

THE INFLUENCE OF SIBLING CONFIGURATION AND  
PARENTAL ACCEPTANCE-REJECTION ON THE QUALITY  
OF SIBLING RELATIONSHIPS

REYAN KANYAS  
105627017

İSTANBUL BİLGİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ  
PSİKOLOJİ YÜKSEK LİSANS PROGRAMI

Prof. Dr. Diane Sunar  
2008

The Influence of Sibling Configuration and the Parental  
Acceptance-Rejection Level on the Quality of Sibling  
Relationship

Kardeş Konfigürasyonu ve Ebeveyn Kabul-Red Seviyelerinin  
Kardeşler Arası İlişkinin Kalitesine Olan Etkileri

Reyan Kanyas  
105627017

Prof. Dr. Diane Sunar : .....

Dr. Zeynep Çatay Çalışkan : .....

Doç. Dr. Fatoş Erkman : .....

Tezin Onaylandığı Tarih : .....

Toplam Sayfa Sayısı:

Anahtar Kelimeler

- 1) Kardeş ilişkisi
- 2) Ebeveyn kabul-red seviyesi
- 3) Kardeş konfigürasyonu
- 4) Yaş farkı
- 5) Cinsiyet

Keywords

- 1) Sibling relationship
- 2) Parental acceptance-rejection level
- 3) Sibling configuration
- 4) Birth order
- 5) Gender

## **STATEMENT OF AUTHORSHIP**

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for any award or any other degree or diploma in any university or other institution. It is affirmed by the candidate that, to the best of her knowledge, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

Signed

Reyan Kanyas

## ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study was to explore the influence of parent-child relationship on several aspects of sibling relationship such as jealousy, conflict and positiveness with respect to variables of sibling configuration like age difference, gender and birth order. Parent-child relationship was examined in the domain of parental acceptance and rejection. With this aim, 182 subjects, 18-30 years old, who had only one sibling, completed the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (Adult PARQ) for their mothers and fathers, in addition to the Sibling Relationship Scale (SRS). The first hypothesis, proposing that higher parental rejection will predict more jealousy, conflict and less positiveness was supported only for mothers but not for fathers. Consequently, the hypothesis predicting higher influence of father's rejection on the quality of sibling relationship was not supported either. Contrary to expectations, neither age difference between siblings nor the gender of the older sibling was found to influence the quality of sibling relationship. The hypothesis suggesting moderation of the negative influence of parental rejection among sibling dyads with a widely-spaced older sister was not supported. As predicted, the highest positiveness was among sisters; and same-sex siblings felt more positiveness than opposite-sex siblings. Lastly, as hypothesized the influence of father's rejection level on the quality of sibling relationship is greatest among sister-sister dyads. The findings are discussed and implications for future studies are given.

## ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisinin kardeşler arası kıskançlık, çatışma ve olumluluk gibi dinamiklere olan etkisini; kardeş sıralaması, yaş farkı ve cinsiyet gibi özellikleri dikkate alarak incelemektir. Ebeveyn-çocuk ilişkisi, algılanan ebeveyn kabul-red seviyesi üzerinden incelenmiştir. Sadece tek kardeşi olan 18-30 yaşları arasındaki 180 kişi anne ve babaları için Ebeveyn Kabul-Red ve Kardeş İlişkisi Ölçeklerini doldurmuştur. Ebeveynleri tarafından reddedilmiş olma hissini, kardeşler arası çatışma ve kıskançlığı arttıracığını ve olumluluğu azaltacağını öne süren ilk hipotez sadece anne tarafından red edilme hissi ile bağlantılı olarak doğrulanmıştır. Dolayısıyla annenin reddine kıyasla babanın reddinin, kardeş ilişkilerini daha çok etkileyeceğini bekleyen ikinci hipotez de desteklenmemiştir. Beklenenin tersine, kardeşleri arası yaş farkının veya büyük kardeşin cinsiyetinin, kardeşler arası ilişkiye etkisi bulunamamıştır. Yaş farkı arttıkça ve büyük kardeşin kız olduğu durumlarda, ebeveyn reddinin kardeş ilişkisi üzerindeki etkisinin azalacağını bekleyen hipotez de tam destek bulamamıştır. Bunların yanında beklenildiği gibi en yoğun olumlu ilişkinin iki kız kardeş arasında olduğu görülmüştür ve aynı cinsiyetteki kardeşlerin, karşı cins kardeşlere kıyasla daha olumlu ilişki içinde oldukları doğrulanmıştır. Son olarak ebeveyn kabul-red seviyesinin, kardeşler arası ilişkiler üzerindeki etkisinin iki kız kardeş arasında en yoğun olduğu desteklenmiştir. Sonuçlar tartışılıp, ileri araştırmalar için öneriler sunulmuştur.

## **DEDICATION**

To my dear sister,  
Selin Kanyas

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank my thesis advisor Prof. Dr. Diane Sunar for her support and belief in me in this project. She motivated me with her understanding and soothing in this very busy year of my life. In the moments of disappointment she always encouraged me to keep going.

I would also like to thank Dr. Zeynep Çatay Çalışkan for her valuable comments which enriched my thesis. I am also grateful to Doç. Dr. Fatoş Erkman for her interest and contribution to my project.

In addition I would like to thank to everyone who participated in my study.

I feel gratitude to my dear family, who continuously motivated me during this project. I especially thank to my mother Rozet Kanyas, who always supported me activating all of her resources, all through my life including my M.A. years. I would also like to thank to my father Yakup Kanyas for sponsoring this thesis.

I would like to express my gratitude to Metin Bencuya, who calmed and encouraged me in times of distress. He was always there for me when I needed and motivated me with his love and support.

I am also grateful to my friend and college Elif Tunç for refreshing my skills on statistics and Yeşim Çaylaklı whose comments contributed a lot to my perspective in this project. In addition I would like to thank to Dani Benreytan for supporting me when I was troubled with my computer. I would also like to

express my gratitude to my friends Suzi Mizrahi Levi, Elis Şimşon, Beti Hayim and Mine Kayraklı who encouraged and supported me all through my project.

Lastly I would like to thank to my lovely sister, Selin Kanyas with whom I tasted the unique experience of being two sisters and who inspired me for this project.



## TABLE OF CONTENTS

TITLE PAGE .....	I
APPROVAL.....	II
STATEMENT OF AUTHORSHIP.....	III
ABSTRACT .....	IV
ÖZET .....	V
DEDICATION .....	VI
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	IX
LIST OF TABLES.....	XI
LIST OF FIGURES .....	XIII
INTRODUCTION.....	1
Sibling Relationship .....	2
Dimensions in Sibling Relationship .....	3
Developmental Course of Sibling Relationship.....	7
Determinants of Sibling Relationship Quality .....	12
<i>Birth order</i> .....	13
<i>Gender</i> .....	18
<i>Birth Spacing</i> .....	22
<i>Marital quality</i> .....	25
<i>Parental Differential Treatment (PDT)</i> .....	25
Parent -Child Relationship.....	28

Parental Acceptance Rejection Theory (PART) .....	33
<i>Personality Sub-theory</i> .....	35
<i>Coping Sub-theory</i> .....	38
<i>Socio-cultural Systems Model Sub-theory</i> .....	39
Attachment Theory .....	39
Social Learning Theory .....	44
Social Cognitive Theory .....	45
Psychoanalytic Theory .....	46
Hypotheses .....	51
METHOD .....	59
Sample .....	59
Instruments.....	59
Procedure .....	62
RESULTS .....	64
DISCUSSION .....	78
Discussion of the Findings.....	78
Limitations and Implications for Future Studies.....	89
Conclusion .....	91
REFERENCE .....	93
APPENDICES .....	99

## LIST OF TABLES

1	Descriptive Statistics for Perceived Maternal Rejection and Paternal Rejection.....	64
2	Distribution of Subjects with Respect to the Perceived Maternal Rejection (MAR) and Perceived Paternal Rejection (FAR).....	64
3	Descriptive Statistics of Sibling Relationship Quality Factor Scores.....	65
4.1	Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Sibling Relationship Quality Factors (Jealousy) by Maternal and Paternal Rejection Levels.....	66
4.2	Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Sibling Relationship Quality Factors (Positiveness) by Maternal and Paternal Rejection Levels .....	66
4.3	Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Sibling Relationship Quality Factors (Conflict) by Maternal and Paternal Rejection Levels.....	66
5.1	Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Sibling Jealousy over Mother by Maternal and Paternal Rejection Levels.....	67
5.2	Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Sibling Jealousy over Father by Maternal and Paternal Rejection Levels.....	68
6	Mean Scores and Standard Deviations (SD) for Sibling Relationship Quality Factors Perceived by Second Born by Age Difference between Siblings and the Distribution of the Subjects.....	70
7	Mean Scores for Sibling Relationship Quality Factors of Jealousy, Positiveness and Conflict Perceived by Second Born with respect to Age	

	Difference between Siblings, Paternal Rejection Level and the Sex of the Older Sibling and the Standard Deviations (SD).....	72
8	Mean Scores and Standard Deviations (SD) for Sibling Relationship Quality Factors with respect to Gender Composition of Being in the Same Sex or the Opposite Sex and the Distribution of Subjects.....	76
9	Mean Scores and Standard Deviations (SD) for Sibling Relationship Quality Factors by Gender Composition of Sibling Dyads and the Distribution of the Subjects.....	77

## LIST OF FIGURES

1	Sibling Jealousy over Mother by Maternal and Paternal Rejection Levels.....	68
2	Positiveness Perceived by Second Born by Age Difference between Siblings and the Sex of the Older Sibling.....	70
3	Positiveness Perceived by Second Born Individuals by Age Difference between Siblings and Paternal Rejection Level.....	73
4	Jealousy Perceived by Second Born by Age Difference between Siblings, Paternal Rejection Level and the Sex of the Older Sibling.....	73
5	Conflict Perceived by Second Born by Age Difference between Siblings, Paternal Rejection Level and the Sex of the Older Sibling.....	74

## INTRODUCTION

The sibling relationship is an inevitably intense one, in which young brothers and sisters love and hate, play and fight, care for and neglect each other. “Sibling relations include warmth and siblings' involvement in each other's lives as well as conflict and rivalry and are best described as emotionally ambivalent” (Deater-Deckard, Dunn, & Lussier, 2002; cited in Scharf, Shulman and Avigad-Spitz, 2005, p. 65). The common inheritance binds siblings in a truly unique relationship for a life time (Kartz, Kramer and Gottman, 1992; Volling, Youngblade and Belsky, 1997; cited in Bedford et al., 2000; Hartup and Laursen, 1993; cited in DeHart, 1999; Goetting, 1986). This unique relationship is very special in the development of an individual since the psychosocial skills that are accomplished through sibling interactions may influence a wide variety of other social relationships in life (Brody, 1998).

On the other hand the parent-child relationship is also very important in the way it influences the personality, an individual's mental representation of the self, the other and the world (Maunder and Hunter, 2001). This study aims to explore the dynamics of these two important relationships and understand how sibling relationships may be influenced by the basic parent-child relationship.

## **Sibling Relationship**

Siblings have an important impact on each other's development such as their personalities, intelligence, their way of thinking and talking, and their perception of their significant others (Dunn, 1985). In addition, early experiences with siblings determine how people act or think or feel about themselves in the future (Faber and Mazlish, 1987).

Friendly siblings engage in cooperation and their interactions foster the development of the ability to understand and to relate to one another and consequently other people (Dunn, 1993; Pike, Coldwell and Dunn, 2005). In addition this facilitates the capacity for empathic behavior. When the life period of a person is examined, it is striking to see the extent of the time siblings spend together. By middle childhood the time they spent together exceeds the time they spent with parents (McHale and Crouter, 1996; cited in Pike et al., 2005). Thus it is not surprising that sibling relationship is a very unique experience in one's life. For psychologists, the subject of sibling relations is especially worth studying since it gives insight about the general family processes and child's psychological functioning (Brody, 1998).

While examining sibling relationship quality it is meaningful to mention other dimensions in the relationship such as rivalry, warmth, conflict, and hostility.

## **Dimensions in Sibling Relationship**

For a long time siblings live together. More specifically siblings may be the only stable and enduring relationship for many individuals who experience changes in school and neighborhood (Linares, 2006). This stability enables a sense of security among siblings and they are in the position to provide social support to each other. They act as very close friends. In case of conflict with parents, siblings form coalitions and sibling coalitions act as compensation for parental inefficacy (Goetting, 1986). Sometimes siblings contribute in caretaking responsibilities by assuming parental roles (Linares, 2006). Especially in single parent families, low income families or large families, particularly the oldest daughters have the role of caregiver. In addition siblings face family crises together, and support each other (Goetting, 1986). Studies underline the beneficial role of having a sibling for the children of divorced parents (Linares, 2006). Thus warmth and closeness between siblings is very common.

On the other hand the sibling relationship includes inequity of power and dominance (Kartz et al., 1992), a great amount of time spent together (Rafaelli, 1992) and easy access to each other (Brody and Stoneman, 1987; cited in Bedford et al., 2000). In addition it has an obligatory continuation of a complex relationship (Newman, 1994; cited in Bedford, Volling and Avioli, 2000) since there is no chance of choosing the sibling. Consequently it is natural that sibling conflict and rivalry are inevitable and they are the universal



characteristics of sibling relationship (Cicirelli, 1994; Leung and Robson, 1991). “Sixty-ninety % of children had been victims of physical aggression in the hands of sibling, 30% of siblings reported frequently being bullied by their siblings, including name calling or being picked on; while 22% reported often being hit and pushed around” (Linares, 2006, p. 98). Moreover the dynamics in family environment also produce high levels of stress between siblings (Leder, 1991). Competition for the love and attention of parents, envy of the accomplishments of the sibling, resentment of the other’s privileges and personal frustrations that cannot be expressed towards others, are natural challenges that are experienced by most siblings (Leder, 1991). Taking all these into consideration, it is clear why in families the sibling relationship contains many emotional conflicts.

Examining age trends in the causes of sibling conflict, early childhood arguments about object possessions are found to be very common (DeHart, 1999). After age of 5, the issue of social control is introduced as a source of conflict (Shantz and Hobart, 1989; cited in DeHart, 1999). In addition the most common cause of conflict among siblings of 10-15 years olds is power issues, followed by personal property disagreements such as unauthorized use of the sibling’s property and space (Rafaelli, 1992). Some sibling conflict may also occur without an apparent reason (Crick and Dodge, 1994; cited in Brody, 1998).

However beneath all these apparent reasons of sibling conflict and rivalry, lies the underlying factor of competition for the love and affection of

parents during childhood (Leung and Robson, 1991). Even though this preoccupation decreases in adolescence (Allan, 1977; cited in Connidis, 1992; Rafaelli, 1992), it is always a significant factor. Rivalry is more observed among firstborns since they experience a period of time that they were the only child, the only target of love and attention of parents (Leung and Robson, 1991). In contrast jealousy is more pronounced among later-borns because of the privileges that the first-borns have (Leung and Robson, 1991). In order to get a better understanding, it is necessary to point out the distinction between rivalry and jealousy. Rivalry is a struggle for access to the basic survival needs, mainly the mother, against the rival. In rivalry the “fear of loss of the object” is dominant, whereas in jealousy “the fear of losing the object’s love” is the main issue (Neubauer, 1982, pp. 122). Jealousy is assumed to be experienced in a developmentally higher level when phallic oedipal organization has developed. In other words “jealousy is rivalry on the oedipal level, with the wish to be loved by the opposite-sexed object and the super ego retaining their influence.” (Neubauer, 1982, pp. 123)

Furthermore children’s temperaments may also influence sibling conflict. The “similarity hypothesis” proposes that temperamentally dissimilar siblings experience higher levels of conflict (Munn and Dunn, 1989; cited in Brody, 1998). Contrary to this, dissimilar characteristics of siblings may act as a protective factor for the sibling relationship quality since the positive characteristics of one sibling will serve as a buffer and moderate the negative effects of difficult temperament of the other sibling (Brody et al., 1987; cited in

Brody, 1998). On the other hand observational assessments revealed that neither similarity nor buffering hypothesis reflects the reality completely (Stoneman and Brody, 1993; cited in Brody, 1998). They indicated that similarity of siblings having low levels of activity predicted lower levels of conflict while this is not true for children with high levels of activity. In addition buffering effect is displayed only in sibling pairs in which the younger child has high levels of activity while the older sibling has lower activity (Stoneman and Brody, 1993; cited in Brody, 1998).

In terms of developmental outcomes sibling conflict and rivalry have both disadvantages and advantages in siblings' lives. High levels of conflict among siblings are found to be related to emotional problems, and low self esteem (Hanson et al., 1992; cited in Hardy, 2001), aggression (Patterson et al., 1984; cited in Connidis, 1992) and even criminal behaviors (Reid, 1988; cited in Hardy, 2001). On the other hand sibling conflict plays an important role in social and emotional development. First of all through arguments siblings get the opportunity to express their feelings, learn how to deal with intense affect (Bedford et al.; Brody, 1998) and communicate (Brody, 1998). Thus sibling conflict offers children a valuable model for future interactions (Lamb, 1982; cited in Ryan, 2002). In addition in a case of dispute, siblings discover their strengths and limitations (Bedford et al., 2000). Moreover sibling conflict and rivalry facilitates individuation as siblings express their values and differences via disagreements (Bedford et al., 2000).

Consequently sibling competition and conflict is beneficial at some level for social, interpersonal and cognitive development. However when emotions of conflict and rivalry are not processed well, unresolved anger, jealousy and shame may surface in adulthood and lead to psychological problems (Leung and Robson, 1991; Volling et al., 2002).

### **Developmental Course of Sibling Relationship**

As siblings' age increases, the quality of their relationship also goes through some transitions. During childhood siblings have an important role in each other's social world. In those years the emotional bond between siblings seems to be very strong being intensely both positive and negative. Siblings may become playmates, sources of support, caregivers or nuisances (Furman and Giberson, 1995; cited in Scharf et al., 2005). In childhood the sibling relations are usually defined with disputes and competition for parent's attention (Teti, 2002; cited in Scharf et al., 2005).

As children grow older, the content of sibling relationship undergoes some developmental transformations too. With age it becomes more egalitarian and more symmetrical (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990). Adolescents try to become autonomous individuals separate from their parents. They are more interested in the outside world, friends and romantic partners while on the other hand their interest in siblings, joint activities, interaction and shared time among siblings decrease. Twelfth graders are found to feel more distant, less affectionate, intimate and caring with their siblings compared to 3<sup>rd</sup>, 6<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup>

graders (Buhrmester and Furman, 1990). In addition the issues of power and status become less relevant. The decreased interaction and power issues are also reflected in less quarrels, antagonism and competition among siblings. In line with these findings the perceived nurturance of older siblings also seems to decline when younger siblings are on average between 10-15 years old and the older members are about 14 to 19 years old (Buhrmester and Furman, 1990). However, even though the intensity of sibling relationship weakens with age, the emotional attachment between siblings still remains (Buhrmester and Furman, 1990).

The first years of the transition to adulthood are termed as emerging adulthood (Arnett, 2000). Young adults start to live separate from their parents and establish romantic relationships. Thus emotional investment in the family moves towards the romantic partner. Parallel with the decrease in the intensity of family interactions, sibling relationship starts to lose its intensity too. Siblings start to spend less time together compared to their childhood. They are less likely to get in conflict and the quarrels occur less frequently. Another reason for the decreased conflict level may be that emerging adult siblings who do not get along with well choose to have less contact (Stocker, Lanthier, & Furman, 1997; cited in Scharf et al., 2005) or they may have developed greater ability to negotiate disagreements. The increased ability to negotiate and becoming more mature may contribute to increased levels of closeness and warmth between emerging adult siblings. However the relationship between

emerging adult siblings may still include ambivalent feelings: warmth and conflict or rivalry (Stocker et al., 1997).

Furthermore as the age of siblings increases, the emotional exchange level also increases whereas the activities that are shared decrease (Scharf et al., 2005). Emerging adults are found to show more positiveness towards their siblings and their relationships are less conflicted compared to adolescents. The reason for this improvement in sibling relationship may be that emerging adults are more capable of accepting and understanding the changes and they start to feel close to their siblings despite the inevitable widening distance (Scharf et al., 2005). Increasing distance may possibly make it easier for siblings to attend to the other's ideas or feelings. In that sense the developmental process of sibling relationship seems to be parallel to the relationship with parents. In both patterns as children get older and individualize, independence allows them to get closer and warmer towards both parents and siblings (Frank et al., 1988; Shulman et al., 2001; cited in Scharf et al., 2005). It is possible that experiencing less contact allows people to become more attentive to the needs of others leading to lesser conflicts. In addition the increased capacity for resolving disagreements must help to reduce the level of conflicts. The lower levels of conflict may also occur because of the "de-identification" coming with adulthood, which is a process parallel to the siblings' desire not to be like the other sibling in order to be able to deal with the feelings of rivalry (Schachter, 1982; Schachter and Stone, 1987; cited in Scharf et al., 2005).

Emerging adult women reported that they could turn to their closest sibling in order to get advice and guidance whenever they are in need. Consequently an additional quality of sibling relationship occurs: “source of potential support, or a source of advice, that can be relied on despite the lower incidence of daily interaction or involvement” (Seginer, 1998; in Scharf et al, 2005, p. 67).

There are findings indicating increased closeness, cooperation and support in adolescence and adulthood among siblings (Ross and Milgram, 1982; cited in Brody, 1998; Cicirelli, 1982; Buhrmester and Furman, 1990). Moreover, especially among sisters, a significantly increased support, warmth and intimacy have been observed after childhood (Dunn, 1996; Furman and Buhrmester, 1992; cited in McCoy et al., 2002).

However there are contradictory findings regarding the changes in sibling relationship through the life span. It has been noted above that sibling relationship quality is determined at a very early age. Longitudinal studies suggest that patterns of interaction and affective quality of the sibling relationship in early childhood remain stable over several years (Abramovitch, Corter, Pepler, & Stanhope, 1986; cited in Howe, Aquan-Assee, and Bukowski, 2001). Although the content of sibling interactions changes from early childhood to middle childhood, stability in the affective tone of sibling relations is marked (Dunn, 1983; cited in Howe et al., 2001; Brody, 1994; Dunn, 1996) For instance childhood sibling rivalry is carried to adult relationships (Ross and Milgram, 1982; cited in Brody, 1998). Thus as age increases sibling rivalry

seems to stay stable. In addition the levels of disclosure and companionship between siblings are also observed to be stable over time (Worden, Davies and McCown, 1999).

On the other hand since siblings live together and spend most of their time together in childhood, they act as close friends and their sharing is greater (Goetting, 1986). However as age increases in early and middle adulthood when the sibling interaction becomes voluntary, the support between siblings becomes more passive (Goetting, 1986).

In fact birth order seems to influence the transformation of sibling relationship quality. While a decrease in rivalry is observed after age 8 among younger siblings, older siblings reported a stable rivalry (Buhrmester and Furman, 1990). Moreover regardless of other family composition variables, sibling rivalry peaks between ages 2-4 and decreases after age 8 (Leung and Robson, 1991). It is commonly thought that the reason for this pattern is the need to declare independence as age increases. Thus as children start to break their ties with the family, their interaction with the family decreases as a result of changing social environments. Consequently, siblings are able to get a better grasp of their position as a member of the family (Leung and Robson, 1991)

In contrast some researches claim that there are no systematic developmental trends in sibling relationship according to their studies on 5<sup>th</sup> and 9<sup>th</sup> graders (Rafaelli and Larson, 1987; in Buhrmester and Furman, 1990).



## **Determinants of Sibling Relationship Quality**

According to family systems theory, family members are parts of an interactive, interdependent network in which behavior in one individual or subsystem affects the others. Negativity in each family subsystem intersects with each other; thus a conflict spreads around and influences the adjustment of the whole system (Feinberg, Hetherington, Reiss and Neiderhiser, 2005; Pike et al., 2005; Brody, 1998). The spillover hypothesis (Enfer, 1988; cited in Pike et al., 2005) suggests “transference of behavior and/or emotional quality from one relational subsystem to another” (Pike et al., 2005, p. 523). For instance when the individual experiences negativity from another family member, hostility and stress is then targeted towards other family members and in turn is felt by the individual (Feinberg et al., 2005). This is especially frequent among siblings since the level of reciprocity of sibling negativity is pretty high (Feinberg et al., 2005). When one sibling encounters negativity, it will tend to be encountered by the other sibling as well. In this respect the sibling relationship quality is composed of various dynamics within the family (Noller, 2005). Consequently while studying sibling relations it is important not to ignore the other family processes and factors that influence the sibling relationship. Thus the composition of the family, birth order, gender composition, sibling spacing of children and other relationships within the family, especially the relationship with parents, influence sibling relationship quality.

### *Birth order*

Adler has emphasized the importance of birth order in personality development (Lawson and Brossart, 2004). The effect of birth order on personality and sibling relationship has been a very popular area for researchers. However there are contradictory findings about the topic.

The strongest finding observed is the dominance of first born siblings compared to the later-borns. Besides the studies with subject groups composed of children (Sutton-Smith and Rosenberg, 1968; cited in Ickes and Turner, 1983; Sampson, 1965; cited in Minnet, Vandell and Santrock, 1983); both studies on adolescents (Buhrmester and Furman, 1990) and adults (Minnet e al., 1983; Cicirelli, 1994) supported this finding. The dominance of first-borns is explained with greater power that they possessed due to the age difference during childhood and adolescence. Especially in early childhood, in preschool periods older siblings are more likely to use negative behaviors such as hitting and, taking toys due to their greater physical and ascribed power (Lamb, 1978; cited in Minnet et al., 1983).

In addition in families, firstborns are assigned the position of authority, responsibility, nurturance (Buhrmester and Furman, 1990) and role model (Ambert, 2001; cited in Çavdar, 2003). In line with this, first born siblings are found to be more likely to teach, employ positive behavior, praise their siblings (Minnet et al., 1983), initiate behaviors, and nurture (DeHart, 1999). In fact there is an asymmetry about the siblings' feelings towards each other. Younger

siblings perceive less conflict at younger ages and they feel greater admiration and intimacy. On the other hand for the earlier-borns, the perception of conflict does not drop with age. Younger siblings want to interact with older ones but firstborn siblings regard their siblings as annoyances (Buhrmester and Furman, 1990).

Moreover, birth order influences sibling relationship quality indirectly, through shaping personality features. Several studies including personal assessments, home observations and parent reports pointed out the importance of birth order on the personality of siblings. Different studies demonstrated different characteristics of siblings. For instance firstborns are found to be more intelligent (Zajonc and Markus, 1975; cited in Ickes and Turner, 1983; Minnet et al., 1983), more verbal (Sampson, 1965; cited in Minnet et al., 1983) and consequently more successful in education (Bellmont and Marolla, 1973; Breland, 1973; Zajonc and Markus, 1975; Markus and Markus, 1979; cited in Ickes and Turner, 1983). In addition studies demonstrated that firstborns are more task oriented and are likely to take leadership roles (Chemers, 1970; Hardy, 1972; Hardy, Hunt and Lehri 1978; cited in Ickes and Turner, 1983). However firstborns are also found to be less cultured, knowledgeable and creative (Michalski and Shackelford, 2002). In addition other significant findings demonstrate that firstborn siblings are more adult-oriented (Ickes and Turner, 1983) and authority conforming (Adams, 1972; cited in Ickes and Turner, 1983). Parallel to this finding, their relationship with parents is expected to be more influential on their personality and relationships. Besides

being more self confident (Schwab and Lundgren, 1978; cited in Ickes and Turner, 1983), firstborns are claimed to be more prideful (Howarth, 1980; cited in Ickes and Turner, 1983) compared to later-borns. On the other hand studies suggest that older siblings are more aggressive (Martin and Ross, 1995; cited in Epkins and Dedmon, 1999), less flexible (Michalski and Shackelford, 2002), more stressed, anxious and neurotic (Howarth, 1980; Sutton and McIntire, 1977; cited in Ickes and Turner, 1983; Michalski and Shackelford, 2002). Consequently they are found to be less socially skilled (Ickes and Turner, 1983) compared to younger siblings.

When underlying dynamics behind this character structure is examined, the first-borns' experience of being the only child seems to be significant. Before the birth of the newborn, the older child is the sole target of parental attention and love (Ickes and Turner; Michalski and Shackelford, 2002). With the introduction of the second child, the position of the firstborn is totally transformed. This may be anxiety provoking and may lead to more emotional problems compared to later-borns (Michalski and Shackelford, 2002). The shift in their status within the family from being the only one to the older and stronger one (Sulloway, 1996; cited in Michalski and Shackelford, 2002), may be predicted as an explanation for the firstborns' tendency to possess power, dominance and aggression. Furthermore they only have their parents as models and consequently older children are more likely to mirror their parents and internalize parental qualities (Michalski and Shackelford, 2002).

On the contrary parent observations, peer and self reports determined that later-borns are more likely to imitate (DeHart, 1999; Updegraff et al., 2000), watch older siblings (Abramovitch, Corter and Lando, 1979; Lamb, 1978; cited in Minnet et al., 1983), receive nurturance and be dominated (Buhrmester and Furman, 1990; DeHart, 1999). Consequently they seem to be less powerful (Ickes and Turner, 1983). These characteristics may be result of the first born's dominance, power; and the later-born's avoidance of confronting his/her older sibling (Ickes and Turner, 1983; Michalski and Shackelford, 2002). On the other hand later-borns are found to be better in social interactions (Summers, 1999). They are more socially skilled, more popular among peers, more cooperative, more peer oriented, more accepting in their relationships (Sells and Roff, 1963; cited in Ickes and Turner, 1983) and more agreeable (Michalski and Shackelford, 2002). In addition in the cognitive level later-borns are more open to radical ideas; in line with that, they are found to be more rebellious and creative (Summers, 1999). The mentioned characteristics may be a result of with the later-borns' wish to gain parental attention by differentiating themselves form the firstborn (Sulloway, 1996; cited in Michalski and Shackerlford, 2002; Summers, 1999).

However in studies on adolescents the effect of relational aggression on sibling relationship quality was not found to differ according to birth order. (Updegraff, Thayer, Whiteman, Denning, and McHale, 2005). This may be because in adolescence sibling relations become more egalitarian and in their

balance of power more similar to peer-relationships compared to earlier developmental periods (Updegraff et al., 2005).

In addition, it is interesting that the association between temperament and sibling relationship is related to birth order. Difficult temperament in the older sibling does not result in increased negativity among siblings but it causes less positiveness; while the difficult tempered younger child reinforces the negativity within the relationship (Brody, 1998). Moreover sibling relationship quality is linked to the older sibling's characteristics rather than the younger one's (Pike et al., 2005). This may be explained by the dominance of the older child in the sibling relationship, and in this relationship the younger sibling is more influenced by the older sibling than the opposite (Pike et al., 2005).

When gender is also taken into account, the birth order effect becomes even more salient. For instance the oldest sister is usually regarded as the "first lady" of the family. She is self-centered, the leader, mother replacement and the most responsible sibling (McGoldrick, 1991). She is likely to see herself in the caretaker role and is more nurturant of her younger siblings (Bossard and Boll, 1960; cited in Minnet et al., 1983). In contrast the youngest sister usually has the spoiled position in the family since she is always protected and engulfed with affection (McGoldrick, 1991). On the other hand older brothers become the idols among other siblings due to their granted entitlement (McGoldrick, 1991).

## *Gender*

Gender of a child, gender of a child's sibling and the gender composition of siblings are all factors that influence the personality of children and their relationships including sibling relationship.

It is found that sibling relationship is more crucial for girls compared to boys (Sutton-Smith and Rosenberg, 1970; cited in Minnet et al., 1983). Girls seem to be more affected by their siblings in general. Studies show that girls compared to boys experience more problems when they lose their sibling rather than a parent (Worden et al., 1999).

When gender composition of a sibling dyad is considered as a factor affecting sibling relationship quality, closeness is found to be greater among same sex siblings compared to opposite sex siblings (Buhrmester and Furman, 1990). Especially sister-sister combination is the closest pair while the least close dyads are brother-brother pairs (Adams, 1968; cited in Ciccirelli, 1994; Scharf et al., 2005). In fact sister-sister pairs are found to report higher levels of intimacy compared to all other dyads (Updegraff et al., 2005). On the other hand boy-boy siblings are found to be less caring, less involved in intimate exchanges and to come up with less coping resolutions compared to girl-girl dyads (Cole and Kerns, 2001; cited in Scharf et al., 2005). Despite the closeness of the same sex dyads, because of their greater similarities, same sex dyads may also experience greater conflict and rivalry (Minnett et al., 1983).

In addition the influence of gender on the sibling relationship may change according to the developmental periods (Scharf et al., 2005). Adolescent males are found to be involved in higher affection with their brothers compared to girls and their siblings. In contrast in emerging adulthood females reported more emotional exchange with their siblings compared to boys and their brothers (Scharf et al., 2005). Moreover researchers showed that the highest level of intimacy among sisters is found to stay stable from middle childhood through adolescence where as it showed a U-shaped change pattern in time for mixed sex dyads (Kim, McHale, Osgood and Crouter, 2006).

In case of rivalry contradictory findings exist in the literature. Some studies support that mixed dyads experience more conflicts, (Dunn and Dendrick, 1981; Pepler, Abramovitch and Corter, 1981; cited in Minnet et al., 1983) whereas others indicate that same sex dyads are more conflicting and they experience more rivalry (Epkins and Dedmong, 1999; Leung and Robson, 1991; McGoldrick, 1991; Minnet et al., 1983; Rafaelli, 1992). The reason for this finding may be explained with the similarities of interests, desires, attributes and social environments of same sex siblings. Bakwin and Bakwin (1972; cited in Leung and Robson, 1991) mention that sibling rivalry is more common among girls. Other studies, on the contrary, imply that brother-brother pairs exhibit rivalry and competitiveness, whereas sisters are supportive and caring (Adams, 1968; Cicirelli, 1985; cited in McGoldrick, 1991).

In addition, gender of the sibling influences an individual's interactions, gender roles and development. Girls are expected to engage more in helping



behavior. However, as the number of siblings increase, the helping behavior among girls is found to decrease. Moreover, the gender-typed expectations vary according to the gender combination of siblings. Sibling groups made of all girls or boys seem to engage in similar care giving behavior.

Having a sister leads to higher levels of affection in sibling relationships for girls (Epkins and Dedmon, 1999). On the other hand, mix-sexed sibling groups are found to engage in more traditional gender role behaviors, which can be conceptualized as care-giving behavior for girls and providing material security for boys. Having a sister provides an opportunity for boys to interact with the opposite sex more comfortably from early ages (Ickes and Turner, 1983; Updegraff et al., 2000). In addition Cicirelli (1977; cited in Cicirelli, 1994) states that men with younger sisters have less difficulty with their sense of security and feel happier about life.

Moreover, when gender roles are considered, having a sister is found to be related to femininity in peer relations (Updegraff et al., 2000). In a study it is found that for boys, having an older sister predicts more femininity but not less masculinity; however for girls, lower levels of masculinity but no increase in femininity (Rust, Golombok, Hines, Johnston and Golding, 2000). However another study supports the idea that sisters lead boys to become more masculine since brothers emphasize their masculinity trying to differentiate themselves from their sisters (McGoldrick, 1991).

On the other hand, having a brother is found to influence the control behavior of girls. Girls having brothers use control strategies in their

relationships more frequently, probably because they model their controlling brothers (Updegraff et al., 2000). In case of gender roles, girls who have brothers get involved more with sex typed behaviors compared to girls who have sisters (Grotevant, 1978; Leventhal, 1970; cited in Updegraff et al., 2000).

Furthermore, for young females, increasing number of siblings, especially brothers, decreases the contact and the influence of parents while increasing the influence of sibling-sibling relationship. This, for female siblings, enables less intimidation by and intimacy with parents, which facilitates a healthier relationship with them (Lawson and Brossart, 2004).

On the other hand, being a younger male in an all-male sibling group is related to more parental intimacy and more parental intimidation due to the tendency of younger individuals to be more dependent on parents (Lawson and Brossart, 2004). Intimidation maintains the power inequity between the children and their parents and is rooted in the younger adult's childhood dependency on his or her parents for physical and psychological needs (Williamson, 1991; cited in Lawson and Brossart, 2004, p. 474). In line with this, younger males in an all-male sibling group become more dependent on parents. This finding is also related to the fact that boys with no sisters are engaged in less gender typed behaviors within family. Thus, sibling configuration (gender) seems to serve to lessen gender typed male behaviors resulting in more intimacy with parents and intimidation towards them (Lawson and Brossart, 2004).

In contrast, some studies state that neither birth order nor gender has an effect on sibling relationship quality in their study (Scharf et al., 2005). In that

case, the changes in sibling relationship quality that are linked to gender and birth order are explained by the transformation of sibling roles over the years (Scharf et al., 2005).

### *Birth Spacing*

Age difference between siblings is another factor that influences the sibling relationship and personality. However, there is no consensus on the nature of the impact of birth spacing. Several studies imply that closely spaced siblings tend to get involved in intense quarrels, rivalry, aggressive behaviors and conflict (Rafaelli, 1992; Epkins and Dedmon, 1999; Minnet et al., 1983) as well as greater dominance over and by the sibling (Burhmester and Furman, 1990). Abilities and similarity of interest of closely spaced siblings (Minnet et al., 1983), overlapping social environments (Howe et al, 2001) and decreased maternal sensitivity (Van Ijzendoorn et al., 2000) may be counted among the reasons for the conflict between siblings with smaller birth spacing.

On the other hand, some other studies found that widely spaced siblings are characterized by stress and more competitiveness (Koch, 1954, 1956a, b, c; cited in Minnet et al., 1983). Besides all, Abramovitch et al. (1979, cited in Minnet et al., 1983) suggests that the effect of birth spacing on sibling relationship, especially for younger ages, is very little.

The lack of consensus appears on the effects of birth spacing on positiveness between siblings too. Some studies support that more positive relationship is associated with widely spaced sibling (Felson, 1983; Felson and

Russo, 1988; Herzberger and Hall, 1993; cited in Epkins and Dedmon, 1999). In the study of Burhmester and Furman (1990) children, whose age difference was more than 4 years, reported greater affection to their siblings. On the other hand, some other studies propose that closely spaced siblings exhibit more closeness and warmth (Furman and Buhrmester, 1985; cited in Howe et al., 2001; Buhrmester and Furman, 1990).

Age spacing may influence the sibling relationship via the parent-child relationship. Different dynamics act upon the parent-child relationship with sibling spacing of six or more years versus less age spacing (Toman, 1988, 1983; cited in Lawson and Brossart, 2004). Small age difference bonds the children, enables them to get close to each other and thus it increases the positive intimacy. On the other hand, for siblings with age difference more than six, the interaction between siblings get limited. Thus they get less contact; in line with that there is less potential for both conflict and intimacy.

However, studies indicate that wider sibling spacing predicts more positive family interaction, especially between fathers and adolescents. Wider sibling spacing leads to more positive relations between parents and children since it is assumed to include fewer demands for parent attention and thus less stressful environment. Furthermore a more positive parent child relationship is observed when the siblings are spaced either very closely such as 12 months or less, or very widely such as 4years or more (Kidwell, 1981). The most negative relationship existed around 1-3 year spacing while 5 years of age difference predicts the most positive relationship quality (Kidwell, 1981).

The factors such as gender, birth order and spacing discussed above are objective determinants which are stable characteristics that continue life long and influence sibling relationship quality (Spitze and Logan, 1990, 1991; cited in Lawson and Brossart, 2004). However beyond these factors, the dynamics of the specific family and the individuals within the family; their characteristics, their relationships, the way they treat each other, are crucial in the development of sibling relationship. Thus it is appropriate to investigate these more subjective factors in order to have a better view of sibling relationship quality. Parent's individual character, marital quality and parental differential treatment are among these factors:

*Parent's individual character*

Parent's individual characteristics may also contribute to variations in sibling relationship quality since it directly impacts on parent-child relations (Brody et al., 1994). Parental negative affectivity such as depression or hostility inhibits his/her involvement and affection towards the child. Such parents face difficulties in managing and communicating with their children, which reflects on the child's interaction with his/her sibling. Children relating to depressed or hostile parents are found to have low levels of positiveness, high levels of negativity and conflict within the relations with their siblings (Fabes and Eisenberg, 1992; cited in Brody et al, 1994; Brody 1998).

### *Marital quality*

Marital quality of parents is another important family dynamic that impacts on sibling relationship. Children as young as 12 months old experience negative emotions and display reactions of distress ranging from crying to aggression in response to episodes of anger directed towards another person (Cummings, 1987; cited in Brody et al., 1994). It is commonly observed that children direct these reactions towards others, especially their siblings. Negative sibling relationships and high levels of sibling conflict are associated with unhappy, conflictful marriages (Brody et al. 1987, 1992, 1994; Hertherington, 1988; MacKinnon, 1989; cited in Brody, 1998), divorce (Lamb and Sutton-Smith, 1982; MacKinnon, 1989; Montemayor; cited in Rafaelli, 1992) and violence between parents. Thus marital unhappiness, conflict and less harmonious family environment leads to troubled sibling relations (Westervelt, and Louis, 2000; Brody et al., 1994; Brody, 1998).

### *Parental Differential Treatment (PDT)*

In addition to the individual characteristics of parents and marital quality, parental differential treatment (PDT) of siblings is another factor that influences the sibling relationship (Noller, 2005). PDT is about the extent to which siblings are treated or perceived to be treated in similar or dissimilar ways by their parents with regard to affection, responsivity, control, discipline and the like (Boll, Ferring and Filipp, 2005). It is observed that PDT is related

to negative outcomes for the child's adjustment as well as the quality of parent child and sibling relationships (Brody, 1998).

PDT of siblings, especially mother's favoritism, fosters negativity among siblings by bringing in rivalry and anger (Brody, 1998)). In fact psychologists support optimum levels of PDT of siblings in the service of individuation of children. However, when children feel less worthy of love and as if the parents are less concerned about them, PDT threatens the quality of the sibling relationship (Brody, 1998, Kowal and Kramer, 1997). Another explanation for the effects of favoritism on siblings' relationship is the displacement of anger. The sibling who is not favored reflects his/her anger onto the favored sibling (Brody, 1998). In addition, the sibling who is not favored may perceive the other sibling as an intruder and threat for parental love (Leung and Robson, 1991). In line with this, he/she may react to the favored sibling with intense negativity because of the hurt feelings (Leung and Robson, 1991).

Furthermore, parental differential time is not found to influence sibling relationship quality, either for younger or older siblings (Updegraff et al., 2005). On the other hand in case of perceived differential warmth, birth order of the child is observed to make a difference. When the older sibling perceives parental differential warmth, it doesn't influence the sibling relationship quality. However, in case of the perception of the younger sibling, their relational aggression is observed to increase. The gender of the younger child is also found to have importance in the case of paternal differential treatment.

Especially, when younger sisters are favored by the father the relational aggression level in the sibling relationship is found to be highest (Updegraff et al., 2005).

On the other side of the coin, the favored sibling may be suffering from guilt feelings. In addition, the fear of losing his status may occur within him/her. Both of these factors may influence the sibling relationship quality (Brody et al., 1998). However, Freud emphasized that favoritism of mother leads children to have increased self-confidence (Jones, 1953; cited in Brody et al., 1998).

High quality in sibling relationship is best predicted when both siblings are treated equally (Boll et al., 2005). The quality decreases with favoritism or unfavoritism (Boll et al., 2005). However, it is interesting that in parent-child relationship the interaction is best when the child feels slightly favored but if the favoritism extends to extreme levels the relationship worsens (Boll et al., 2005).

The child's perception of appropriate and inappropriate cases of being differentially treated by parents is critical. In other words siblings' evaluations of the justice of their parents' behaviors is significant. According to attribution theory analysis, unjust evaluations of PDT lead to negative relationship quality, whereas just evaluations of PDT lead to a positive relationship (Weiner, 2001; cited in Boll et al., 2005). Boll et al. (2005) found that justice evaluations are stronger predictors of parent-child relationship compared to sibling relationship.



They explain this result with the fact that children tend to hold their parents much more responsible for PDT than they hold their siblings (Boll et al., 2005).

Differential treatment that manipulates sibling relationship is associated with marital difficulties. During marital distress coalitions in the family increase while parent's ability to regulate emotions decrease. Thus parents become less sensitive about the way they treat children, and are more likely to practice PDT (Brody, 1998).

In fact the most significant impact of marital quality, parent's individual characteristics and PDT on sibling relations is via the parent-child relationship. As will be mentioned below, the dynamics between parents and children are so crucial that they influence the child's personality, the way they perceive the world and consequently the way they interact with others. Thus it is appropriate to investigate the influence of parent child relationship in more detail.

### **Parent -Child Relationship**

Although the content of sibling interactions changes from early childhood to middle childhood, the affective tone of sibling relations stays stable (Dunn, 1983; Dunn, Slomkowski and Beardsall, 1994; cited in, Howe et al., 2001). This concept reinforces the idea that the dynamics in the family during early childhood determine the quality of sibling relationship quality. Consequently it is obvious that parents and their early relationships with the children have a significant role in the siblings' relationship. "The

developmental trajectory of the sibling relationship is related to the initial relations between the siblings and the interactions between mother and children” (Howe et al, 2001, p. 134). In this sense it is important to take into consideration the past relationship quality of parents and their children in order to understand the sibling relationship quality.

Children tend to transmit stress and negativity experienced from other sources towards each other since the reciprocity of sibling negativity is very high (Feinberg et al., 2005). Thus the relationship between a parent and a sibling reflects on the sibling relationship quality (Dunn and Kendrick, 1982). “The family climate and the parents’ overt and covert messages on sibling roles decisively condition the interrelations between the siblings” (Einstein and Moss, 1967; cited in Dunn and Kendrick, 1982, p. 2). Maternal acceptance is found to be positively correlated to sibling intimacy whereas father-child conflict is related to sibling conflict over time (Kim et al., 2006).

Thus it is not appropriate to think of the sibling relationship independent from the whole family system. Interrelatedness among relationships within the family has been emphasized by many theories claiming that, a dynamic in one subsystem affects and carries over into other subsystems within the family (Bowlby, 1973; Shulman and Collins, 1995; cited in Scharf et al., 2005). Thus the quality of the relationships among family members is expected to reflect on the sibling relationship. Living in a family that includes positive emotional exchanges will probably lead to positive sibling relationship; whereas a distressed atmosphere in the family causes negative sibling relationships.

Conflicts that children experience with their parents may irritate the child and the anger may be discharged onto the sibling (Mchale, Updegraff, Tucker and Crouter, 2000; cited in Scharf et al., 2005). In other words, difficulties in establishing a balanced and mature relationship with parents and the family may affect relationships with siblings. As noted above the relational pattern in one subsystem can be expressed in another.

There are three forms of parental involvement which influence children's interactions: de-contextualized discussion, directive intervention, and interaction intervention (Lolliss, Ross and Tate, 1992; cited in Howe, 2001). In the study of sibling relationships, the influence of maternal use of directive and interactive intervention strategies on sibling relationship quality has been an area of investigation (Howe, 2001; Scharf et al., 2005).

Directive interventions refer to parents' direct efforts to guide or intervene in the child relations such as advice, directions or guidance of parent during ongoing interaction of children (Updegraff et al., 2005; Scharf et al., 2005). Maternal management of sibling conflict may be presented as an example of directive interventions. The quality of this management seems to be important for the sibling relationship. For instance, punitive strategies such as prohibitions increase the frequency of conflict and reduce harmony among siblings (Furman and Giberson, 1995; cited in Howe et al., 2001). Thus the children of mothers who had training in discipline techniques are found to get along better (Adams and Kelley, 1992; cited in Updegraff et al., 2005). In addition the effect of direct parenting is found to be more salient among girls.

This may be because the parental concern for relational aggression in girls is more compared to boys since greater developmental emphasis is placed on girls' social relationships (Ruble and Martin, 1998; cited in Updegraff et al., 2005).

The impact of parental intervention changes according to the developmental periods. In younger children parent's lack of intervention in sibling arguments is found to be related to future conflict among siblings. However as children get older, the positive influence of parental intervention loses its significance and it relates to more negativity in sibling relations (Kramer, Perzynski, and Chung, 1999; cited in Updegraff et al., 2005).

In addition, maternal discussion of other's internal states, another form of directive interventions, which includes mother's discussion of the other's emotions, intentions and mental states with siblings, provides a critical socialization process in the sibling relationship quality (Dunn, 1988; Brown and Dunn, 1991; cited in Howe et al., 2001). Maternal discussion of internal states may provide a model for the children to be more sensitive and use more reasoning. This may be internalized by the first born child and then is reflected in the sibling cooperation. Consequently especially the firstborn's sensitivity to internal states is found to have a crucial role in the sibling relationship (Howe et al., 2001).

Besides directive interventions, interactive interventions occur when the parents are included actively in the ongoing interactions of children. In that sense parents have impact on sibling relationship indirectly by modeling social behavior or regulating their children's behaviors and emotions. For example

children who are in positive relationship with parents full of warmth, engage in more affectionate relationship with their siblings. On the other hand children who experienced parental assertion of power have higher levels of conflict with their sibling (Scharf et al., 2005). “A responsive, positive, interactive maternal style, for example, mother’s encouragement of curiosity and openness” facilitates the friendliness of siblings (Brody, Stoneman, McCoy, and Forehand, 1986; cited in Howe et al., 2001, p 124). However there is a critical balance for the level of maternal interaction. Too much maternal interactive interventions such as active engagement in the sibling play may diminish the friendliness of siblings. In that case the purpose of the mother’s interactive involvement is very significant: whether controlling agonistic behavior, fostering more interaction of children or meeting some personal needs (Howe et al., 2001).

Empirical study supports that conflicting parent-child relationship which includes negativity and over-control, goes hand in hand with more hostile sibling relations (Pike et al., 2005; Brody, 1998), whereas a positive parent-child relationship contributes to closeness among siblings (Brody et al., 1996).

In fact parent-child relationship of a family involves many individual, often subconscious, meanings which influence the person’s perception of the relationship. Thus, the child’s perception of the relationship may be different than the parent’s perception or the actual relationship pattern. Consequently, while talking about the child’s adjustment and psychological determinants; it is important to take the child’s perception of the parent-child relationship into account (Serot and Teevan, 1961).

There are different theories which have focused on the significance of parent-child relationship in an individual's life. Parental Acceptance Rejection Theory proposed by Rohner and Attachment Theory suggested by Bowlby are among the main theories that study the outcomes of parent-child relationship.

### **Parental Acceptance Rejection Theory (PART)**

Parental Acceptance Rejection Theory (PAR Theory), based on many surveys in a wide range of different societies and ethnic groups, is a theory that emphasizes the importance of the parent-child relationship. It attempts to predict and explain the emotional and social development of children and adults according to parental and interpersonal acceptance-rejection that they have perceived.

According to PAR Theory every child need a positive response, in another words, "acceptance" from parents. In case of failure to satisfy these needs, children tend to be "hostile and aggressive, dependent or defensively independent, impaired in self esteem and self-adequacy, emotionally unresponsive, emotionally unstable and to have a negative world view" (Rohner and Khaleque, 2005, p. 1). In addition, adolescents and adults who have perceived themselves as rejected, are found to present more behavior problems, depressed affect and substance abuse (Rohner and Khaleque, 2005). The evidence from studies show that 26% of the variability of psychological and behavioral adjustment among children and 21% among adults can be explained

by the degree of perceived acceptance or rejection by care-givers (Rohner and Khaleque, 2005).

The concept of “parental acceptance-rejection” refers to the warmth dimension of parenting. It must be noted that “parent” doesn’t necessarily refer to parents but to the major care-giver of the child. It is assumed that all humans experience more or less love from care-givers, so the warmth dimension of parenting can be represented by a line with parental acceptance experience on one side and on the other side parental rejection. “Acceptance” refers to warmth and affection or simply love. “Rejection” refers to withdrawal of these feelings. The parents rejecting behavior may take the form of unaffectionate, aggressive, neglecting and rejecting; and the child may experience these rejecting behaviors as cold, hostile, indifferent and undifferentiated. The child feels as if the parents do not care about him, even though there is no clear evidence that it’s true.

The rejecting behaviors are exhibited both verbally and physically. They can also be shown symbolically, by gestures or special actions that have a particular meaning in a specific culture. It should be noted that neglecting behavior doesn’t always necessarily have to be an outcome of being indifferent. Sometimes parents are neglecting because they are angry and have a difficult time with their children. While conceptualizing all these, PART takes the “perceived” acceptance-rejection into consideration. In families, the reality and the child’s perception may not always match. Although there seems to be warmth among members of a family, the child may perceive rejection. Similarly, in other families even though there is parental rejection, the child

may not feel rejected. Thus PAR Theory focuses on the child's interpretation of caregiver's behaviors (Rohner and Khaleque, 2005).

PART focuses on the consequences of parental acceptance and rejection under three sub theories. The Personality Sub-Theory explores whether all the children in the world react the same when they perceive acceptance or rejection by parents. In addition it works on the reflections of childhood rejection on adulthood. On the other hand, the Coping Sub-Theory investigates the reasons for different coping levels for different people subjected to parental rejection experience. Finally, the Socio-Cultural Systems Sub-Theory deals with the specific society, community, familial and psychological factors that affect the parental acceptance-rejection.

#### *Personality Sub-theory*

The Personality Sub Theory is based on an assumption that every human being has an emotional need for positive response. Parents are the most probable sources for children to ensure their emotional need. In adolescence and adulthood, significant others, individuals who become close to the person and who are important to him/her, also become sources of satisfaction of the emotional need. The sub-theory tries to predict and explain the personality and psychological health of humans, according to their perceived parental acceptance-rejection feeling.

It is already mentioned that significant others are also very crucial, but according to PART parents are especially important due to the fact that the



sense of emotional security and state of well-being as well as the later relationships of adults tend to depend strongly on the quality of relationship of child with the parents. Therefore in both PART and Attachment Theory, parents are called the attachment figures. Attachment figures play a big role in forming personality over time. According to Personality Sub-theory, not only children's but also adults' sense of emotional security and well-being depend on their relationship with attachment figures.

In the Personality Sub-theory, "personality" is defined as an individual's more or less stable way of responding in various situations. It assumes that behavior is motivated by internal and external factors. Especially need for positive response from parents is a very strong motivator. Children or adults whose needs are not satisfied by parents tend to be anxious and insecure. This influences the level of dependency of a person. "Dependency" is referred to the internal wish, yearning for emotional support of attachment figures and the behaviors that are performed in order to gain that support. Children may act this out by crying or clinging to parents. In adults it may be shown more symbolically. On the other hand "independent people" are the ones who have satisfied their need for positive response and thus do not constantly yearn for warmth and such behaviors.

According to Personality Sub-Theory, "rejection" causes psychological problems. Hostility, aggression, low self-esteem, low self-adequacy, and emotional instability may be counted among such negative outcomes. These emotions create a negative a world-view and people who are rejected feel pain.

When this pain becomes unendurable, individuals may close off emotionally in order to end the pain and they become emotionally less responsive. Such people have difficulty in showing and accepting love. Consequently they may become defensively independent. Even though they don't make behavioral bids for positive response just like independent people, deep inside, they crave for closeness causing many relational problems.

Moreover, Personality Sub-Theory indicates that individuals who feel rejected tend to view themselves parallel to the way they think their attachment figures view them. They think they are not loved, therefore they regard themselves unlovable and unworthy. They tend to become emotionally upset and get engulfed in a negative worldview. Consequently these feelings form the "mental representation" of the individual, which refers to the individual's concept of existence about himself and others, depending on the past experiences. Once a mental representation is formed, the individual tends to perceive people and events from that perspective. For instance, rejected people have a tendency to perceive negative feelings such as hostility or insecurity without any cause. They have difficulty trusting in their relationships. Because of these distorted mental representations and selective perceptions, they become uneasy compared to accepted people and this is reflected in their interactions with others (Rohner and Khaleque, 2005).

### *Coping Sub-theory*

Coping Sub Theory deals with the question: “How are some rejected people able to overcome the consequences of being rejected?” According to a hypothesis in PART, the presence of an alternative warm attachment figure plays a positive role in responses to parental rejection. Siblings may be counted as an example for an alternative attachment figure. In addition, self determination is important in coping. Some people attribute everything in life to fate while others value self determination. Individuals who feel that they have the power to take control have more opportunities for managing difficulties. Moreover individuals who have the capacity to depersonalize are able to deal better with perceived rejection.

Individuals who are able to cope are divided into two groups. “Affective Copers” are people with more or less good mental health even though they had experienced rejection in childhood. On the other hand, “Instrumental Copers” are people who are successful in school and professional life but not emotionally very healthy. Except the most severely rejected people, when individuals are involved in satisfying relationships and positive experiences, they can recompense and adjust to a better psychology. However, compared to the ones who have experienced enough love and acceptance in childhood, Affective Copers have greater risk for social and emotional problems in life (Rohner and Khaleque, 2005).

### *Socio-cultural Systems Model Sub-theory*

Acceptance/rejection is shaped by the maintenance systems of the society such as family structure and economical-political organizations within the natural environment. This model also points out the power of parents' acceptance/rejection on child's personalities. In PART symbolic expressions such as religious, artistic, musical and folkloric traditions are conceptualized under the term "institutional expressive systems" since it is believed that they express the psychological states of the community. As a result, all these factors are in interaction with each other and Socio-Cultural Systems Sub-Theory attempts to explain the world wide effects of parental acceptance-rejection (Rohner and Khaleque, 2005).

Moreover, since 1999 there has been a paradigm shift in PART from parental to interpersonal acceptance-rejection. From then on, PART has accepted the significance of other interpersonal relationships besides the parental relationship. According to the new postulate, rejection by an attachment figure at any point in life causes the same personality damages as those suffered by the children or adults who have perceived rejection by parents. Teachers, intimate adult relationships and sibling relationships may be shown as examples.

### **Attachment Theory**

Attachment theory focuses on socio-emotional development and human relations while providing a biological basis for close relationships (Morris,

Parkes and Stevenson-Hinde, 1991). Just like PART, it also points out the importance of early relationships with care-givers as a basis and a model for future relationships. Thus, the effects of mother-child relationship on sibling relationship cannot be disregarded (Teti & Abbard, 1989).

According to Bowlby (1973, cited in Scharf et al., 2005) an infant innately has a desire to be close to the care-giver for his survival. This desire for proximity is a biological drive and enables the occurrence of a strong, long enduring affectional bond with the care-giver (Ainsworth, 1989).

Bowlby (1973, cited in Scharf et al., 2005) and Ainsworth (1989) indicate that children bind to their attachment figure, usually the parent, who becomes a secure base for him/her and regulates the infant's security and protection needs. Thus, the child maintains a sense of felt security which is needed to be able to explore the world.

The attitude of the attachment figure and the degree that he/she satisfies the infant's needs determines the child's attachment style. When the care-giver is sensitive and responsive to the child, the infant feels secure and knows that the care-giver is present in time of need. Consequently, the availability and responsiveness of the care-giver influences the infant's coping with stress since the attachment figure acts as the regulator of the child's affective and physiological reactions under stress (Bartholomew and Horowitz, 1991).

In addition, the relationship with the care-giver influences later relationships. The infant internalizes the relational pattern with the attachment figure and that relationship becomes a prototype for later interactions. Bowlby

(1973, cited in Scharf et al., 2005) refers to these internal representations as “internal working models”. They are organized in childhood and they guide beliefs, feelings, behaviors and processing of information, including attention, perception, memory and interpretation (Cassidy, Kirsh, Scolton and Parke, 1996). Based on these internal working models, a general image of “the other” and image of “the self” are created (Bowlby, 1973, cited in Scharf et al., 2005) which influences later interactions.

For instance, the connection between attachment and peer related representations seems to be very significant (Cassidy et al., 1996). Securely attached children receive more positive behavior from unfamiliar peers compared to insecurely attached children. They have more positive peer related representations. In addition, greater perceived rejection by both of the parents was associated with greater perceived hostile peer intent (Cassidy et al., 1996).

Considering the image of the other and the self, four models of prototypic adult attachment forms may be described (Bartholomew and Horowitz, 1991) One of these is a secure attachment style and other three are insecure attachment styles.

Securely attached individuals have positive expectations for both the self and the other. Besides assuming other people to be supportive, accepting and responsive; they have an internalized sense of being worthy of care, of being effective in eliciting care when required and a sense of personal efficacy in case of stress.

Insecure attachments can be examined under three categories according to the reflected expectations of the self and others: preoccupied, dismissing and fearful. Individuals, who have positive “other” representations but who feel inadequate in coping with stress, are grouped in “preoccupied attachment style”. They are usually anxious, dependent and approval seeking. They experience a great fear of loss, thus they feel intense separation anxiety. On the other hand, people who have a positive self-view but who do not trust the support of others, have a “dismissive attachment style”. They avoid intimacy and value self sufficiency. Finally, the individuals with “fearful attachment style” have negative expectations both for the self and the other. Consequently, they present a cautious, doubting, self conscious and suspicious style (Maunder and Hunter, 2001).

In sum, according to attachment theory children develop internal representations of their interactions with parents, which are used throughout the life span in other relationships, including the relationship with siblings (Brody, 1998). Since mental representations operate subconsciously, they are resistant to change and they influence the people’s future behaviors and relational patterns (Cassidy et al., 1996). Thus, internal representations shape an individual’s whole meaning making system. Positive relationships between parents and the children encourage children’s benign attributions for negative events with siblings and others (Brody, 1998). Consequently, these individuals do not tend to accept negative events as reflecting the harmful intentions of their siblings.

In general, according to attachment theory, a person's attachment experience in early childhood remains as a contributor to the individual's social representations and it is considered as a life span phenomenon (Cassidy et al., 1996). However, the relationships that people engage in are neither constructed afresh nor a simple transfer of the past relationships (Sroufe and Fleeson; 1986, in Cassidy et al., 1996). Instead; "it is assumed that previous relationships exert their influence through attitudes, expectations, and understanding of roles which they leave with the individual" (Cassidy et al., 1996, p. 59). In addition, "children internalize not only the child's role in parent-child relationship but also the complementary role of the caregiver" and "carry forward aspects of the caregiver role in their relationship with others" (Sroufe and Fleeson, 1986; cited in Teti and Ablard, 1989, pp. 1519, 1526).

The security of an infant's attachment reflects on the sibling-infant relationship (Teti and Ablard, 1989). Secure infants are found to react less negatively towards the mother and the sibling when the mother shifts her attention to the other sibling. They feel less threatened and more certain of their mothers' emotional availability, due to the fact that they have more intuitive notion of security (Teti and Ablard, 1989).

Furthermore, an infant becomes attached to an older sibling occurs only when the older siblings' attachment to the primary care-giver is secure. Thus, older siblings may serve as complementary attachment figure (Teti and Ablard, 1989). In other words, the presence of infant attachment behavior towards an older sibling is related neither to infants' attachment security nor to infants' or



siblings' gender and age. Less secure older siblings respond to the infants in a nurturing manner only when the infants' distress level is very high whereas more secure older siblings show nurturance in a regular pattern (Teti and Ablard, 1989). In line with this, secure sibling dyads show higher levels of care-giving response compared to insecure dyads. This may be because two secure children are the products of a sensitive care-giver and they take the role of the care-giver in their relationship (Teti and Ablard, 1989).

In sum, previous studies have not shown any association between infant-sibling attachment security and the sex composition of the sibling dyad. Thus, sibling relations seem to depend mostly on parent-child relationship rather than variables such as gender, age, family size (Teti and Ablard, 1989).

When PART and attachment theory are examined together, it is clear that they both emphasize the importance of the parent-child relationship for the development of prosocial orientation among individuals including siblings. Besides these perspectives, there are other theories that support the importance of parent-child relationship. The influence of parent-child relationship on siblings is also examined within these theories.

### **Social Learning Theory**

It is suggested by the social learning theorists that behavior patterns performed during a relationship are generalized for other relations (Patterson, 1984; cited in Brody, 1998). Thus, the correspondence between qualities of

relationships that take place in different contexts is pointed out (McCoy, Brody, and Stoneman, 2002). Consequently, the pattern in parent-child interaction is accepted to “spillover” into the sibling relationship (Patterson, 1984; cited in Brody, 1998). The bi-directional nature of interactions among family members, explained in the “spillover hypothesis”, leads to diffusion of negativity between parents and children converging on sibling maladjustment (Feinberg, Hetherington, Reiss and Neiderhiser, 2005). Moreover, in cases of co-parenting, coalitions, scapegoating and marital problems within the family; the availability of parents decreases due to the fact that their own problems consume their time. Thus, in order to attain parent’s recognition, siblings get motivated to seek out different senses of identity. Differentiation among the siblings (Feinberg et al., 2005) which reflects into the sibling relationship is resulted.

### **Social Cognitive Theory**

Social cognitive theory of Bandura (1991, cited in Brody, 1998) emphasizes the importance of observing, and modeling the parents in the process of acquiring problem solving skills. Children observing supportive communications among family members learn to be empathic and cooperative during disagreements with siblings. On the other, hand children who are raised in families that involve harsh parenting and unresolved anger, tend to develop behavioral styles, emotion regulation strategies and cognitions that will reinforce sibling conflict (Brody, 1998).

In addition, in the parent-child relationship, through optimum parenting, the child internalizes a set of norms which enables him to control himself in his relationship with siblings leading to a more harmonious sibling relationship (Brody, 1998).

### **Psychoanalytic Theory**

Although psychoanalytic theory was the starting point for attachment theory, it also developed different perspectives emphasizing the importance of parental relationships on personality and psychopathology (Bornstein, 1993; cited in Çavdar, 2003). Especially, object relations theorists underline the role of significant others in future interaction patterns. Thus, the parent-child relationships, accepted as the earliest significant relationship, is reflected in the into sibling relationship. Even though psychoanalytic theory has not focused significantly on sibling relationships, Jacobsen (1964) explains the position of siblings as the target of displacement of the child's hostile feelings for the mother.

As can be seen, an impressive consensus of research findings indicates that the parent-child relationship constructs a basis for sibling relationships. More specifically, the father-child relationship has a particular salience in predicting sibling relationship quality (Brody et al., 1994). The effect of paternal involvement is found to be greater than the maternal involvement on sibling relationship quality (Updegraff et al., 2005). Probably, the unavailability

of fathers compared to mothers, renders their relationship with children more salient. This psychological salience strengthens positive or negative emotions, making them more likely to spill over into the sibling relationship (Brody et al., 1994). In addition, especially when fathers spend less time with siblings, the aggression becomes even more severe whereas the time spent with mother is not so crucial. This finding occurs due to the fact that, for children, the value their fathers gave to them is matched with the amount of time they spend with the children (Updegraff et al., 2005).

In the literature, the stronger relationship between the father-child relationship and sibling relationship quality is linked to the different parental roles attributed to fathers and mothers. The mother's parental role is more scripted whereas the fathers' paternal role shows more variability which may facilitate the relationship with the child. In addition, fathers' relationships with their children are more play oriented and they include more leisure time. Due to this characteristic, the father-child interaction is more similar to the sibling relationship compared to the mother-child relationship which involves more care-giving and nursing (Updegraff et al., 2005). In addition, paternal intervention is more strongly linked to relational aggression in same sex dyads (Updegraff et al., 2005).

On the other hand, much of the sibling research underlines the impact of mothers on siblings' interactions (Furman and Giberson, 1995; cited in Howe et al., 2001). The association with mother-child relationship and sibling relationship is found to be especially significant for older siblings (Brody et al.,

1994). However, this association was limited to positiveness among siblings. No association between the quality of mother-child relationship and the negativity in sibling relationship is observed in empirical studies (Brody et al., 1994). Thus, negativity in the sibling relationship may be linked to other variables such as father-child relationship or increased life stressors (Brody et al., 1994). As can be seen, there are contradictory findings about the maternal and paternal influences on sibling relationship.

To sum up, it is clear that all the factors that have an influence on the sibling relationship quality are connected to each other. For instance, if parenting is not hostile, neither marital distress nor parental depression has a significant effect on sibling relationship (Brody et al., 1994). A difficult tempered child may have a supportive sibling relationship if his relationship with his parents is affectively positive (Brody, 1998). This exemplifies the moderating effects of the quality of parent-child relationship on the association between difficult child temperament and sibling relationship (Brody et al., 1998). Accordingly, it is more reliable to focus on interactions of different variables in order to predict the quality of sibling relationship.

The findings of Scarf et al. (2005) support the influence of parent-child relationship on sibling relationship. They found that less conflictual relationships with parents are associated with less hostile sibling relationships. The authors distinguished between two kinds of dependence on parents: conflictual dependence and functional dependence. Functional dependence on parents is related to higher warmth and less rivalry whereas conflictual

dependence is related to higher levels of conflicts and rivalry among siblings. Seven % to 23% of the variance in sibling relationship is explained by the level of conflictual and functional dependence on parents. However, they implied that age of siblings is another important factor that makes this association more complex. As siblings step into adulthood the relationship with the parents is not found to be related to conflicts in the sibling relationships. As they get older and more mature and as their daily interactions decrease, emerging adult siblings start to understand each other better and have fewer conflicts, regardless of their relationships with parents (Scharf et al., 2005). As siblings get older and more autonomous, their relationships also seem to get autonomous and not any more directly connected to other relationships within the family (Goetting, 1986).

In the literature it is mostly mentioned that difficult temperament, marital unhappiness and conflict in family are associated with negativity in sibling relationship. However, multiple and contradictory processes coexist in family dynamics. For instance, even though in general it is stated that siblings exposed to anger experience more conflict, some older siblings are observed to respond to anger among adults by increasing care-giving and prosocial behavior toward their younger siblings (Cummings and Smith, 1989; cited in Brody, 1998). Moreover, sibling coalitions also occur against parental inefficacy (Goetting, 1986). Consequently, problematic parent-child interaction may facilitate sibling loyalty and support.

Similarly, it is very common to associate marital distress with negativity in sibling relationship. However, some children of divorced parents for whom the adult support was mostly unavailable engage in enmeshed sibling relationships (Hetherington, 1988; cited in Brody, 1998). These children are found to be nurturing and empathetic with one another. However, they tend to have internalizing symptoms and be unconcerned about peers' feelings (Hetherington, 1988; cited in Brody, 1988). Siblings in close relationships identify their relationship as a source of emotional support in times of stress (Dunn, 1996; cited in Brody, 1998). In line with these conceptualizations, such children's clarification about the internal states to their siblings has more influence on sibling relationship quality than maternal behaviors (Howe et al., 2001).

In the literature, parental contributions to children's interactions, and the factors specific to the sibling dyad such as age difference, have been addressed as the factors that provide fruitful insight about sibling relationship quality. There have been studies that examined the influence of these factors. However, research which examine these two factors by taking both the mother's and the father's role into consideration, and which address their interaction has been recent in literature.

In the present study, the aim is to understand the factors underlying the quality of sibling relationship in relation to the parent-child relationship. The literature about sibling relations has been focused on sibling relations in

childhood or among old-aged siblings. According to Cicrelli (1995, cited in Scharf et al., 2005) the greatest gap in knowledge about the sibling relationship exists for the period of young adulthood. Thus, this study aims to examine the sibling relations from the perspective of emerging adults. Scharf et al. (2005) suggest that sibling relationship quality of emerging adults is less related to parent-child relationship compared to adolescents. The association of the quality of relationship with parents and the quality of sibling relations will be examined. Other studies in the literature point out the correspondence between the parent-child relationship and the later relationships which also includes the sibling relationship. However, in some cases the sibling relationship may have a differential quality and even act as a compensatory factor for the failures in parent-child relationship. This study aims to figure out the parental influence on siblings and to explore the determinants of this influence.

## **Hypotheses**

### ***Hypotheses Related to the Influence of Parent-child Relationship on the Quality of Sibling Relationship***

As mentioned above, much of the empirical data supports the claim that parents do have an impact on siblings' exchanges. According to the Perspective of Relationships Theory (Dunn, 1988, a 1993; Hinde, 1987; cited in Howe et al., 2001, p.122) "the developmental trajectory of the sibling relationship is related to the initial relationship between the siblings and to the interaction between mother and children".



In general, studies supported the influence of parent-child relationship on sibling relationship. Less conflictual relationships with parents are found to be associated to less hostile sibling relationship. They suggested that the level of conflictual and functional dependence on parents explained 7% to 23% of the quality of sibling relationship (Scarf et al., 2005). *In line with these findings, in the present study it is expected that higher negativity in the parent-child relationship will predict more negativity in the sibling relationship.*

Relationships with father and mother have been found to have different influence on sibling relationship. Compared to mother-child relationship, a stronger impact of father-child relationship on sibling relationship quality has been reported (Updegraff et al., 2005). The mother's parental role is more stereotypic. However fathers' role shows more variability among families and this may facilitate the relation with the child (Updegraff et al., 2005). When fathers spend less time with siblings, the aggression becomes even more severe while the time spent with mother seems not to be so critical (Updegraff et al., 2005). This may be because the children feel valued by their fathers when the fathers spend more enough time for them. In addition since fathers' relationships with their children are more play oriented, they may more likely be perceived as a model for sibling relationship rather than the mother-child relationship which involves more care giving. *Thus, it is expected to find a greater effect of paternal rejection on sibling relationship compared to maternal rejection.*

### ***Hypotheses Related to the Influence of Sibling Configuration on the Quality of Sibling Relationship***

In the literature parental contributions to the children's interactions, and the factors specific to the sibling dyad such as age difference, gender composition and birth order has been addressed as the factors that play important role on sibling relationship quality (Howe et al., 2001). In fact, sibling status factors and paternal relationship quality also interact with each other influencing the sibling relationship.

For instance, age difference is found to be a significant factor influencing the quality of sibling relationship. Toman (1988, 1983; in Lawson and Brossart, 2004) indicates that different dynamics act upon the parent-child relationship when sibling spacing is 6 or more compared to siblings who are closer in age. Small age difference bonds the children, enables closer relations between them and thus it increases the intimacy. On the other hand, for siblings whose age difference is more than 6, the interaction is limited. Thus, they have less contact. In line with that, there is less potential for both conflict and intimacy. In addition, siblings spaced less than 2 years apart are more likely to engage in similar activities, friends and share more similar interests. All these circumstances contribute to conflict and rivalry (Minnet et al., 1983). On the other hand, in other cases wider sibling spacing predicts more positive family interaction, especially between fathers and the adolescents (Toman 1988; in Lawson and Brossart, 2004). Wider sibling spacing leads to more positive relations among parents and children since it is assumed to include fewer

demands for parent attention and thus less stressful environment (Toman 1983; in Lawson and Brossart, 2004). *Considering these two perspectives it is expected that smaller age difference will predict warmer relationship and greater rivalry between siblings. On the other hand, it is expected that wider age difference moderates conflicts between siblings and the influence of parent-child relationship on sibling relationship quality.*

Sibling configurations such as age difference and gender also influence the parental impact on the quality of sibling relationship. Volling & Belsky (1992) suggest that insensitive parenting contributes to poor social adaptation of siblings. They mention two kinds of parental styles: “Maternal interactive management style” which includes involvement in joint activities with children, and “anticipatory management style” which involves maternal discussion of the children’s internal states and is conceptualized as a positive parental style that lowers the probability of sibling hostility.

Maternal discussion of internal states may provide a model for the children to be more sensitive and use reasoning more. This is internalized by the first born child and then is reflected to the sibling cooperation. Consequently especially the firstborn’s sensitivity to internal states is found to have a crucial role on the evolution of the quality of sibling relationship (Howe et al., 2001). In addition Minnet et al. (1983) indicate that when the first born is a girl, they adopt the caretaker role and become more nurturing than older brothers. Especially girls are found to be more effective teachers for their siblings when the age difference is wide. *In that sense it is assumed that in*

*siblings whose age difference is wide and the first born child is a girl, she may act as a substitute parent. Thus it is expected that the effect of parent-child relationship will be less on sibling relationship in such sibling configurations.*

In addition, children themselves influence the quality of sibling relationship over time. The study of Howe et al. (2001) found that children's references to their siblings about internal states are more influential than maternal behaviors on sibling relationship. This variable had a greater effect on children who had less sibling agonism. Thus in some cases the sibling relationship quality may override the influence of parent-child relationship.

#### ***Hypotheses Related to the Influence of Gender on Sibling Relationship***

In addition independent of the quality of parent-child relationship, sibling status such as sex contributes to sibling relationship.

Minnet et al. (1983) observed that younger siblings of same-sex dyads show more prosocial and imitative behavior. In addition it is noted that same sex dyads may experience greater conflict and rivalry since they have greater similarities. It is found that same-sex dyads perform more cheating, aggression and negative behaviors. Taking all these into consideration it is *expected to find more conflict and rivalry among same sex dyads.*

In particular it is observed that, in general, dyads consisting sisters reported higher levels of intimacy compared to all other dyads (Updegraff et al., 2005). According to Cassidy et al. (1996) in general women tend to get involve more in close relationships compared to men. Among the sibling dyads sister-

sister relationship found to be the most intensely bond combination. In studies which examined siblings, two sisters scored the highest on warmth, intimacy and felt similarity (Dunn et al, 1994b; cited in Scharf et al., 2005). On the other hand boy-boy dyads found to be less caring, less involved in intimate exchanges; they come up less with coping resolutions (Cole and Kerns, 2001; cited in Updegraff et al., 2005) and are less responsive to their siblings compared to girl-girl dyads (Minnet et al., 1983). However in these studies data from mixed gender combinations were missing. *Parallel to the findings it is expected that sibling relationship will be warmer between sisters compared to brothers.*

Moreover gender of siblings is also found to be a significant factor influencing the impact of parent-child relationship on the quality of sibling relationship. The effect of direct parenting on sibling relationship is found to be more salient among girls. This may result from the fact that the parental concern for relational aggression in girls is greater, compared to boys since greater developmental emphasis is placed on girls' social relationships (Ruble and Martin, 1998; in Updegraff, 2005). Consequently the parent child relationship has the strongest influence on sister-sister combination of siblings. *Thus it is expected that the influence of parent-child relationship will be greater on sibling relationship quality for sister-sister configuration.*

Consequently the hypotheses of the proposed study are stated as below:

***Hypotheses Related to the Influence of Parent-child Relationship on the Quality of Sibling Relationship***

1. Greater perceived rejection in the parent-child relationship will predict more conflict and jealousy, and less positiveness in the sibling relationship.
2. Father's rejection will have a stronger effect on the sibling relationship than mother's rejection.

***Hypotheses Related to the Influence of Sibling Configuration on the Quality of Sibling Relationship***

3. The age difference between siblings will be negatively related to both positiveness and jealousy; that is, the smaller the age difference, the greater the positiveness and jealousy.
4. There will be an interaction between sex of the older sibling and effect of age difference on positiveness of sibling relation, such that the increase in positiveness with age difference will be greater if the older sibling is a girl.
5. There will be an interaction between the parental rejection and effect of age difference and sex of the older sibling on positiveness of sibling relation, such that the negative effect of parental rejection on the quality of sibling relationship will be reduced if the age difference is wide and the older sibling is a girl.

***Hypotheses Related to the Influence of Gender on Sibling Relationship***

6. There will be more positiveness between opposite sex siblings, but more conflict and jealousy in same sex dyads.
7. There will be more positiveness among sisters compared the other dyads
8. The influence of parent child relationship will be greatest on sibling relationship quality in the sister-sister configuration.

## METHOD

### Sample

The sample consisted of 182 students (90 male, 92 female) taking the PSY 202, PSY 214 and PSY 402 courses in İstanbul Bilgi University. The age range in the sample is 18-29 ( $M=22$ ,  $SD=3.05$ ). Each participant is a member of an intact family with 2 children. A hundred of the participants are first-borns and 82 are the second child in the family. Eighty-nine of the participants have same-sex siblings, while 94 have opposite-sex siblings. Among the 89 same sex siblings, there are 47 sister-sister combinations and 42 brother-brother combinations. Forty-five of the cross-sex sibling pairs have an older sister and a younger brother, while 41 have an older brother and a younger sister. For 98 of the sibling pairs the age difference is four years or less, while for 84 pairs the age difference is 5 or more years.

### Instruments

Three measures were used in the study: Sibling Relationship Scale, and the mother and father forms of Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire.

#### *Demographic form:*

The form elicited information about the sex and the age of the sample, the age difference between siblings and the sex of the sibling.



***Sibling Relationship Scale (SRS):***

Self report Sibling Relationship Scale (Çavdar, 2003) includes 29 items that describe one's relationship with his/her sibling. There are items including statements about feelings toward the sibling, and the feelings toward the parent's attitude toward the sibling. Each item is designed to be rated in a Likert Scale from 1 standing for "does not describe me at all" to 5 "describes me completely". Çavdar (2003) used the scale in order to get information about two different life periods of subjects: period before primary school (primary school subscale, PSS) and last year of the high school (high school subscale, HSS).

According to the pilot study that is carried out for reliability analysis, the Cronbach alpha for the ratings before primary school is .82 and for the ratings that focus on the relationship at the last year of the high school it is .87. In our study we used the scale which asks about the relationship with the sibling "they were little".

Two factor analyses was conducted and the final factor organization combining the PSS and HSS organizations was created by uniting some factors on the basis of the items' content and 2nd highest the loading. Çavdar (2003) extracted 5 factors. Factor 1 is "Jealousy/Rivalry and it consists of 3 groups of items defining jealousy/ rivalry over mother, over father and with no target parent. Items standing for jealousy / rivalry with no target include simply being jealous of the sibling and attempts to triumph over him / her. Factor 2 is "Positiveness of the Relationship" standing for mutual positive feelings. Factor

3 is “Conflict” including fights and arguments. Factor 4 is “Admiration and Acceptance” of the sibling. Factor 5 and 6 are measures of “Perceived Differential Treatment in favor of the sibling. Factor 5 stands for the differential treatment by the father (DT by father) where as Factor 6 defines the differential treatment by the mother (DT by mother). A score for each factor was calculated.

***Parental Acceptance Rejection Questionnaire (Adult - PARQ):***

Mother and father forms of the self report Parental Acceptance - Rejection Questionnaire (Rohner, 1991) were used in the present study. Mother form includes items that define the relationship between the child and the mother. It describes adults’ perception of their mother's treatment of them when they were about seven through twelve years old. In the father form same items are rated considering the relationship with the father. Each form includes 60 items that are rated on a 4 point Likert Scale ranging from “almost never true” (1) to “almost always true” (4).

Acceptance is assessed with the Warmth /Affection scale and rejection with the Aggression / Hostility scale. Responses for items on the Warmth / Acceptance scale are reverse-scored and summed with responses of the items on the Aggression / Hostility for a total score of perceived rejection.

Reliability and validity assessment of the Adult- PARQ has revealed no significant age, sex, social class, or ethnic group differences in scores among participants. The reliability coefficients for the mother version of Adult PARQ ranged from .86 to .95 with a median reliability of .91 (Rohner and Khaleque,

2005). Since the father version are identical to the mother version, except the use of noun/pronoun, and no difference in the reliability or validity of these versions is expected; formal validation procedure has not been applied to father version. The internal reliability (coefficient alpha) is found to be .90 for the warmth / affection scale and .87 for the aggression / hostility scale (Rohner and Khaleque, 2005).

The questionnaire has been adapted into Turkish by Anjel and Erkman (1993) and then elaborated by Erkman (2003, cited in Turgut, 2005). In terms of reliability for the mother version, Cronbach Alpha values for warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect and the undifferentiated rejection subscales were .91, .87, .86, .81 respectively. The alpha coefficient for the total rejection is .81 (Erkman and Rohner, 2005; cited in Turgut, 2005)

The Cronbach Alpha values for warmth/affection, hostility/aggression, indifference/neglect and the undifferentiated rejection subscales of the father version, were .93, .91, .86, .58 respectively. The alpha coefficient for the total rejection is .85 (Erkman and Rohner, 2005; cited in Turgut, 2005)

## **Procedure**

Permission was requested from the course instructors to recruit participants from their courses. Students were informed that participation was voluntary and that their responses would be anonymous. Respondents received partial course credit for their participation in the study.

Questionnaires are delivered in a package to the participants in classroom setting. The package consisted of a form for informed consent, a form which included demographic information, PARQ (mother and father forms) and the SRS. The order of the questionnaires in the package was as listed above. It took 15-20 minutes to fill the questionnaires placed in the package.

## RESULTS

The means of perceived maternal and paternal acceptance and rejection scores are presented in Table 1, and Table 2 shows the distribution of the sample with respect to perceived maternal and paternal acceptance and rejection. High and low rejection categories are created by using median split. The means of sibling relationship quality subscale scores are presented in Table 3.

Table 1.  
*Means and Standard Deviations of Perceived Maternal Rejection and Paternal Rejection scores.*

	MAR Score	FAR Score
Mean*	86.28	93.28
Std. Deviation	20.07	26.25
Minimum	60.00	60.00
Maximum	168.00	179.00

\* Higher numbers indicate higher rejection.

Table 2.  
*Distribution of the Sample with respect to the Perceived Maternal Rejection (MAR) and Perceived Paternal Rejection (FAR)*

		FAR (Frequency)		Total
		Low Rejection	High Rejection	
MAR (Frequency)	Low Rejection	83	47	130
	High Rejection	15	37	52
Total		98	84	182

Table 3.  
*Means and Standard Deviations of Sibling Relationship Quality Factor Scores*

	Jealousy (14 items)	Positiveness (5 items)	Conflict (2 items)
Mean	21.15	17.99	4.76
Std. Deviation	8.75	4.87	2.05
Minimum	14.00	5.00	2.00
Maximum	57.00	25.00	10.00

In order to test the hypotheses related to the influence of parent-child relationship on the quality of sibling relationship a two way Manova was conducted with the levels of perceived maternal rejection level and perceived paternal rejection level as the between-subjects variables, and sibling jealousy, positiveness and conflict as dependent variables (See Table 4.1, 4.2 and 4.3 for means). Results indicated that the main effect of maternal rejection was significant for sibling jealousy,  $F(1,178)=14.34, p=.0001, \eta_p^2=.08$ , positiveness  $F(1,178)=10.79, p=.001, \eta_p^2=.06$  and conflict  $F(1,178)=25.84, p=.0001, \eta_p^2=.13$ . As maternal rejection increased jealousy and conflict between siblings also increased, whereas positiveness decreased. On the other hand there was no significant main effect of paternal rejection on jealousy, positiveness or conflict. The interaction between maternal and paternal rejection level was not significant either. Thus the first hypothesis suggesting that the higher rejection in the parent-child relationship will predict more jealousy and conflict but less positiveness in the sibling relationship, was partly supported. In addition the second hypothesis predicting stronger effect of father's rejection on the sibling relationship than mother's rejection was not supported.

Table 4.1.  
*Mean Scores and, Standard Deviations for Jealousy by to Maternal and Paternal Rejection Levels.*

Jealousy	Maternal rejection	Paternal Rejection		
		Low	High	Total
	Low	19.54 (6.83)	20.17 (10.31)	19.77 (8.23)*
	High	27.87 (8.98)	23.27(8.99)	24,6 (9.14)*
	Total	20.82 (7.75)	21.54 (9.82)	21.15 (8.75)

\* shows significant difference between low and high levels of maternal rejection (p<.01)

Table 4.2.  
*Mean Scores and, Standard Deviations for Positiveness by Maternal and Paternal Rejection Levels.*

Positiveness	Maternal rejection	Paternal Rejection		
		Low	High	Total
	Low	19.07 (4.87)	18.45 (4.09)	18.85 (4.59)*
	High	16.33 (4.08)	15.68 (5.27)	15.87 (4.92)*
	Total	18.65 (4.84)	17.23 (4.82)	18.00 (4.87)

\* shows significant difference between low and high levels of maternal rejection (p<.01)

Table 4.3.  
*Mean Scores and, Standard Deviations for Conflict by Maternal and Paternal Rejection Levels.*

Conflict	Maternal rejection	Paternal Rejection		
		Low	High	Total
	Low	4.18 (1.95)	4.30 (1.61)	4.22 (1.83)*
	High	5.47 (2.13)	6.38 (1.82)	6.12 (1.94)*
	Total	4.38 (2.02)	5.21 (1.99)	4.76 (2.04)

\* shows significant difference between low and high levels of maternal rejection (p<.01)

When jealousy over mother versus father is examined with another two way Manova, the mother's acceptance rejection level was found to have a significant effect on both jealousy over mother  $F(1,178)=8.49, p=.004, \eta_p^2=.05$  and father  $F(1,178)=14.25, p=.0001, \eta_p^2=.07$ , whereas there was no significant main effect of father's rejection level on either of them (See Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 for the means). In addition, the interaction of maternal and paternal acceptance rejection level is found to have a significant main effect on jealousy over mother  $F(1,178)=5.49, p=.02, \eta_p^2=.03$  (See Figure 1) but not jealousy over father. For the individuals who had high levels of maternal rejection; as the paternal rejection level increased, jealousy over mother also increased. On the other hand for the individuals reporting lower levels of rejection, paternal rejection did not seem to influence the levels of jealousy over mother.

Table 5.1.  
*Mean Scores and, Standard Deviations for Sibling Jealousy over Mother by Maternal and Paternal Rejection Levels.*

Jealousy Over Mother	Maternal Rejection	Paternal Rejection		
		Low	High	Total
	Low	8.29 (3.18)	8.89 ( 4.82)	8.51 (3.85)*
	High	12.00 (4.93)	9.30(3.93)	10.08 (4.37)*
	Total	8.86 (3.72) <sup>a</sup>	9.07 (4.43) <sup>a</sup>	8.96 (4.05)

\*shows significant difference between low and high levels of maternal rejection ( $p<.05$ )

<sup>a</sup>shows significant difference between low and high levels of paternal rejection ( $p<.05$ )



Table 5.2.  
*Mean Scores and, Standard Deviations for Sibling Jealousy over Father by Maternal and Paternal Rejection Levels.*

Jealousy Over Father	Maternal Rejection	Paternal Rejection		
		Low	High	Total
	Low	8.04 (3.06)	8.36 ( 5.08)	8.15 (3.89)*
	High	12.07 (5.70)	9.97(4.48)	10.58 (4.90)*
	Total	8.65 (3.84)	9.07 (4.86)	8.85 (4.33)

\*shows significant difference between low and high levels of maternal rejection (p<.05)

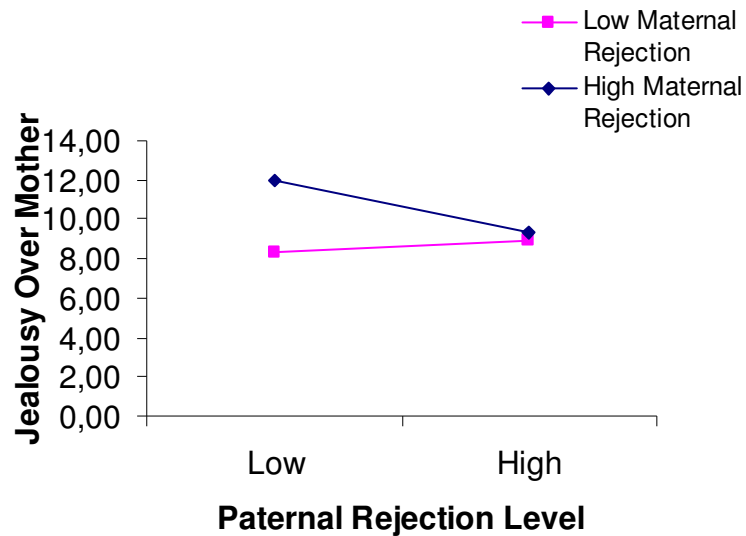


Figure1.  
*Sibling Jealousy over Mother with respect to Maternal and Paternal Rejection Levels.*

In order to test the hypotheses related to the influence of sibling configuration on the quality of sibling relationship two more Manovas were conducted. With this analysis the influence of parental rejection, sex of the older sibling and age difference on sibling relationship quality was examined, first for second-born subjects and then for first-borns. Both of the analyses were repeated first adding maternal rejection level into the analysis, and then the paternal acceptance rejection as covariates.

The results indicated that for the second born siblings the main effect of maternal acceptance rejection is significant for sibling jealousy  $F(7,92)=5.80$ ,  $p=.01$ ,  $\eta_p^2=.06$ , positiveness  $F(7,92)=10.84$ ,  $p=.001$ ,  $\eta_p^2=.11$  and conflict  $F(7,92)=17.17$ ,  $p=.001$ ,  $\eta_p^2=.16$ . No significant main effect of age difference (see Table 6 for the means) or the sex of the older sibling was found for any of the sibling relationship quality factors. Similarly the interaction between maternal acceptance rejection level and age difference, the interaction between maternal acceptance rejection and sex of older sibling and the interaction among maternal acceptance rejection level, age difference and sex of the older sibling were not significant for any of the sibling relationship factors. However the interaction between age difference and sex of older child was found to be significant for positiveness among siblings  $F(7,92)=4.00$ ,  $p=.05$ ,  $\eta_p^2=.04$  (See Figure 2). For males; as age difference between siblings increased, the positiveness decreased. However the amount of age difference did not seem to influence positiveness for females.

Table 6.  
*Mean Scores and Standard Deviations (SD) for Sibling Relationship Quality Factors Perceived by Second Born by Age Difference between Siblings and the Distribution of the Subjects.*

		Jealousy	Positiveness	Conflict	N
Age Difference	Low*	20.53 (7.77)	17.78 (4.61)	5.03 (2.17)	98
	High*	21.87 (9.77)	18.25 (5.17)	4.45 (1.85)	84

\* Low=Age difference is 4 or lower, High= age difference is 5 or higher

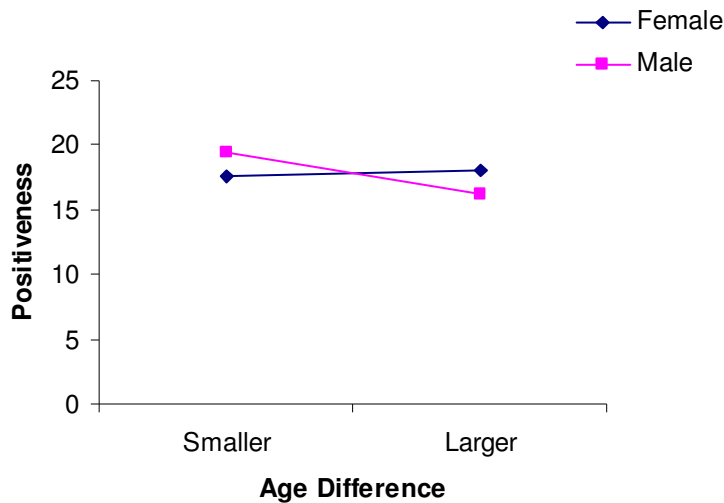


Figure 2.  
*Positiveness Perceived by Second Born with respect to Age Difference between Siblings and the Sex of the Older Sibling.*

For the second born siblings the same statistics were repeated taking the father's acceptance rejection level into consideration instead of the mother's (See Table 7 for the means). In that case paternal acceptance rejection had a main effect on positiveness  $F(7,92)=3.79, p=.05, \eta_p^2=.04$  and conflict  $F(7,92)=11.43, p=.001, \eta_p^2=.10$  but not on jealousy. There was no main effect for sex of older sibling and age difference. On the other hand the interaction between age difference and father's acceptance rejection was significant for positiveness  $F(7,92)=9.70, p=.001, \eta_p^2=.10$  (See Figure 3). For highly rejected individuals by fathers; as the age difference with the sibling increased, the positiveness decreased. However for the individuals who perceived lower levels of paternal rejection the opposite pattern is observed. Moreover the interaction between age difference, sex of older sibling and father's acceptance rejection level was significant for jealousy  $F(7,92)=8.78, p=.001, \eta_p^2=.09$  (See Figure 4) and conflict  $F(7,92)=5.23, p=.03, \eta_p^2=.05$  (See Figure 5). For highly rejected individuals by fathers whose age difference with the sibling is small, the jealousy and conflict levels were found to be higher when the older sibling is a female compared to a male. However when the age difference between the individual who experience high levels of paternal rejection and his sibling is large, a female older sibling predicted lower levels of jealousy and conflict. However an older brother predicted higher levels of jealousy and conflict. Furthermore for the individuals who perceived lower levels of paternal rejection, just the opposite pattern was observed.

Table 7.  
*Mean Scores and Standard Deviations (SD) for Sibling Relationship Quality Factors of Jealousy, Positiveness and Conflict Perceived by Second Born with respect to Age Difference between Siblings, Paternal Rejection Level and the Sex of the Older Sibling.*

Percieved Paternal Rejection	Age Difference	Sex of the Older Sibling	Jealousy*	Positiveness*	Conflict
Higher	Smaller	Female	26.29 (12.84)	17.57 (5.06)	6.29 (1.60)
		Male	16.94 (3.23)	18.88 (3.37)	5.42 (1.62)
	Wider	Female	21.00 (9.47)	17.27 (5.46)	4.18 (2.08)
		Male	27.08 (14.34)	13.50 (5.74)	6.08 (2.31)
Lower	Smaller	Female	18.56 (4.84)	17.50 (5.51)	4.19 (1.42)
		Male	20.91 (6.76)	16.82 (3.12)	5.00 (2.56)
	Wider	Female	23.43 (9.64)	21.29 (2.16)	3.79 (1.12)
		Male	19.92 (7.45)	18.75 (4.16)	4.00 (1.29)

\*shows significant difference between low and high levels of paternal rejection (p<.05)

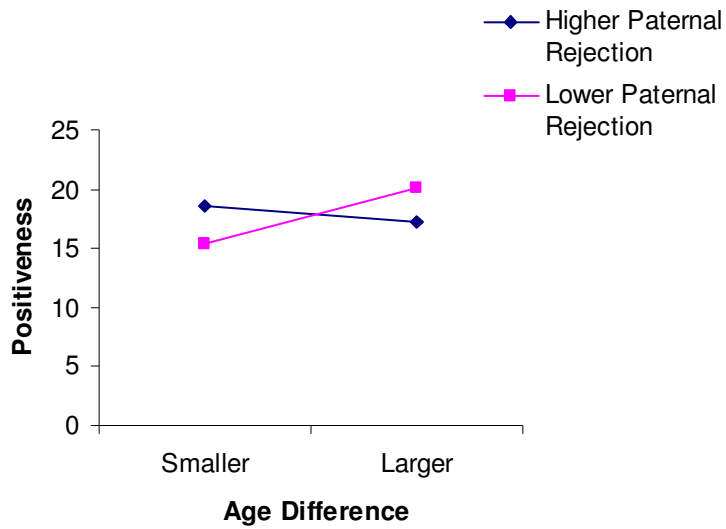


Figure 3.  
*Positiveness Perceived by Second Born with respect to Age Difference between Siblings and Paternal Rejection Level.*

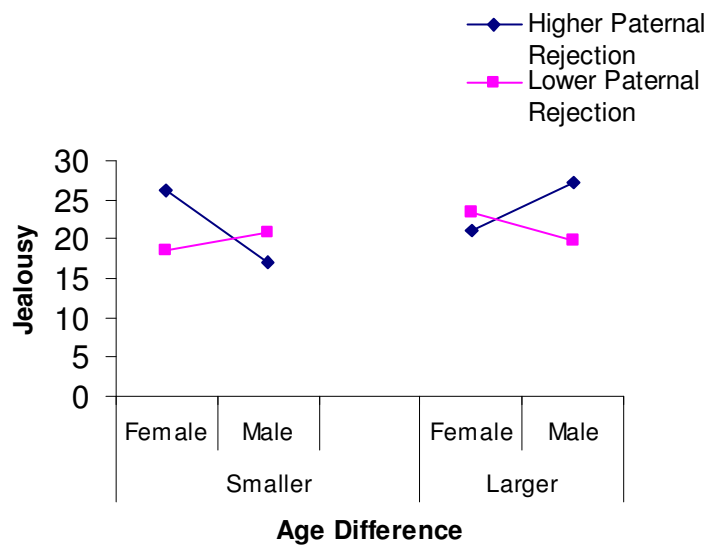


Figure 4.  
*Jealousy Perceived by Second Born by Age Difference between Siblings, Paternal Rejection Level and the Sex of the Older Sibling.*

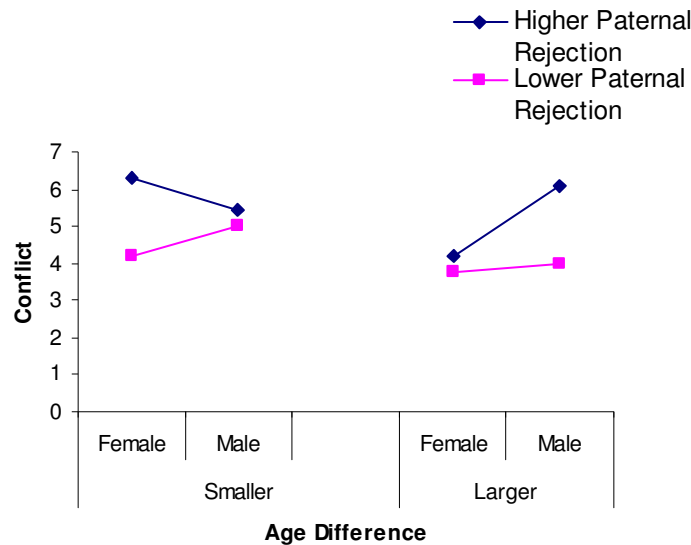


Figure 5.  
*Conflict Perceived by Second Born by Age Difference between Siblings, Paternal Rejection Level and the Sex of the Older Sibling.*

The same statistics were applied for the first born subjects. Three way Manova with maternal acceptance rejection level, age difference and sex of the older sibling as the between subjects, and sibling jealousy, positiveness and conflict as the dependent variables was conducted. The results indicated that for the first born siblings the main effect of maternal acceptance rejection is significant for sibling jealousy  $F(7,74)=5.68, p=.02, \eta_p^2=.07$ , positiveness  $F(7,74)=4.97, p=.03, \eta_p^2=.06$  and conflict  $F(7,74)=12.74, p=.001, \eta_p^2=.15$ , whereas age difference again had no significant main effect on any of the sibling relationship factors. The sex of the older sibling was found have a significant main effect on positiveness  $F(7,74)=5.23, p=.03, \eta_p^2=.07$ . Siblings having older sisters are found to experience more positiveness compared to

siblings having older brothers. However there was no significant interaction between any of the variables.

When the same analysis is repeated for the first born siblings adding paternal acceptance rejection instead of maternal acceptance rejection into the statistics, the results indicated neither a significant main effect nor a significant interaction effect on any of the dependent variables. According to the findings mentioned above the third hypothesis expecting a greater positiveness and jealousy as age difference between subjects increase was not supported. The fourth which expected the increase in positiveness between siblings as age difference gets wider to be stronger when the older sibling is a girl was not supported either. In addition contrary to the fifth hypothesis no interaction between the parental rejection and effect of age difference and sex of the older sibling on positiveness of sibling relation was found.

In order to test the hypotheses related to the influence of gender on sibling relationship another Manova was conducted and the influence of having a same sex sibling vs. an opposite sex sibling on the sibling relationship quality is examined. The results indicate that having a same sex or opposite sex sibling has a significant main effect on only positiveness among sibling dyads,  $F(1,180)=3.80, p=.05, \eta_p^2=.02$  (See Table 8 for the means). Thus the sixth hypothesis predicting greater positiveness among same-sex siblings compared to opposite-sex siblings was supported by the findings.



Table 8.  
*Mean Scores and Standard Deviations (SD) for Sibling Relationship Quality Factors with respect to Gender Composition of Being in the Same Sex or the Opposite Sex and the Distribution of Subjects.*

	Jealousy	Positiveness	Conflict	N
Same sex	21.50 (8.37)	18.71* (4.26)	4.75 (2.00)	89
Opposite sex	20.81 (9.14)	17.31* (5.32)	4.78 (2.10)	93

\*shows significant difference between same and opposite sex dyads ( $p < .05$ )

In order to examine the effect of gender combination of siblings on sibling relationship and its interaction with the influence of parental acceptance rejection, another Manova is conducted (see Table 9 for the means). The between-subject variable was gender combination of sibling dyads, whereas maternal and paternal rejection levels were the covariates, and the dependent variables were the sibling relationship factors: jealousy, positiveness and conflict. The results revealed that the main effect of maternal rejection level was significant for jealousy  $F(3,178)=5.44, p=.02, \eta_p^2=.03$ , positiveness  $F(3,178)=13.52, p=.001, \eta_p^2=.07$  and conflict  $F(3,178)=19.92, p=.001, \eta_p^2=.10$ . On the other hand the main effect of paternal acceptance rejection was not found to be significant. Gender composition had a significant main effect only on positiveness  $F(3,178)=3.30, p=.02, \eta_p^2=.05$ . Two sisters are found to have the highest level of positiveness in their relationship among all dyads.

When another two way Manova in which maternal and paternal rejection levels are included as independent variables instead of covariates, the

post-hoc comparison (LSD) revealed that girl-girl composition of siblings is significantly different than other dyads  $p=.019$ . Thus the seventh hypothesis predicting highest levels of positiveness among sisters compared the other dyads was supported by the findings. However the eighth hypothesis suggesting that the influence of parent child relationship will be greatest on sibling relationship quality in the sister-sister configuration was not supported.

Table 9.  
*Mean Scores and Standard Deviations (SD) for Sibling Relationship Quality Factors with respect to Gender Composition of Sibling Dyads and the Distribution of the Subjects.*

		Jealousy	Positiveness	Conflict	N
Gender Composition	GG <sup>a</sup>	22.32 (9.56)	19.57* (4.03)	4.60 (1.94)	47
	GB	22.09 (9.07)	17.27* (5.93)	4.49 (1.83)	45
	BG	19.78 (9.11)	17.33* (4.71)	5.08 (2.31)	49
	BB	20.41 (6.78)	17.78* (4.39)	4.88 (2.06)	41

<sup>a</sup>GG=girl-girl dyads, GB=dyads composed of an older sister and a younger brother, BB=boy-boy dyads, BG=dyads composed of an older brother and a younger sister

\*shows significant difference among different gender compositions ( $p<.05$ )

## **DISCUSSION**

The aim of this thesis was to examine the factors that determine the quality of sibling relationship in relation to the parent-child relationship and to understand how the quality of relationship with parents is associated with the quality of sibling relations. With this aim, the levels of jealousy, conflict and positiveness among the siblings were examined. The differences in the dynamics of sibling relationship among sibling dyads, considering age difference and sex of the older sibling, were investigated. The correspondence or discrepancy of this relationship with the parental interaction was also studied.

### **Discussion of the Findings**

The present study predicts that the higher rejection in parent-child relationship will predict more jealousy, and conflict but less positiveness in the sibling relationship. The results partly supported this hypothesis. Maternal rejection was found to influence the quality of the sibling relationship. Higher maternal rejection predicted higher jealousy, conflict, and lower positiveness. Thus, individuals who perceived themselves as rejected by their mothers also had a more rejecting or negative relationship with their siblings. The relationship with their mothers seems to interfere with their relation with their siblings.

However, the same influence on sibling relationship quality was not observed when father's rejection level was considered. Thus, the quality of the relationship with mothers seems to be more influential than with fathers on sibling relationship quality. According to these results, the second hypothesis, which suggests a greater influence of paternal rejection on the quality of sibling relationship, was not supported.

The need for being nurtured by mother is very fundamental for survival. With this motive, a sibling may be perceived as a rival to be fought against for the primary care giving resource (Leung and Robson, 1991). Thus maternal rejection level may be crucial in mediating the relationship between siblings. Moreover cultural differences in the role of mother within the family may be responsible for these findings. The structure of the Turkish family is marked by high levels of intimacy and strong hierarchical relationships (Fişek, 2002; cited in Çavdar, 2003). The fathers in Turkish culture are not as emotionally involved with their children as the mothers; rather the role of family disciplinarian is attributed to fathers (Sunar and Fişek, 2005, cited in Erkman and Rohner, 2006). The satisfaction of the physical and emotional needs of children is regarded as the main responsibilities of the mothers (Fişek, 2002; cited in Çavdar, 2003). In sum, a stronger emotional bond with the mothers results in a greater influence of maternal acceptance and rejection on the quality of sibling relationship, in the Turkish culture.

In addition when the jealousy was examined separately as jealousy over mother and jealousy over father, maternal rejection seems to increase the

jealousy for both. If the mother is perceived as rejecting, the father may be perceived as an alternative source of love and therefore rivalry over him also becomes stronger. In addition the influence of maternal rejection on jealousy both for mother and father may result from the fact that maternal care is very essential for the emotional development of a child, shaping the representation of “the self” and “the other”. When a child perceives the mother as a rejecting mother, he may fail to develop a positive sense of self, resulting in feeling insecure about himself and significant others (Baradon, Broughton, Gibbs, James, Joyce, & Woodhead, 2005). It might be difficult for him to feel satisfied with his own well-being and consequently he is more likely to get jealous over others, including the mother and the father.

Moreover the highest level of jealousy over mother was observed when the person perceives rejection by mother and acceptance by father. This level is surprisingly higher than the level of jealousy over mother felt in the case of rejection by both parents. It is possible that an individual, who perceives rejection by both parents, is likely to feel unworthy and unlovable (Rohner and Khaleque, 2005). He tends to attribute these negative characteristics to an internal and stable condition. The “correspondent inference” theory which assumes that individuals prefer making dispositional attributions, also supports this argument (Franzoi, 2000). Thus he may withdraw his emotional investment from the relationship with his parents. If an individual is not involved with parents, he will be less likely to get jealous over them. However, even if the child feels rejected by the mother, when he perceives acceptance by the father,

he tends to feel loveable and maintains his hope to gain the love of the mother. Therefore paternal acceptance may provide an incentive to fight for the love of the mother. In that case, the love of the mother becomes more valuable and the subject of rivalry between siblings.

The third hypothesis proposes that the siblings with smaller age difference will report more positiveness but also more jealousy in their relationship. However, the results did not support this hypothesis. Age difference does not seem to have an influence on any of the sibling relationship variables, positiveness, jealousy and conflict. However, closely spaced siblings reported slightly but not significantly higher conflict than widely spaced dyads. Thus if the sample size had been greater, it might have been possible to find a lower age difference predicting higher conflict among siblings. This would support the findings of Toman (1988, 1983; cited in Lawson and Brossart, 2004) which indicated that small age difference facilitates the closeness between siblings and helps them bind together. On the other hand the interaction between widely spaced siblings is suggested to be limited, which leads to less potential for both conflict and intimacy (Toman, 1988, 1983; in Lawson and Brossart, 2004). However, the present results suggest that even if there is a detectable effect, it is not a powerful one.

The fourth hypothesis, expecting more positiveness between siblings as the age difference gets wider and when the first born sibling is a girl, was not supported. Having an older brother or a sister and closer or wider birth spacing did not appear to influence the quality of the sibling relationship. Nevertheless

when the age difference and the sex of the older sibling were examined together, a pattern within sibling relationship was found. When the age difference is small between siblings, having an older brother resulted in elevated positiveness. However when the age difference was high, having an older sister led to more positiveness. It is possible that a widely spaced older sister may fulfill a more nurturing and caring role (Franzoi, 2000), leading to a warmer sibling relationship. On the other hand a widely spaced older brother tends to be more independent and distant from the family, resulting in a less intimate relationship between siblings. In addition entitlement among siblings is suggested to be related to age and gender (Çavdar, 2003). Since widely spaced older brothers are assumed to have the highest entitlement, they may also be bossy and restricting and this may provoke the resentment of younger siblings leading to less positiveness in the relationship.

When parental rejection level was taken into consideration, the age difference and the sex of the older sibling had a different impact on positiveness of the sibling relationship. Individuals who perceived rejection from their fathers showed significantly less positiveness with their siblings when the age difference was high. The same pattern was observed in case of maternal rejection. This finding is contradictory with the fifth hypothesis. Then the assumption that the sibling relationship may have a differential quality and may act as a compensatory factor for the failures in parent-child relationship (Brody et al., 1987; cited in Brody, 1998) was not confirmed in this study. The influence of parent-child relationship should be so great in the quality of the

sibling relationship that, in contrast to expectations, it shapes the relational pattern with the widely spaced older sibling too. For the second born individuals, the widely spaced older sibling might be identified with the rejecting parent instead of being a compensating model.

Smaller age difference may initiate positiveness because closely spaced siblings are more likely to go through similar life stages and challenges. They may also face the negative implications of the parental rejection together and try to get over them with the support of each other. These contribute to the increased positiveness in their relationship (Goetting, 1986).

When sex of the older sibling and age difference between siblings were considered together, paternal rejection but not maternal rejection was found to influence the dynamics of the sibling relationship. In general paternal rejection predicted higher jealousy and conflict among siblings. Among the individuals perceiving paternal rejection, the most jealousy was felt towards the widely spaced older brothers. On the other hand the lowest jealousy was found to be towards the closely spaced older brother by second borns who experienced paternal rejection. Thus when there is an older brother, as age difference decreased, paternal rejection did not appear to influence sibling jealousy. Furthermore the jealousy felt towards the closely spaced older sister was greater than the jealousy towards the widely spaced sister.

When “conflict” among siblings was examined, the influence of paternal rejection was found to be greater on the sibling relationship. The most conflictual relationship was observed to be with an older sister with small age



difference and older brother with wide age difference. In contrast, the least conflict was reported to be with the widely spaced older sister.

Overall, based on these findings, the older brother with a wide age difference appears to be identified with the rejecting father in the eyes of the younger siblings. Negative emotions towards the father may be transferred to the widely spaced brother. Consequently the jealousy felt towards the brother and the conflict, becomes greater. A closely spaced brother, on the other hand, may be closer to the sibling and identifies with him rather than the father. Thus, he might also act as a supporting friend and a model for the younger sibling in order to compensate for the negative relational pattern formed with the father.

The jealousy and conflict experienced towards the closely spaced older sister may be accounted by the Oedipus complex from the psychoanalytical perspective (Epkins and Dedmon, 1999; Leung and Robson, 1991; Rafaelli, 1992). To explain, the love and attraction experienced between the daughter and the father may intensify the younger sibling's rage and jealousy. When the age difference between the siblings is small, the younger sibling might see the older sister as a rival, which strengthens the negative emotions felt towards the older sister (Çavdar, 2003). These emotions may not be experienced so strongly towards the widely spaced older sister because the younger one may perceive the older sibling as the love object just like the opposite- sex parent (Epkins and Dedmon, 1999; Leung and Robson, 1991; Rafaelli, 1992; Çavdar, 2003). It is also possible that the caretaking and nurturing role attributed to the widely

spaced older sister may also contribute to the lower levels of jealousy (Franzoi, 2000).

Consequently, as mentioned above, these results reject the fifth hypothesis which proposed that the negative effect of parental rejection on sibling relationship quality would be moderated in sibling dyads whose firstborn sibling was a girl and the age difference was wide.

After having examined the reports of second borns, the perception of the first borns was also studied in order to better understand the influence of parental rejection on the quality of sibling relationship. For the first borns, age difference did not appear to influence their relationship with siblings. However the maternal rejection level was found to have an effect on jealousy, conflict and positiveness. Moreover sex of the older sibling also influenced positiveness between siblings. When the older sibling was a female, she perceived more positiveness in the relationship with her younger sibling, similar to the positiveness felt by the younger sibling. This may be resulted from the caretaking role attributed to the widely spaced older sibling (Franzoi, 2000). Thus, they are more nurturing and positive with younger siblings compared to older brothers (Bossard and Boll, 1960; Abramovitch et al., 1979; cited in Minnet et al., 1983),

Additionally, for the first born siblings, paternal rejection slightly but not significantly influenced the effect of age difference on sibling relationship. When the older sibling feels rejected by the father, he experiences more conflict with a widely spaced sibling. This may be explained by the rage and jealousy

felt towards the newborn since the family dynamics altered with the presence of the newborn (Farber and Mazlish, 1987). The older child's jealousy might also be related to his adjustment to the loss of the privileges of being the only child, which he used to have for a long time (Leung and Robson, 1991).

If the older sibling feels accepted, he experiences less conflict with a widely spaced sibling, rather than a closely spaced sibling. Being accepted by the parents provides him with a secure relational pattern, up on which he builds current positive relationships (Baradon et al., 2005). He can also manage to unleash himself from the competitive feelings and identify with a more caring older sibling role, contributing to a positive sibling relationship.

Considering the findings, it is interesting to find that paternal rejection has a bigger impact on the influence of age difference on the quality of sibling relationship for both younger and older siblings compared to maternal rejection. However when parental rejection levels are considered regardless of other variables, maternal rejection level was found to be more influential than paternal rejection on sibling relationship. In Turkish culture, in general, mothers are physically and emotionally more available (Fişek, 2002; cited in Çavdar 2003) and have a crucial role in the quality of sibling relationship. However, fathers are usually more distant and emotionally less involved with children (Fişek, 2002; cited in Çavdar, 2003). As fathers are less available and they spend limited amount of time with their children, minor differential treatment towards children may result in elevated tension between siblings. Thus, since

father's influence is not as influential and stable as mother's; in certain configurations the amount of father's influence on sibling relationship changes.

When the gender composition of the sibling relationship was examined, it has an influence only on positiveness among siblings. The results supported the sixth hypothesis, indicating that the positiveness between same sex siblings is greater compared to opposite sex siblings. The commonalities among the same sex siblings are likely to result in increased positiveness in the sibling relationship (Buhrmester and Furman, 1990). This finding does not provide support for the findings of Minnet et al. (1983), which show greater levels of conflict, aggression, cheating and rivalry among same sex dyads due to greater similarity. The observed discrepancy between the findings of Minnet et al.'s (1983) and the present study may be a result of the differences in the age of subjects included in studies. Minnet et al. (1983) studied children whereas emerging adults were included in the present study. Thus, psychological maturation occurring over years may be responsible for reduced conflict among same-sex dyads. In addition the instruments used in two studies were very different. Minnet et al. (1983) made observations whereas the present study is descriptive in nature. The variations in methods may also lead to different findings.

Moreover lower levels of positiveness among opposite-sex siblings may result from the unconscious sexual feelings towards the opposite-sex sibling (Hardy, 2001). In order to eliminate such threatening feelings, which might be felt directly towards the sibling or displaced from parents, children may keep

their siblings away from themselves (Çavdar, 2003). This may lead to less positiveness in their relationship

Furthermore the highest positiveness was found to be experienced between sisters. Thus the seventh hypothesis proposing that there would be more positiveness between sisters compared other dyads was supported by the findings. Positiveness among sisters may be due to greater emotional sharing (Epkins and Dedmon, 1999) and greater commonality of needs and resources (Leung and Robson, 1991) among sisters.

In addition, this finding may be related to the female characteristics such as expressive personality traits including caretaking and nurturance (Franzoi, 2000) and their tendency to get involved more in close relationships compared to men (Cassidy et al., 1996). Due to the traditional gender role imposed on women, they are encouraged to act sensitive to the needs of others (Strickland, 1992; cited in Sue and Sue, 2003). Therefore their relationship may include more positiveness. On the other hand two brothers are likely to be less caring for each other, less involved in intimate exchanges and they develop less effective coping solutions (Cole and Kerns, 2001; cited in Updegraff et al., 2005).

Lastly the final hypothesis suggesting that the influence of parent-child relationship quality on sibling relationship quality would be greater in the sister-sister configuration was not supported. The negative influence of parental rejection on the quality of sibling relationship was found to be independent of gender combination of sibling dyads.

When the different dynamics of sibling relationship were examined among different subjects and different sibling configurations, it is striking that only positiveness, but not jealousy or conflict, was found to be greatly influenced by the variables of the study. This can be explained by the “self-promotion” strategy in social psychology, which suggests that individuals present positive information about themselves in order to influence the impressions of others (Franzoi, 2000). Moreover as the negative emotions are more difficult to share, the respondents of the study may be reluctant to report about their jealousy and conflict, compared to their positiveness towards their siblings. Furthermore the retrospective nature of this study may be responsible for lower levels of jealousy and conflict. Sibling rivalry and negative emotions between siblings may diminish as the siblings’ need for parental resources decreases over years. The negative feelings of the past may also not be remembered accurately during the data collection since the sample group of the present study consisted of young adults. In addition in SRS, the number of items questioning conflict is very limited. This may also be a strong explanation for the lack of effect on conflict.

### **Limitations and Implications for Future Studies**

The results are limited to the perspective of one sibling about the family dynamics. In fact, the perception of the respondent about the relationship between the parents and the other sibling is also very important. Therefore including another variable such as “the other sibling’s parental acceptance

rejection level perceived by the respondent”, would have enriched the findings. In the further studies, developing a new questionnaire on sibling’s parental rejection levels perceived by the respondent would be enlightening.

Moreover only one aspect of parent-child relationship, parental rejection, was included in the study. A closer examination of the parent-child relationship could further unfold the extent to which the sibling relationship relates to the quality of relationship with the parents. For this aim, using a qualitative approach could enhance the understanding of family dynamics.

In addition, using a more detailed questionnaire which had more items on conflict would enable a more reliable examination of different dimensions of sibling relationship.

The sample generalizability was limited largely to the middle class. This study was conducted in a unique cultural context and examined participants from intact middle class families. Thus generalizability of the findings to other cultural contexts and social groups may be considered in future studies.

Moreover this study was a correlation design preventing us from drawing conclusions about direction of effects. Conducting longitudinal studies and experimental interventions will be useful to further explore the direction of effects between parent-child relationship and sibling relationship.

Lastly a larger sample size would provide a better analysis of the influence of sex and birth-order of the subjects and their interaction on the quality of sibling relationship. A larger sample would enable to investigate all the variables in one analysis and have a clearer picture of the findings.

## **Conclusion**

The present study provided some insight into influence of sibling configuration and parental rejection on the quality of sibling relationship of emerging adults. As several studies and different theoretical perspectives emphasized the importance of parent-child relationship, the present study also pointed out the significant influence of parental rejection on the quality of sibling relationship. However the relationship with the mother but not with the father is found have a significant effect on jealousy, conflict and positiveness between siblings. As perceived rejection by mothers increase, the jealousy and conflict between siblings seem to increase as well while the positiveness decreases.

Contrary to expectations and previous studies, the present study found influence of neither age difference nor with the sex of the older sibling on the quality of sibling relationship. In addition the negative effects of parental rejection on sibling relationship did not found to lessen as the age difference between the siblings increase and the first born sibling is a girl. Thus the hypothesis that older siblings may act as substitute parents when the age difference between siblings is wide, acting as compensatory figures for the failures in parent child relationship could not get support in the present study. However the limitations of the present study mentioned above may also be restraining the occurrence of the compensatory role of siblings in case of parental rejection.



Despite its limitations, the study contributes to an understanding of the relationship between parent-child relationship and sibling relationship for young adults in Turkish families.

## REFERENCE

- Ainsworth, M.S. (1989). Attachments beyond infancy. *American Psychologist*, *44*(4), 709-716.
- Anjel, M. (1993). *The Transliterated Equivalence, Reliability and Validity Studies of the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ) Mother-Form: A Tool for Assessing Child Abuse*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, Istanbul, Turkey.
- Arnett, J.J. (2000). Emerging adulthood: A theory of development from the late teens through the twenties. *American Psychologist*, *55*(5), 469-480.
- Baradon, T., Broughton, C., Gibbs, I., James, J., Joyce, A., & Woodhead, J. (2005). *The Practice of Psychoanalytic Parent-Infant Psychotherapy: Claiming the Baby*. London: Routledge.
- Bartholomew, K., & Horowitz, L.M. (1991). Attachment styles among young adults: A test of a four category model. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *61*(2), 226-244.
- Bedford, V., Volling, B.L. & Avioli, P.S. (2000). Positive consequences of sibling conflict in childhood and adulthood. *International Journal of Aging and Human Development*, *51*(1), 53-69.
- Boll, T., Ferring, D., & Flipp, S. H. (2005). Effects of parental differential treatment on relationship quality with siblings and parents: Justice evaluations as mediators. *Social Justice Research*, *18*, 155-182.

- Brody, G. H. (1998). Sibling relationship quality: Its causes and consequences. *Annual Reviews of Psychology, 49*, 1-24.
- Brody, G. H., Stoneman, Z., & Gauger, K. (1996). Parent-child relationships, family problem solving behavior, and sibling relationship quality: The moderating role of sibling temperaments. *Child Development, 67*, 1289-1300.
- Brody, G. H., Stoneman, Z., & McCoy, J. K. (1994). Contributions of family relationships and child temperament to longitudinal variations in sibling relationship quality and sibling relationship styles. *Journal of Family Psychology, 3*, 274-286.
- Buhrmester, D., & Furman, W. (1990). Perceptions of sibling relationships during middle childhood and adolescence. *Child Development, 61*, 1378-1398.
- Cassidy, J., Kirsh, S.J., Scolton, K.L., & Parke, R.D. (1996). Attachment and representations of peer relationship. *Developmental Psychology, 32*, 892-904.
- Cicirelli, V.G. (1994). Sibling relationships in cross-cultural perspective. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 56*, 7-20.
- Cole, M., & Cole, S.R. (2001). *The Development of Children* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York: Worth Publishers.
- Connidis, I.A. (1992). Life transitions and the adult sibling tie: A qualitative study. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 54*, 972-982.

- Çavdar, A. (2003). *The self-with –sibling representation and the pedipal themes in the sibling relationship*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Boğaziçi University, Istanbul, Turkey.
- DeHart, G.B. (1999). Conflict and averted conflict in preschoolers' interactions with siblings and friend. In W.A Collins & Laursen (Eds.), *Relationships as developmental contexts* (pp. 281-303). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dunn, J., (1985). *Sisters and Brothers: The developing child*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- Dunn, J. (1993). *Young Children's Close Relationships: Beyond Attachment Differences and Developmental Series Volume 4*. Newbury Park: SAGE Publication Inc.
- Dunn, J., & Kendrick, C. (1982). *Siblings: Love, Envy and Understanding*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Erkman, F., & Rohner, R. P. (2006). Youths' perceptions of corporal punishment, parental acceptance, and psychological adjustment in a Turkish metropolis. *Cross-Cultural Research, 40(3)*, 250-267.
- Epkins, C.C. & Dedmon, A.M.M. (1999). An initial look at sibling reports on children's behavior: Comparison with children's self-reports and relations with siblings's self reports and sibling relationships. *Journal of Abnormal Child Psychology, 27(5)*, 371-381.
- Faber, A. & Mazlish, E. (1987). *Siblings without Rivalry*. New York: W.W. Norton & Company, Inc.

- Feinberg, M. E., Hetherington, E. M., Reiss, D., & Neiderhiser, M. (2005). Differential association of family subsystem negativity on siblings' maladjustment: Using behavior genetic methods to test process theory. *Journal of Family Psychology, 4*, 601-610.
- Franzoi, S.L. (2000). *Social Psychology* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Goetting, A. (1986). The developmental tasks of siblingship over the life cycle. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 48*, 703-714.
- Hardy, M.S. (2001). Physical aggression and sexual behavior among siblings: A retrospective study. *Journal of Family Violence, 16*(3), 225-268.
- Howe, N., Aquan-Assee, J., & Bukowski, W.M. (2001). Predicting sibling relations over time: Synchrony between maternal management styles and sibling relationship quality. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 47*, 121-141.
- Ickes, W. & Turner, M. (1983). On the social advantages of having an older, opposite-sex sibling: Birth order influences in mixed-sex dyads. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45*(1), 210-222.
- Jacobson, E. (1964). *The Self and the Object World*. New York: International Universities Press, Inc.
- Kidwell, J.S. (1981). Number of siblings, sibling spacing, sex and birth order: The effects on perceived parent-adolescent relationship. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 63*, 315-332.
- Kim, J. Y., McHale, S.M., Osgood, D.W., & Crouter, A.C. (2006). Longitudinal course and family correlates of sibling relationships from childhood through adolescence. *Child Development, 77*(6), 1746-1761.

- Lawson, D.M., & Brossart, D.F. (2004). The association between current intergenerational family relations and sibling structure. *Journal of Counselling and Development, 82*, 472-482.
- Leder, J.M., (1991). *Brothers and Sisters: How They Shape Our Lives*. New York: Ballantine Books.
- Leung, A.K.D. & Robson, L.M. (1991). Sibling Rivalry. *Clinical Pediatrics, 30*(5), 314-317.
- Linares, O.L. (2006). An understudied form of intra-family violence. *Aggression and Violent Behavior, 11*, 95-109.
- Mauder, R.G., & Hunter, J.J. (2001). Attachment and psychosomatic medicine: Developmental contributions to stress and disease. *Psychosomatic Medicine, 63*, 556-567.
- McCoy, J.K., Brody, G.H., & Stoneman, Z. (2002). Temperament and the quality of best friendships: Effect of same-sex sibling relationships. *Family Relations, 51*, 248-255.
- McGoldrick, M. (1991). Sisters. In M. McGoldrick, C.M. Anderson & F. Walsh (Eds.), *Women in Families* (pp. 244-266). New York: W.W.Norton & Company, Inc.
- Michalski, R.L., & Shackelford, T.K. (2002). An attempted replication of the relationships between birth order and personality. *Journal of Research in Personality, 36*, 182-188.

- Minnet, A.M., Vandell, D.L. & Santrock, J.W. (1983). The effects of sibling status on sibling interaction: Influence of birth order, age spacing, sex of child, and sex of sibling. *Child Development, 54*, 1064-1072.
- Neubauer, P.B. (1982). Rivalry, envy, and jealousy. *Psychoanalytic Study of the Child, 37*, 121-142.
- Noller, P. (2005). Sibling relationship in adolescence: Learning and growing together. *Personal Relationships, 12*, 1-22.
- Pike, A., Coldwell, J., & Dunn, J. F. (2005). Sibling Relationships in early/middle childhood: Links with individual adjustment. *Journal of Family Psychology, 4*, 523-532.
- Rafaelli, M. (1992). Sibling conflict in early adolescence. *Journal of Marriage and the Family, 54*, 652-663.
- Rohner, R.P., & Khaleque, A. (Eds). (2005). *Handbook for the Study of Parental Acceptance and Rejection* (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Storrs, CT: Rohner Research Publications.
- Rust, J., Golombok, S., Hines, M., Johnston, K. & Golding, J. (2000). The role of brothers and sisters in the gender development of preschool children. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 77*, 292-303.
- Ryan, E. (2002). Assessing sibling attachment in the face of placement issues. *Clinical Social Work Journal, 30(1)*, 77-89.
- Scharf, M., Shulman, S., & Avigad-Spitz, L. (2005). Sibling relationship in emerging adulthood and in adolescence. *Journal of Adolescent Research, 20*, 64-96.

- Serot, N.M., & Teevan, R.C. (1961). Perception of the parent-child relationship and its relation to child adjustment. *Child Development, 32*, 373-378.
- Stocker, C.M., Burwell, R.A., & Briggs, M.L., (2002). Sibling conflict in middle childhood predicts children's adjustment in early adolescence. *Journal of Family Psychology, 16*, 50-57.
- Sue, D., Sue, D.W., & Sue, S. (2003). *Understanding Abnormal Behavior* (7<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York: Houghton Mifflin Company.
- Summers, K. (1999). Evolutionary psychology, birth order and family dynamics. *Tree, 14*(3), 86-87
- Teti, D.M., & Ablard, K.E. (1989). Security of attachment and infant-sibling relationships: A laboratory study. *Child Development, 60*(6), 1519-1528.
- Turgut, A. (2005). *The Relationship between Bullying Tendency, Parental Acceptance-Rejection, and Self-Concept among Seventh Grade Students*. Unpublished Master's Thesis, Boğaziçi Üniversitesi, Istanbul, Turkey.
- Updegraff, K.A., Thayer, S.M., Whiteman, S.D., & McHale, S.M. (2005). Relational aggression in adolescents' sibling relationships: Links to sibling and parent-adolescent relationship quality. *Family Relations, 54*, 373- 385.
- VanIjzendoorn, M.H., Moran, G., Belsky, J., Pederson, D., Bakermans-Kranenburg, M.J., & Kneppers, K. (2000). The similarity of siblings' attachment to their mother. *Child Development, 71*(4), 1048-1098.



- Volling, B.L., & Belsky, J. (1992). The contribution of mother-child and father-child relationships to the quality of sibling interaction: A longitudinal study. *Child Development, 63*, 1209-1222.
- Volling, B.L., Elwain, N.L., & Miller, A.L. (2002). Emotion regulation in context: The jealousy complex between young siblings and its relations with child and family characteristics. *Child Development, 73(29)*, 581-600.
- Westervelt, C. K., & Louis, S. (2000). The influence of the parental relationship and parent-child relationship on sibling relationship quality. *Dissertation Abstracts International: Section B: The Sciences and Engineering, 60*, 5832. (Abstract).
- Worden, J.W., Davies, B. & McCown, D. (1999). Comparing parent loss with sibling loss. *Death Studies, 23*, 1-15.

## **APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX A**

**Consent Form**

**İSTANBUL BİLGİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ**  
**Psikoloji Bölümü**

**Bilgilendirme ve Onay Formu**

Bu çalışmadaki anket, Bilgi Üniversitesi Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Bölümü'nde okuyan bir öğrencinin tez çalışmasının bir parçası olarak uygulanmaktadır ve katılım gönüllüdür.

Bu çalışma yaklaşık 15–20 dakika sürecektir. Anket kendinizle ilgili birtakım soruları içermektedir. Soruların doğru ya da yanlış cevapları yoktur. Cevaplarınızı verirken sadece kendi görüşlerinizi göz önünde bulundurunuz. Lütfen soru atlamadan ve hiçbir soru üzerinde fazla düşünmeden cevaplandırınız.

Anket süresince elde edilen tüm kişisel bilgiler **gizli** tutulacaktır. Her katılımcı için bir numara belirlenecek ve toplanan bilgiler bu numarayla kaydedilecektir. Bu araştırmaya katılmak, sizi herhangi bir şekilde risk altına sokmayacaktır. Ancak rahatsızlık duyduğunuz anda anketi bırakma hakkınız vardır.

Çalışma ile ilgili sorunuz olduğunda bizden yardım isteyebilirsiniz. Bu çalışmaya katılımınızla ilgili herhangi bir sorun yaşarsanız ya da anketten sonra çalışmayla ilgili bilgi almak isterseniz, İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı'ndan Reyan Kanyas ([rkanyas@yahoo.com](mailto:rkanyas@yahoo.com)) ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

Anketi doldurmanız bu onay formunu okuyup yazılanları kabul ettiğinizi gösterir.

Tarih:

Ad – Soyad :

İmza

Okul numarası:

**APPENDIX B**

**Form of Demographic Information**

Boşlukları doldurunuz.

Yaşınız:.....

Cinsiyetiniz:.....

Aşağıdaki soruların yanında yer alan size uygun cevabı işaretleyiniz veya yazınız.

Kardeşiniz var mı?                      Var / Yok

Kaç kardeşiniz var? .....

Size yaşça en yakın olan kardeşinizin cinsiyeti nedir?    Kız / Erkek

Size yaşça en yakın olan kardeşinize kıyasla, siz kaçıncı kardeşsiniz?    Büyük / Küçük

Size yaşça en yakın olan kardeşinizle olan yaş farkınızı yazınız. ....

Siz büyürken, yaşça size en yakın kardeşinizle aynı evde mi oturuyordunuz?    Evet / Hayır

Aynı yıllarda anne ve babanız beraber mi ayrı mı yaşıyorlardı?    Beraber / Ayrı

**APPENDIX C**

**Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire  
PARQ (Adult Form)  
Mother**

# Yetişkin EKRÖ/K: Anne

© Ronald P. Rohner, 1989, 1997

Aşağıda annelerin çocuklarına karşı sergiledikleri davranışlarla ilgili bazı cümleler var. Her cümleyi dikkatlice okuyun ve okuduğunuz cümlenin,

## siz çocukken

## annenizin

size karşı göstermiş olduğu davranışları

ne kadar iyi anlattığını düşünün.

Her cümlenin yanında 4 tane kutu var:

ANNENİZİN size çocukluğunuzda

hemen hemen her zaman

böyle davrandığını düşünürseniz,

bu kutuyu işaretleyin

Hemen Hemen  
Her zaman  
Doğru

Bazen  
Doğru

Nadiren  
Doğru

Hiçbir  
Zaman  
Doğru Değil

ANNENİZİN size bazen

böyle davrandığını düşünürseniz,

bu kutuyu işaretleyin

Hemen Hemen  
Her zaman  
Doğru

Bazen  
Doğru

Nadiren  
Doğru

Hiçbir  
Zaman  
Doğru Değil

ANNENİZİN size nadiren (çok az zaman)

Böyle davrandığını düşünürseniz,

bu kutuyu işaretleyin

Hemen Hemen  
Her zaman  
Doğru

Bazen  
Doğru

Nadiren  
Doğru

Hiçbir  
Zaman  
Doğru Değil

ANNENİZİN size hiçbir zaman

böyle davranmadığını düşünürseniz,

bu kutuyu işaretleyin

Hemen Hemen  
Her zaman  
Doğru

Bazen  
Doğru

Nadiren  
Doğru

Hiçbir  
Zaman  
Doğru Değil



**Cevaplarınızı, çocukken annenizden beklediğiniz davranışlara göre değil, annenizin size gerçekte gösterdiği davranışlara göre verin.**

**Lütfen her soruyu cevaplayın.**

<b>ANNEM</b>	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Hemen Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
1. Benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söylerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Kötü davrandığımda bana söylenir veya beni azarlardı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Sanki ben hiç yokmuşum gibi davranırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Beni gerçekten sevmezdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Planlarımız hakkında benimle konuşur ve benim söyleyeceklerimi de dinlerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Onun sözünü dinlemediğim zaman beni başkalarına şikayet ederdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Benimle yakından ilgilenirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Arkadaşlarımı eve çağırmam için beni cesaretlendirir ve onların güzel vakit geçirmesi için elinden geleni yapardı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Benimle alay eder ve dalga geçerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Onu rahatsız etmediğim sürece benimle ilgilenmezdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Kızdığı zaman bana bağırırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Benim için önemli olan şeyleri ona anlatabilmemi kolaylaştırırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Bana karşı sert davranırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Hemen Hemen Her zaman Dođru	Bazen Dođru	Nadiren Dođru	Hiçbir Zaman Dođru Deđil
14. Onun etrafında olmamdan hoşlanırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Bir şeyi iyi yaptığımda, kendimle gurur duymamı sağlardı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Hakketmediğim zaman bile bana vururdu.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Benim için yapması gereken şeyleri unuturdu.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Beni büyük bir başbelası olarak görürdü.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. Beni başkalarına överdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Kızdığı zaman beni çok kötü cezalandırırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. Sağlıklı ve doğru şeyleri yememe çok dikkat ederdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Benimle sıcak ve sevgi dolu bir şekilde konuşurdu.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. Bana hemen kızardı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24. Sorularımı cevaplayamayacak kadar meşguldü.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Benden hoşlanmıyor gibiydi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. Hak ettiğim zaman bana güzel şeyler söylerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. Çabuk parlar ve öfkesini benden çıkarırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. Arkadaşlarımın kim olduğuyla yakından ilgilenirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. Yaptığım şeylerle gerçekten ilgilenirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. Bana bir sürü kırıcı şey söylerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Hemen Her zaman Dođru	Hemen Bazen Dođru	Nadiren Dođru	Hiçbir Zaman Dođru Deđil
31. Ondan yardım istediđimde benimle ilgilenmezdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. Bařım derde girdiđinde, hatanın bende olduđunu düşünürdü.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. Bana istenilen ve ihtiyaç duyulan biri olduđumu hissettirirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. Onun sinirine dokunduđumu söylerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. Bana çok ilgi gösterirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36. İyi davrandıđım zaman benimle ne kadar gurur duyduđunu söylerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. Beni kırmak için elinden geleni yapardı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. Hatırlaması gerekir diye düşündüđüm önemli şeyleri unuturdu.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. řayet kötü davranırsam, beni artık sevmediđini hissettirirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40. Bana yaptıđım şeylerin önemli olduđunu hissettirirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
41. Yanlıř bir şey yaptıđımda beni korkutur veya tehdit ederdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42. Benimle zaman geçirmekten hoşlanırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43. Korktuđumda ya da birşeye canım sıkıldıđında, bana yardım etmeye çalışırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44. Kötü davrandıđım zaman beni arkadaşlarımdın önünde utandırırđı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
45. Benden uzak durmaya çalışırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
46. Benden řikayet ederdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Hemen Her zaman Dođru	Hemen Bazen Dođru	Nadiren Dođru	Hiçbir Zaman Dođru Deđil
47. Benim ne düşündüğüme önem verir ve düşündüklerim hakkında konuşmamdan hoşlanırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
48. Ne yaparsam yapayım, diğer çocukların benden daha iyi olduğunu düşünürdü.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
49. Bir plan yaparken benim de ne istediğıme önem verirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
50. Benim için önemli olan şeyleri, kendisine zorluk çıkarsa da, yapmama izin verirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
51. Diğer çocukların benden daha akıllı ve uslu olduğunu düşünürdü.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
52. Bakmaları için beni hep başkalarına bırakırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
53. Bana istenmediğimi belli ederdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
54. Yaptığım şeylerle ilgilenirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
55. Canım yandığında veya hasta olduğumda kendimi daha iyi hissetmem için elinden geleni yapardı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
56. Kötü davrandığım zaman benden ne kadar utandığını söylerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
57. Beni sevdiğini belli ederdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
58. Bana karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalpliydi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
59. Kötü davrandığım zaman beni utandırır veya suçlu hissettirirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
60. Beni mutlu etmeye çalışırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**APPENDIX D**

**Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire  
PARQ (Adult Form)  
Father**

# Yetişkin EKRÖ/K: Baba

© Ronald P. Rohner, 1989, 1997

Şimdi doldurmanız istediğimiz test babanız hakkında. Her cümleyi dikkatlice okuyun ve okuduğunuz cümlelerin,

**siz çocukken**

**babanızın**

**size karşı göstermiş olduğu davranışları**

**ne kadar iyi anlattığını düşünün.**

\* \* \* \* \*

**Lütfen her soruyu cevaplayın.**

**Cevaplarınızı,**

**çocukken babanızdan beklemiş olduğunuz davranışlara göre değil,**

**babanızın**

**size gerçekte göstermiş olduğu davranışlara göre verin.**

<b>BABAM</b>	Hemen Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Hemen Hemen Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
1. Benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söylerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Kötü davrandığımda bana söylenir veya beni azarlardı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Sanki ben hiç yokmuşum gibi davranırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. Beni gerçekten sevmezdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Planlarımız hakkında benimle konuşur ve benim söyleyeceklerimi de dinlerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Onun sözünü dinlemediğim zaman beni başkalarına şikayet ederdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Hemen Her zaman Doğru	Hemen Bazen Doğru	Nadiren Doğru	Hiçbir Zaman Doğru Değil
7. Benimle yakından ilgilenirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Arkadaşlarımı eve çağırmam için beni cesaretlendirir ve onların güzel vakit geçirmesi için elinden geleni yapardı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Benimle alay eder ve dalga geçerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Onu rahatsız etmediğim sürece benimle ilgilenmezdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Kızdığı zaman bana bağırırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. Benim için önemli olan şeyleri ona anlatabilmemi kolaylaştırırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. Bana karşı sert davranırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Onun etrafında olmamdan hoşlanırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. Bir şeyi iyi yaptığımda, kendimle gurur duymamı sağlardı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Hakketmediğim zaman bile bana vururdu.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Benim için yapması gereken şeyleri unutturdu.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Beni büyük bir başbelası olarak görürdü.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19. Beni başkalarına överdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20. Kızdığı zaman beni çok kötü cezalandırırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21. Sağlıklı ve doğru şeyleri yememe çok dikkat ederdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22. Benimle sıcak ve sevgi dolu bir şekilde konuşurdu.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23. Bana hemen kızardı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Hemen Her zaman Dođru	Hemen Bazen Dođru	Nadiren Dođru	Hiçbir Zaman Dođru Deđil
24. Sorularımı cevaplayamayacak kadar meşğuldü.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25. Benden hoşlanmıyor gibiydi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26. Hak ettiđim zaman bana güzel şeyler söylerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
27. Çabuk parlar ve öfkesini benden çıkarırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
28. Arkadaşlarımmın kim olduđuyla yakından ilgilenirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
29. Yaptıđım şeylerle gerçekten ilgilenirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
30. Bana bir sürü kırıcı şey söylerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
31. Ondan yardım istediđimde benimle ilgilenmezdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
32. Başım derde girdiđinde, hatanın bende olduđunu düşünürdü.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
33. Bana istenilen ve ihtiyaç duyulan biri olduđumu hissettirirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
34. Onun sinirine dokunduđumu söylerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
35. Bana çok ilgi gösterirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
36. İyi davrandıđım zaman benimle ne kadar gurur duyduđunu söylerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
37. Beni kırmak için elinden geleni yapardı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
38. Hatırlaması gerekir diye düşündüđüm önemli şeyleri unuturdu.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
39. Şayet kötü davranırsam, beni artık sevmediđini hissettirirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
40. Bana yaptıđım şeylerin önemli olduđunu hissettirirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



	Hemen Her zaman Dođru	Hemen Bazen Dođru	Nadiren Dođru	Hiçbir Zaman Dođru Deđil
41. Yanlıř bir řey yaptıđımda beni korkutur veya tehdit ederdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
42. Benimle zaman geçirmekten hořlanırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
43. Korktuđumda ya da birřeye canım sıkıldıđında, bana yardım etmeye çalıřırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
44. Kötü davrandıđım zaman beni arkadařlarımın önünde utandırırđı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
45. Benden uzak durmaya çalıřırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
46. Benden řikayet ederdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
47. Benim ne düřündüđüme önem verir ve düřündüklerim hakkında konuřmamdan hořlanırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
48. Ne yaparsam yapayım, diđer çocukların benden daha iyi olduđunu düřünürdü.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
49. Bir plan yaparken benim de ne istediđime önem verirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
50. Benim için önemli olan řeyleri, kendisine zorluk çıkarsa da, yapmama izin verirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
51. Diđer çocukların benden daha akıllı ve uslu olduđunu düřünürdü.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
52. Bakmaları için beni hep bařkalarına bırakırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
53. Bana istenmediđimi belli ederdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
54. Yaptıđım řeylerle ilgilenirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
55. Canım yandıđında veya hasta olduđumda kendimi daha iyi hissetmem için elinden geleni yapardı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
56. Kötü davrandıđım zaman benden ne kadar utandıđımı söylerdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
57. Beni sevdiđini belli ederdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	Hemen Her zaman Dođru	Hemen Bazen Dođru	Nadiren Dođru	Hiçbir Zaman Dođru Deđil
58. Bana karşı yumuşak ve iyi kalpliydi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
59. Kötü davrandığım zaman beni utandırır veya suçlu hissettirirdi.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
60. Beni mutlu etmeye çalışırdı.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**APPENDIX E**

**Sibling Relationship Scale  
SRS**

Aşağıda **kardeş ilişkilerini** tanımlayan bazı cümleler var. Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyun ve siz büyürken **size yaşça en yakın olan kardeşiniz / abiniz / ablanızla** olan ilişkinize ne kadar uyduğunu 1'den 5'e kadar bir sayıyı işaretleyerek belirtin. (1= bana hiç uymuyor, 5=bana tam olarak uyuyor.)  
Not: Kardeşiniz yoksa bu bölümü boş bırakın.

	<b>Hiç Uymuyor</b>		<b>Tam olarak uyuyor</b>		
1. Kardeşimle çok yakın ve sıcak bir ilişkimiz vardı.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
2. Annem kardeşime daha çok ilgi gösterirdi.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
3. Kardeşimle çok iyi anlaşırđık.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
4. Babamın sadece benim olmasını isterdim.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
5. Kardeşimi çok kıskanırdım.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
6. Annem kardeşimle ilgilenirken ilgisini çekmek için çaba gösterirdim.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
7. Kardeşimi her yönden çok beğenirdim.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
8. Kardeşim babamla benim olduğumdan daha yakındı.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
9. Kardeşimin annemle daha çok vakit geçirmesinden çok rahatsız olurdum.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
10. Kardeşimle herşeyimi paylaşırdım.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
11. Kardeşim yüzünden babamın bana daha az ilgi/sevgi gösterdiğini düşünürdüm.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
12. Kardeşimi geçmek/yenmek için uğraşırdım.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
13. Annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesi beni çok rahatsız ederdi.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
14. Kardeşimi örnek alırdım.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
15. Babam kardeşime daha çok ilgi gösterirdi.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
16. Kardeşim beni çok kıskanırdı.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
17. Annemin sadece benim olmasını isterdim.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
18. Kardeşimle çok kavga ederdik.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>

	<b>Hiç Uymuyor</b>				<b>Tam olarak uyuyor</b>
19. Babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesi beni çok rahatsız ederdi.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
20. Kardeşimin hiçbirşeyini beğenmezdim.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
21. Kardeşim annemle benim olduğundan daha yakındı.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
22. Kardeşimle olan ilişkim benim için çok önemliydi.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
23. Kardeşimin babamla daha çok vakit geçirmesinden çok rahatsız olurdum.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
24. Hiç sebep yokken kavga çıkarırdım.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
25. Babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesi, annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesinden daha rahatsız ediciydi.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
26. Kardeşimin yüzünden annemin bana daha az ilgi/sevgi gösterdiğini düşünürdüm.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
27. Kardeşimle birbirimize çok benzerdik.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
28. Babam kardeşimle ilgilenirken ilgisini çekmek için çaba gösterirdim.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
29. Annem kardeşime ilgi göstermesi, babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesinden daha rahatsız ediciydi.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>