender on perceived benefit and fairness of the parentification in other studies with samples representing emerging adulthood.

Women scored significantly higher than men in MentS-S, MentS-O, MentS-M, and MentS-Total Scores. This is partly in line with the study of Dimitrijevic et al. (2018) indicating women outscore men in total scores and subscales except for MentS-O, and the study of Törenli-Kaya et. al. (2021) showing the same patterns except for the MentS-S and MentS-O. Previous studies regarding mentalization abilities assessed by different constructs have also supported this finding that women had more nuanced abilities to mentalize (Desatnik et al., 2023; Tollenaar & Overgaauw, 2020).

Regarding SES, participants of low SES scored significantly lower than either middle or high SES groups in Perceived Fairness, MentS-M, Splitting, Differentiation, and Relationship Problems. In line with that, participants from low SES backgrounds had significantly lower scores in Perceived Benefits. The findings related to the perception of fairness and benefits are in line with the literature emphasizing the influencing role of children's perception of the situation on the outcomes (Jurkovic, 1997). In Turkish culture, regardless of the economic class, taking care of siblings and helping with household chores are expected of the children. In economically disadvantaged families, children start to work from an early age, contributing to the finances and emotional caretaking of the family. Since the early labor regarding both emotional and instrumental tasks within the family is considered to be part of normative role distributions in the family, it is comprehensible that only perceived fairness and benefits showed a difference in lower SES classes where caretaking expectancies may exceed the capacity of the child. In lower socioeconomic classes, the burdens related to tasks demanded from the children may hinder their age-appropriate development compared to children from middle to high SES backgrounds, resulting in their consideration of the conditions as unfair. This finding might be speculated to influence their separation-individuation scores, as the importance of separation-individuation as being a psychological developmental milestone might be underplayed by physiological needs in the lower socioeconomic classes.

4.3. Correlation Between Variables

As factor analyses indicated that Filial Responsibility Scale has sufficient psychometric properties for further analysis, parentification was measured by two different scales that assessed different characteristics of parentification. The hypotheses in this study were presented in the Table 18.

Table 18*Hypotheses of the Study*

Hypotheses of the Study	Accepted/Rejected
H.1: Parentification and separation-individuation problems are positively correlated.	Accepted
H.1.1.: Parent-focused parentification and sibling-focused parentification are positively correlated with separation-individuation problems.	Accepted
H.1.2.: Perceived benefits of parentification is negatively correlated with separation-individuation problems.	Accepted
H.1.3: Emotional parentification, instrumental parentification, and perceived unfairness are positively correlated with separation-individuation problems.	Accepted
H.2: Self-related mentalization is negatively correlated with separation-individuation problems.	Accepted
H.3: Self-related mentalization is negatively correlated with parent-focused parentification, sibling-focused parentification, emotional parentification, instrumental parentification, and perceived unfairness of parentification.	Accepted
H.4: Self-related mentalization is positively correlated with the perceived benefits of parentification.	Accepted
H.5: Other-related mentalization is positively correlated with parent-focused parentification, sibling-focused parentification, emotional parentification, instrumental parentification, and perceived unfairness of parentification.	Partially Accepted
H.6: Other-related mentalization is negatively correlated with the perceived benefits of parentification.	Rejected
H.7: Self-related mentalization mediates the relationship between parentification dimensions (parent-focused parentification, sibling-focused parentification, perceived benefits of emotional parentification, instrumental parentification, and perceived unfairness of parentification) and separation individuation problems.	Accepted

In line with the hypotheses, the increase in separation individuation total score and subscales of splitting, differentiation, relationship problems resulted in the decrease in perceived benefit, and increase in parent focused, sibling focused, emotional and instrumental parentification. Similar to the results of perceived benefits, perceived fairness (adaletsizlik/unfairness) increased with all subscales and total scores of separation individuation difficulties, with a moderate correlation value ($r=.44$ to $r=.54$).

The finding that the correlation between separation-individuation difficulties and subscales of perceived benefits and perceived fairness surpasses the correlations among other subscales, might support the idea of separation-individuation as a psychological birth of the infant as an individuated being (Mahler, 1975). In other words, integrating good and bad representations of self and other in separation individuation is dependent on the perception of self and other as distinct individuals constituting both good and bad qualities. It is comprehensible that immature defenses related to separation-individuation such as splitting decrease with the increase in perceived benefit and decrease in perceived unfairness. Klein (1946) delineated how depressive position in which gratitude takes over envy, is preceded by paranoid-schizoid position in which good and bad qualities are split and colored by envy. In her theory, the paranoid-schizoid position is defined as a position in which aggressive drives are projected onto others by splitting mechanism. To give an example, a hungry and frustrated child who is not yet differentiated between self and other, envies the mother as ideal, considering her as holding all breast to herself. Splitting in the paranoid-schizoid position works as a mechanism in which projection of bad qualities on the mother experienced as the mother's being persecuting, making the child hungry in this example. With increasing interactions between mother and child, the child acknowledges that good breast who nourishes him or her is also the same person who had been experienced before as persecuting by the child when he or she was hungry. In depressive position, good and bad qualities become integrated into a whole object presentation of mother. Thus, gratitude replaces envy with reduced use of primitive defenses such as splitting and projective identification. Hence, perceived benefit or fairness might be considered as a milestone towards integration of good and bad during separation individuation, similar to the depressive position in Kleinian terms.

Regarding parentification assessed by Parentification Inventory and Filial Responsibility Scale, the hypotheses were supported by the finding that the increase in parent

focused parentification, sibling focused parentification, emotional parentification, instrumental parentification, and perceived unfairness of parentification and a decrease in perceived benefits of parentification led to decrease in self-related mentalization. As hypothesized, reversing roles of parent and child had an aggravating effect on providing a safe interpersonal context in which the child's emotions, thoughts, and desires are reflected and recognized, so that the child can develop the capacity for mentalization.

For the other-related mentalizing, the hypotheses were partially supported, the other-related mentalization dimension had significant and positive correlations only with emotional parentification, instrumental parentification and parent-focused parentification but not with other dimensions of parentification. It represents an interesting picture in which emotional, instrumental, and parent-focused parentification show opposite directions regarding self and other-related mentalizing. In other words, participants who took on parental roles related to emotional tasks, instrumental tasks and toward their parents, had a decrease in their self-related mentalization scores and increase in their other-related mentalization scores.

Interestingly, motivation to mentalization was significantly associated with only perceived fairness (adaletsizlik) in all study variables ($r=.17$). It is also noteworthy that among mentalization measures, only motivation to mentalization had significant differences in terms of SES. In lower SES, the unfairness of the parentification was reported more, as it was associated with a decrease in motivation to mentalization. It may be speculated that the capacity to think about other's mind comes from necessity rather than a motivation in the context of parentification.

Regarding the relationship between mentalization and separation individuation, the increase in the self-related mentalization scores led to a decrease in all subscales of Separation Individuation and total score of separation individuation difficulties. To a lesser degree, the same pattern was also present in the association between MentS-Total and separation-individuation scores. However, this pattern failed to be present for other-related mentalization and motivation to mentalization. In other words, separation individuation problems assessed by splitting, relationship problems, and differentiation dimensions were associated with lower self-related mentalization and total scores of mentalization, while other-mentalization and motivation to mentalization did not have an association with separation individuation problems. This finding supports the hypothesis that separation

individuation scores are associated with self-mentalization scores, while other-mentalization and motivation to mentalization are not related to separation individuation problems. Thus, this finding contributes to the mentalization literature by discerning the role of different dimensions of mentalization on separation individuation.

Taking all the points regarding the distinction between self-mentalization and other mentalization scores into consideration, the question arises as to whether the quality of mentalization is robust in the context of emotional, instrumental, and parent-focused parentification. In other words, if the individuals who have parentification histories are not good at mentalizing themselves, do they mentalize others accurately as reported? Supporting the multidimensional nature of mentalization, the results regarding self and other distinctions have crucial importance in investigating the specific impairments of mentalization (Luyten, 2020), especially in the context of parentification. In one of the few examples, Ballesepí (2022) revealed the moderating role of self-mentalization but no other-mentalization on the relationship between BPD characteristics and somatization. As previous literature suggested, in emotionally aroused contexts self and other distinction capacity becomes impaired, and errors in interpretations of other's minds increase. In this context, mentalization errors, especially hypermentalizing in which attributing rigid mental states to others may occur (Sharp & Vanwoerden, 2015). In BPD, hyper-mentalization or pseudo-mentalization is prevalent as a form of an excessive amount of thinking about other's minds in the presence of anxiety, while the representations of others are generally rigid and may include the projected parts of self. In hypermentalizing, social cues of others may be interpreted by automatic mentalizing rather than elaborative and cognitive mentalizing, resulting in inflexible attributions of other's minds in response to an intense interpersonal context, even in the absence of any supporting evidence of attributions (Sharp et al., 2011). Thus, it is similar to the mechanism of projection in which disowned and unmodulated parts are projected onto others. In families with undifferentiated boundaries, a lack of reflective functioning and intolerance to the ambivalence of good and bad aspects may be exhibited as projecting disowned parts onto others. This interpretation is in parallel with the previous literature regarding the association between parentification and the use of a splitting defense mechanism (Wells & Jones, 1998). As Mahler (1975) remarked one of the goals during the rapprochement phase is tolerating ambivalence, assuming opacity of self and other's minds constituting differing thoughts with a wide range of possibilities is crucial in separation-individuation. Further studies on mentalization errors related to defense mechanisms in the

context of parentification are recommended for a comprehensive investigation of the subjective experience of parentification.

In the context of parentification whereby the caregiver's inability to reflect on the child's mind is exacerbated by the demand for reflective functioning from the child, it is not surprising that being hypervigilant and making assumptions about other's minds have survival value. The increase in the scores of other mentalization and decrease in self-related mentalization can also be interpreted as a manifestation of searching for recognition and understanding of self in the eyes of others. Similar to Winnicott's (1965) false self phenomenon, an increase in other-mentalization and a decrease in self-mentalization scores may be interpreted as an adaptation to external demands. As Fonagy et al., (2002) delineated how sense of agency is developed through the reflective and contingent responses of the caregiver, the child internalizes what is reflected in the eyes of the parent as self. In the context of parentification, the child might use tremendous efforts to see himself or herself if there is limited access to parental reflection, which may explain the increase in other-mentalization scores. When the caregiver expects the children the caregiving behavior by reversing the roles, sense of agency and authenticity might replace with the expectancies of others. In line with disorganized attachment and role reversal patterns that were discussed in previous chapters, the child might use an active strategy to think about others' minds rigidly in the aroused interpersonal situation. Thus, the quality, rather than the quantity of the recognition given by the child who had not been reflected by the eyes and mind of a functioning adult should be further studied in the light of mentalization literature.

4.4. Mediation Analyses

Supporting the hypotheses, mediation analyses for each parentification dimension have shown that self-related mentalization partially mediated the relationship between separation-individuation difficulties and parentification assessed by parent-focused parentification, sibling-focused parentification, perceived benefits of parentification, emotional parentification, instrumental parentification and perceived fairness of parentification.

Bergman and Fahey (1999) indicated that the capacity to mentalize and think about the minds of self and others is the ability to integrate positive and negative feelings toward

maternal and self-representations during the phases of separation-individuation. Thus, integrating good and bad aspects of self about others is accomplished through interactions with an adult who can provide marked mirroring in response to a child's authentic being. Hence, the child's developing capacity to reflect on his or her thoughts, emotions, and behavior is facilitated by an adult who can tolerate the child's ambivalence, dependency, and autonomous needs of the child during rapprochement (Mahler, 1975). When the caregiver reverses roles in a way that the child lacks the necessary parental responsiveness and self-other boundaries, the child cannot learn to mentalize self, tolerate the ambivalence of love and hate, and delineate clear boundaries of self and other so that he or she can represent self and other as distinct and individuated beings. Thus, children who have a parentification history might lack the necessary mirroring and recognition of their mental states, resulting in impaired mentalization of self and others, which hinders their separation-individuation processes. The inability to mentalize self is pertinent to aberrations in integrating self and other representations in coherent ways that reflect authentic and individuated representations that lay the groundwork for healthy relationships.

4.5. Cultural Considerations

Recent conceptualizations within psychoanalysis and developmental psychology underlined the importance of the complexity of self which constitutes coexisting polarities of autonomy and relatedness, as opposed to thinking about dichotomous polarities of self and other. Güler Okman Fişek (2018) thoroughly discussed the cultural psychoanalytic perspectives with contemporary developmental studies to converge on the idea that the individuation process is a complex interplay of sense of self, other, and we-ness, that comprises one's identity colored by the interaction with others. Grounded on developmental studies of Beebe and Lachmann's (2002) microanalytic investigations of infant-parent interactions, the child learns how the mother regulates herself, how interactive regulation of self and others congregate on the moments of the meeting of the two minds, and how these capacities are internalized to accommodate self to regulate through the interaction with the mother. Thus, a dynamic and reciprocal relationship between self-regulation and interactive regulation polarities constitutes the subjective experience of self as a contextual construct. In line with Kağıtbaşı's (2005) notion of autonomous-relational self-construal, and Blatt's (2008) notion of relatedness and definition polarities; the balance of self-regulation and interactive regulation depends on the parental coordination of these poles, similar to parental

reflective functioning. Thus, self-regulating or interactive regulating capacities come to the fore depending on the parental sensitivity that is heavily influenced by cultural variations in emotional socialization (Harkness et al. 2000). In the microanalysis of interaction between infants and parents, Fişek (2008) underlined the importance of cultural variations in which direction regulatory capacities are tilted. In other words, culture plays an important role in emphasizing self-assertion or reciprocal regulation of togetherness. She discussed how Alan Roland (1988), a cultural psychoanalyst attempted to redefine psychoanalytic concepts such as self by adding familial self to the Western conceptualization of individuated self. Roland (1988) emphasized the symbiosis and reciprocity in Eastern cultures, in addition to Western conceptualizations of ego psychoanalytic perspective on the separation individuation. Fişek (2018) tactfully connects the two conceptualizations, similar to Kağıtçıbaşı (1990, 2005) supporting the claim that self-experience and individuation constitute multiple selves in Turkish culture in which autonomous and relational strivings can coexist. She remarked that just as the relational psychoanalyst Arnold Modell's (1993) understanding of self as the multilayered; private self that is not shared with others, and relational and social self that interacts with other people can coexist in one's identity, especially in Turkish culture which represents a unique amalgam of autonomy and relatedness. Hence, it may be speculated that, in this study in which variables of mentalization and separation-individuation are assessed by self-report measures, the private self in Modell's terms which is not shared with other people may be not as salient as the relational self that may be reflected in the results of the decrease in self-related mentalization and the increase in other-related mentalization in the context of parentification. It may be speculated that the emotions and thoughts that are not shared with other people in private self might not be reflected in the results of this self-report study whereby the participants are expected to share their inner world in a culture that individual emotional expression is not encouraged as much as relational expression or we-ness. Thus, it is crucial to consider the individuation process as a complex and multilayered construct that may exhibit different dimensions of self, other, and togetherness from a cultural perspective.

Moreover, from a cultural lens, mentalization profiles may differ depending on the different cultures, grounded on conceptualizing mentalization as a multidimensional construct. In line with this claim, Fonagy and Campbell (2019) in their commentary on Aival-Naveh et al.'s article (2019) that studied cross-cultural examination of mentalization, stressed the importance of mentalization construct as conceptualized by conducting research with WEIRD (White, Educated, Industrialized, Rich, and Democratic) samples that mostly

consisted of nuclear families. Hence, they underscored the scientific endeavor to study mentalization with the consideration that family is an interrelated system embedded in a larger social context with variations in cultural values. As Fişek (2018) emphasized, in a large family context, the individuation process is colored by diverse role-identifications with relatives, which makes individuation process depend not only solely on parent-child interaction, but also on the interactions with other relatives such as grandmother, aunt, or uncle in the extended family. As mentalization capacity reflects the transmission of cultural values across generations by parental socialization (Harkness et al., 2000), mentalization profiles in this study may exhibit diverse and complex interplay of self and other based mentalization in accordance with the Turkish culture that consider relatedness as an important value. Hence, similar to previous studies that underlined the importance of cross-cultural and within-culture examinations, specific applications of mentalization-based treatments are considered crucial in developing treatment plans congruent with the Turkish culture (Halfon & Coşkun, 2021).

4.5. Limitations and Clinical Implications

One of the limitations of this study is that the participants consisted of mostly females from middle socioeconomic class. Future studies conducted with diverse samples in terms of gender and socioeconomic class are recommended for the external validity of the results. Furthermore, in addition to the quantitative measures based on self-reports; qualitative methods, and projective tests are recommended to deepen the investigation of the unconscious dynamics and subjective experience of individuals with a parentification history. Not only mentalization errors but also separation-individuation difficulties assessed by verbal and projective accounts would also contribute to the literature. Similar to previous studies emphasis on the influencing role of methodology on the results (Aival-Naveh et al., 2019), reflective functioning assessed by the verbal accounts of Adult Attachment Interview (Fonagy et al., 2016), neuroimaging and tasks related to mentalization performance such as Reading the Mind in the Eyes Task (Baron-Cohen et al, 2001) are further recommended for a more thorough examination of mentalization regarding underlying implicit and affective dimensions. Furthermore, this study aimed to assess role reversal dynamics within the family in the context of reversing parental roles. Since boundary violations and roles in which the children can vary, assessment tools and qualitative research that investigate the intricate

mechanisms of boundary dissolutions within the family are needed for a more comprehensive understanding of the specific roles (romantic partner, mediator, friend) the children may take.

Role-reversal dynamics within the family lays the groundwork for adult relationships and even psychopathology. When the child takes on excessive parental roles related to emotional or instrumental tasks, the caretaking burden might impair their identity development as being a crucial factor for mental health. This study has delineated the partial mediating role of self-mentalization in the relationship between parentification and separation individuation. Mentalization is conceptually related to constructs such as psychological mindedness, self-awareness, mindfulness, and empathy (Choi-Kain & Gunderson, 2008). Psychological mindedness is considered one of the main factors influencing psychotherapy outcomes and suitability for psychoanalytic therapies (Conte et al., 1990). The capacity to think about the meaning of one's thoughts and emotions in a reflective manner is the constituent of the psychotherapy process. It is also regarded as the foundation on which motivation to change in a therapeutical relationship lies. Therefore, it is fundamental to take self-mentalization capacity into account considering the psychotherapy process with individuals who have parentification histories.

In the context of parentification, impairments in parental reflective functioning are exacerbated by several reasons including parental mental health-related issues, physical problems, and socioeconomic challenges that result in carrying excessive burden by parents. As a result, the inability to provide a safe environment for interactive regulation may result in the intergenerational transmission of role-reversal patterns. In order to break the cycle of carrying emotional and instrumental responsibilities from an early age, psychosocial interventions regarding parental reflective functioning are recommended for supporting parents and preventing possible role-reversal patterns within families.

4.6. Conclusion

Taking all the points into consideration, one of the unique contributions of this study was to have conducted an adaptation study constituting a representative sample with a wide range of age and demographic characteristics. By adapting Filial Responsibility Scale (Evlat Sorumluluk Ölçeği) into Turkish, this study accomplished the aim of the contribution of Filial Responsibility Scale as a measurement tool that assesses parentification following its

multidimensional nature. Assessing parentification in terms of emotional parentification, instrumental parentification, and perceived fairness provides valuable insights for a more detailed account of studying parentification (Dariotis, 2023). Moreover, the results indicated the importance of the complex interplay between self and other mentalization in relation to separation individuation difficulties in the context of parentification. In other words, problems in parental responsiveness in the context of parentification may pave the way for the impairments in self-regulative capacities that has an influencing role on the tendency to think about others at the expense of self. As a result, separating self-representation from other representations in the individuation process may be exacerbated by the parentification. In conclusion, this study investigated the influence of self-mentalization in the relationship between parentification and separation individuation.



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APPENDIX A: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

BİLGİLENDİRİLMİŞ ONAM FORMU

Bu araştırma Yeditepe Üniversitesi Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı bünyesinde Doç. Dr. Neslihan Zabcı danışmanlığında Ezgi Güneş tarafından tez kapsamında yürütülmektedir. Bu form sizi araştırma koşulları hakkında bilgilendirmek için hazırlanmıştır.

Çalışmanın amacı ailedeki yaşantıların kişilerin duygusal farkındalıkları, ilişkilene ve bireyleşme süreçlerine etkisini araştırmaktır.

Bize Nasıl Yardımcı Olmanızı İsteyeceğiz?

Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ederseniz, sizden beklenen, ankette yer alan ailedeki yaşantılara ve kendimiz ve diğerleriyle ilişkilerimize dair bir dizi soruyu yanıtlamanızdır. Anket 4 bölüme ayrılmış anket soruları ve demografik bilgilerin cevaplandırıldığı 5. bölümden oluşmaktadır. Bu çalışmaya katılım yaklaşık 10 dakika sürmektedir.

Katılımınızla ilgili bilmeniz gerekenler:

Bu çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Herhangi bir yaptırıma veya cezaya maruz kalmadan çalışmaya katılmayı reddedebilir veya çalışmayı bırakabilirsiniz. Çalışma dahilinde kimlik bilgileriniz toplanmayacaktır. Sağladığınız diğer veriler yalnızca araştırma dahilinde kullanılacaktır. Elde edilecek bilgiler araştırmacılar tarafından toplu halde değerlendirilecek ve bilimsel yayımlarda rapor edilmek için kullanılacaktır. Çalışmaya katılmanız durumunda literatüre bu konu hakkında destek sağlayarak veri eklememize yardımcı olacaksınız.

Anket, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak katılım sırasında kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz gerekçe belirtmeden çalışmayı sonlandırabilir ve araştırmacı ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz. Soruların doğru veya yanlış cevapları yoktur, sizden yaşantınıza en uygun olan cevapları içtenlikle cevaplamanızı bekliyoruz.

- Bu bilgilendirilmiş onam belgesini okudum ve anladım. Bu araştırmaya katılmayı hür irademle kabul ediyorum.

APPENDIX B: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

Yaşınız:

Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın Erkek Diğer

Eğitim Durumunuz: (Lütfen eğitim durumunuzu işaretledikten sonra mezun ya da halen öğrenci olup olmadığınızı işaretleyiniz)

İlköğretim	<input type="radio"/>	Mezun <input type="radio"/>	Öğrenci <input type="radio"/>
Lise	<input type="radio"/>	Mezun <input type="radio"/>	Öğrenci <input type="radio"/>
Lisans	<input type="radio"/>	Mezun <input type="radio"/>	Öğrenci <input type="radio"/>
Yüksek Lisans	<input type="radio"/>	Mezun <input type="radio"/>	Öğrenci <input type="radio"/>
Doktora	<input type="radio"/>	Mezun <input type="radio"/>	Öğrenci <input type="radio"/>

Çalışıyor musunuz? Evet Hayır

Çalışıyorsanız, mesleğiniz

Medeni durumunuz: İlişkisi yok İlişkisi var Evli Boşanmış Eş kaybı

Kiminle yaşıyorsunuz?

Aile ile Tek başıma Partnerimle Arkadaşlarımla Diğer

Ekonomik durumunuz:

Düşük Alt-Orta Orta Orta-Yüksek Yüksek

Büyüdüğünüz ailenin ekonomik durumu:

Düşük Alt-Orta Orta Orta-Yüksek Yüksek

Yetiştüğünüz aile tipini nasıl tanımlarsınız?

Çekirdek Aile (anne, baba, kardeşlerle birlikte)

Geniş Aile (akrabalarla birlikte/aynı binada)

Tek ebeveynle

Diğer

Yaşamınızın çoğunu nerede geçirdiniz?

Büyükşehir İl İlçe Kasaba Köy

Kardeşiniz var mı? Evet Hayır

Varsa kaç kardeşiniz var?

Ailenizin kaçınıcı çocuğusunuz?

Ebeveynleriniz hayatta mı?

İkisi de hayatta

Sadece annem hayatta Babanızı kaybettiğinizde siz kaç yaşındaydınız?.....

Sadece babam hayatta Annenizi kaybettiğinizde siz kaç yaşındaydınız?

İkisi de hayatta değil

Anne ve Babanız: Birlikteler Ayrılar Anne ve/veya babam hayatta değil

Ayrılar ise, ayrıldıklarında siz kaç yaşındaydınız?

Büyürken bakımınızdan büyük ölçüde sorumlu olan kişi(leri) işaretleyiniz.

Anne Baba Üvey Anne Üvey Baba Abla/Ağabey Büyükanne/Büyükbaba Akraba

Bakıcı Kreş/Anaokulu Diğer

Büyürken bakımından sorumlu olduğunuz kişi(leri) işaretleyiniz.

Anne Baba Üvey Anne Üvey Baba Abla/Ağabey Büyükanne/Büyükbaba Akraba

Diğer

Annenizin eğitim durumu:

Okuryazar değil

Sadece okuryazar

İlkokul

Ortaokul

Lise

Lisans

Lisansüstü

Babanızın eğitim durumu:

Okuryazar değil

Sadece okuryazar

İlkokul

Ortaokul

Lise

Lisans

Lisansüstü

Çocukluğunuzu düşündüğünüzde, anne ve babanızın ilişkisini nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?

Çok kötü Kötü Ne iyi Ne kötü İyi Çok iyi

Annenizle ilişkinizi nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?

Çok kötü Kötü Ne iyi Ne kötü İyi Çok iyi

Babanızla ilişkinizi nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?

Çok kötü Kötü Ne iyi Ne kötü İyi Çok iyi

Ailenizde fiziksel rahatsızlığı olan biri var mı/mıydı?

Evet Hayır Var ise kim(ler) ve nasıl bir rahatsızlığı var/dı?

Ailenizde psikolojik rahatsızlığı olan biri var mı/mıydı?

Evet Hayır Var ise kim(ler) ve nasıl bir rahatsızlığı var/dı?

Ailenizde özel gereksinimli bir birey var mı/mıydı?

Evet Hayır Var ise kim?

Ailenizde fiziksel şiddet davranışları var mıydı?

Evet Hayır

Ailenizde psikolojik şiddet davranışları var mıydı?

Evet Hayır

Herhangi bir psikolojik destek aldınız mı?

Evet Hayır Evet ise, halen alıyor musunuz? Evet Hayır

APPENDIX C: PARENTIFICATION INVENTORY

EBEVEYNLEŞME ENVANTERİ

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

BU SORULARIN SİZİN BÜYÜDÜĞÜNÜZ DÖNEM HAKKINDA OLDUĞUNU UNUTMAYIN.

Yanıt Seçenekleri:

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

	Durum	Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Kimi zaman	Sık sık	Her zaman
1	Üzgün olduklarında ya da duygusal zorluklar yaşadıklarında, kardeş(ler)imi rahatlatmam beklendi.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2	Anne babam sık sık diğer aile üyeleri hakkındaki sırları benimle paylaştı.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3	Benim yaşadığım yerdeki çoğu çocuk aile bütçesine katkıda bulunurdu.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4	Aile üyelerimle ilgilenmek zorunda olduğumda bile, mutlu ya da üzgün olabilecek zamana sahiptim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5	Anne babama önemli kararlar almalarında yardım ettim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6	Her gece kardeşlerimin yattığından emin olmak benim görevimdi.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7	Ailem tarafından takdir edildiğimi hissettim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8	Benim yaşımdaki çoğu çocuk benimle aynı rol ve sorumluluklara sahipti.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9	Ailevi sorumluluklarım olsa da oyun ya da okul ödevleri için zamanım olurdu.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10	Çalıştım ve aile bütçesine katkıda bulundum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11	Kardeşlerimin (kız ya da erkek) ev ödevlerini tamamlamalarına yardımcı olmaktan sorumluydum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12	Ailemde bir anlaşmazlık olduğunda aile üyelerimin yardım istediği ilk kişiydim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13	Kardeşlerimi disipline eden esas kişi bendim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

APPENDIX D: FILIAL RESPONSIBILITY SCALE

Filial Sorumluluk Ölçeği-Yetişkin Versiyonu

Aşağıdaki 30 durum sizin çocukluğunuzda aile içinde yaşamış olabileceğiniz olayları belirtmektedir. Her kişinin tecrübeleri birbirinden farklı olduğundan, doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur. Lütfen sadece size en uygun şekilde cevaplamaya çalışın.

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
1) Ailem için birçok alışveriş yaptım(market,elbise,vb.)	1	2	3	4	5
2) Bazen, annem ve babamın yardım isteyecekleri kişinin sadece ben olduğumu hissedirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
3) Kardeşlerime ev ödevlerinde çok yardım ettim.	1	2	3	4	5
4) Ailem her ne kadar iyi niyetli olsa da, onların tüm ihtiyaçlarımı karşılayabileceklerine güvenemem.	1	2	3	4	5
5) Ailemde sık sık yaşıma göre olgun olduğum söylenir.	1	2	3	4	5
6) Sıklıkla, ailemdeki bir üyenin fiziksel bakımında görevliydim. (yıkamak, beslemek, giydirmek gibi)	1	2	3	4	5
7) Ailemde benim duygularıma genelde pek itibar edilmez.	1	2	3	4	5
8) Aileme para getirmek için çalıştım.	1	2	3	4	5

	Kesinlikle Katılmıyoru	Katılmıyoru	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum
9) Kendimi aile içinde bir hakem gibi hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5
10) Sık sık aile bireyleri beni hayal kırıklığına uğrattır.	1	2	3	4	5
11) Ailem için farkına varılmayan fedakarlıklar yaptım.	1	2	3	4	5
12) Aile üyeleri bana hep kendi problemlerini getiriyor gibiydi.	1	2	3	4	5
13) Sık sık ailenin çamaşır yıkama işlerini yapardım.	1	2	3	4	5
14) Eğer bir aile üyesinin canı sıkınsa, ben genelde dahil olmazdım.	1	2	3	4	5
15) Ne zaman bir problemim olsa annem ve babam yardımcıydılar.	1	2	3	4	5
16) Evde yemekleri nadiren ben yapardım.	1	2	3	4	5
17) Annem ve babam tartışmalarında beni kendi taraflarına çekmek isterlerdi.	1	2	3	4	5
18) Ailemin bana ihtiyacı olmasa bile ben kendimi onlara karşı sorumlu hissedirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
19) Benden kardeşlerime bakmam çok nadiren istendi.	1	2	3	4	5
20) Bazen anne babamdan daha çok sorumluluk sahibiymişim gibi gelirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
21) Ailemdeki insanlar beni çok iyi anlardı.	1	2	3	4	5
22) Anne ve babam benden kardeşlerimi yetiştirmeye yardımcı olmamı beklerdi.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E: MENTALIZATION SCALE

Zihinselleştirme Ölçeği (Mentalization Scale-MENTS) (Türkçe form)

Lütfen her bir maddeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve size en uygun seçeneği 1 ile 5 arasında işaretleyiniz.

1	2	3	4			5	
Tamamen yanlış	Çoğunlukla yanlış	Hem doğru hem yanlış	Çoğunlukla doğru			Tamamen doğru	
1.Davranışlarıma yol açan nedenleri anlamayı önemserim.			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2.Başkalarının kişilik özellikleri hakkında karar verirken ne söyleyip ne yaptıklarını dikkatlice gözlerim.			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. Başkalarının duygularını tanıyabilirim.			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4.Çoğunlukla başkaları ve onların davranışları üzerine düşünürüm.			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5.Genellikle insanları neyin rahatsız ettiğini ayırt edebilirim.			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6.Başkalarının duygularını paylaşabilirim (örn. acısını/sevincini paylaşmak gibi).			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7.Birisi beni sinirlendirdiğinde neden o şekilde tepki verdiğimi anlamaya çalışırım.			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8.Kendimi kötü hissettiğimde üzgün mü, korkmuş mu yoksa kızgın mı olduğumdan emin olamam.*			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9.Başkalarının davranışlarını anlamaya çalışarak vaktimi harcamayı sevmem.*			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10.Başkalarının düşünce ve duygularını bildiğimde davranışları hakkında doğru tahminlerde bulunabilirim.			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11.Çoğu kez kendime bile neden öyle bir şey yaptığımı izah edemem.*			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12.Bazen bir başkasının duygularını o bana henüz bir şey söylemeden anlayabilirim.			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13.Yakın olduğum insanlarla ilişkilerimde ne olup bittiğini anlamayı önemserim.			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14.Kendimle ilgili hoşuma gitmeyecek bir şeyi keşfetmek istemem.*			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15.Yakın olduğum insanlarla sık sık duygular hakkında konuşurum.			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16.Üzüldüğümü, incindiğimi ya da korktuğumu kendime itiraf etmeyi güç bulurum.*			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17.Sorunlarım hakkında düşünmekten hoşlanmam.*			(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

APPENDIX G: DEBRIEFING

Çalışma Sonu Bilgilendirme

Ebeveynleşme, zihinselleştirme becerisi ve bireyleşmenin ilişkilerini inceleyen araştırmamıza katıldığınız için size çok teşekkür ederiz. Ebeveynleşme, çocuk ya da ergenin ailede karşılayabileceğinden fazla veya uygun olmayan bir zamanda ebeveyn rolünü üstlenmesi olgusudur. Bu durumun kişinin ilişkilene ve bağımsızlık süreçlerine etkisi olduğu bilinmektedir. Zihinselleştirme, kişinin kendisinin ve başkalarının zihninin duygular, düşünceler, arzular ve inançlardan oluştuğu şekilde anlamlandırmasını sağlayan bilişsel, duygusal ve sosyal bir kapasitedir. Bu kapasitenin ebeveynleşme ve bireyleşme süreçlerindeki rolünü görmenin kavramsallaştırma ve klinik müdahale yöntemlerine ışık tutarak katkı sağlayacağını düşünüyoruz.

Çalışma kapsamında sağladığınız veriler ve çalışma sonuçları bilimsel ve mesleki etik ilkeleri çerçevesinde korunacak, sonuçlar toplu olarak yorumlanıp yalnızca bilimsel yayın amacıyla toplu bilgiler halinde paylaşılacaktır.

Çalışmanın sağlıklı ilerleyebilmesi için çalışmaya katılacağını bildiğiniz diğer kişilerle çalışma ile ilgili detaylı bilgi paylaşımında bulunmamanızı dileriz.

Değerli katılımınız için tekrar çok teşekkür ederiz.

Araştırmanın sonuçlarını öğrenmek ya da daha fazla bilgi almak için aşağıdaki isimlere başvurabilirsiniz.

Ezgi Güneş

Doç. Dr. Neslihan Zabcı