

The Self-With-Sibling Representation and The Oedipal Themes In The Sibling
Relationship

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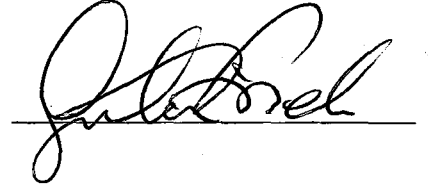
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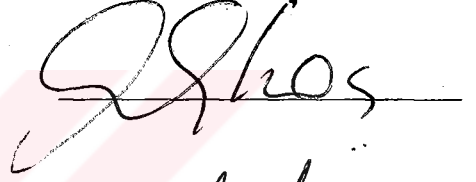
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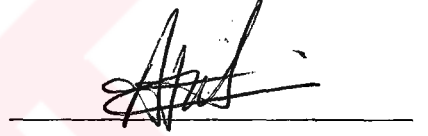
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**Dedicated to my dear father, Orhan avdar,
whom I wish could have been here
with me to share...**

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ABSTRACT

The Self-With-Sibling Representation And The Oedipal Themes In The Sibling Relationship

by

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The first aim of this study was to explore self-representations associated with the experience of being with the sibling and the association of these representations with several aspects of the sibling relationship, such as jealousy, admiration, positiveness, etc. The second aim of the study was to search for Oedipal connotations in the sibling relationship. The sample consisted of 142 Boğaziçi University students, who had only one sibling with an age difference between 1 and 5. Hierarchical Classes Analysis (HICLAS) was used to gather the self-with-sibling representations, and the Sibling Relationship Scale (SRS) was designed for the purposes of this study and used to elicit data on different aspects of subjects' relationships with their siblings. The analysis of self-with-sibling representations revealed that the experience of being with a sibling is not unique but positive and shares many common features with the experience of being with a friend or being with the mother, in the ideal and/or usual state of self. This study failed to find any sign of the classical Oedipus Complex in the sibling relationship. These findings pointed out that the self-with-sibling representations of Turkish university students reflected the Turkish family structure and the self, which has developed in such structure. Lastly, the findings supported social and developmental perspectives on sibling relationship, whereas failed to support the classical Oedipus Complex as an explanation.

KISA ÖZET

“Kardeşimleyken Ben” Temsilleri ve Kardeş İlişkilerindeki Oedipal Temalar

Alev Çavdar

Bu çalışmanın ilk amacı kardeşle birlikte olma deneyimiyle ilgili “ben” temsillerini ve bu temsillerin kardeş ilişkisinin kıskançlık, hayranlık, olumluluk gibi bazı özellikleriyle olan ilişkisini araştırmaktır. Bu çalışmanın ikinci amacı kardeş ilişkilerinde Ödipal işaretler aramaktır. Örneklem, yaş farkı 1 ile 5 arasında değişen sadece 1 kardeşi olan 142 Boğaziçi Üniversitesi öğrencisiydi. “Kardeşimleyken Ben” temsillerini elde etmek için Hiyerarşik Sınıflar Analizi (HICLAS) kullanıldı. Kardeş İlişkileri Skalası (SRS) bu çalışma için hazırlandı ve deneklerin kardeşleriyle olan ilişkilerinin değişik boyutlarıyla ilgili bilgi toplamak için kullanıldı. “Kardeşimleyken Ben” temsillerinin analizi, kardeşle birlikte olma deneyiminin sadece kardeşe özel olmadığı ama pozitif olduğu, ve bir arkadaşla ya da anneye vakit geçirmek deneyimiyle ve kendini olmak istediği gibi ya da genelde olduğu gibi hissetmekle birçok ortak özelliği olduğunu gösterdi. Bu çalışma kardeş ilişkilerinde klasik Ödipal Kompleksin izlerini bulamadı. Bulgular, Türk üniversite öğrencilerinin “Kardeşimleyken Ben” temsillerinin Türk aile yapısını ve bu yapı içinde gelişen “ben” algısını yansıttığına işaret etti. Son olarak, bulgular kardeş ilişkilerine sosyal ve gelişimsel bakış açısını desteklerken, açıklama olarak Ödipal Kompleksi desteklemedi.

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INTRODUCTION

The sibling relationship is a significant relationship in a person's life providing interactions both as a family member and as a peer (e.g. Ambert, 2001; Cicirelli, 1976,1984). Consequently one's sibling is an important contributor to his/her development and adult personality (e.g. Ross & Milgram, 1982; cited in Brody, 1998). Considering that the representation of a person and representation of self when with that person is influential on the quality of the relationships and/or developmental aspects of the individual (Stern, 1995), understanding how one represents his/her sibling and himself/herself when with sibling is the first step for getting the picture of this unique and important relationship. This need constitutes the basis for this study. This study focuses on how people perceive themselves and feel in interaction with their siblings. Further, other similar relationships, such as relationships with parents, siblings, etc., are another important source of information to grasp more about siblings.

The significance of the sibling in one's life and the quality of sibling relationship point to another area: The Oedipal Complex. There may be an Oedipal relationship between siblings just as there may be with their parents. The indications of this possibility will be discussed later in detail. This study also aims to explore Oedipal traces in sibling relationship in order to understand its nature better and offer a new perspective on the existing findings.

The Importance of Sibling Relationships

There is a vast amount of research on the role of the parent-child relationship on cognitive, social, and emotional development. Although people spend more time with their siblings in early childhood than they do with their parents or friends

(Epkins & Dedmon, 1999), the impact of one's sibling on his/her development and future relationships has been overlooked in research and clinical practice (Ambert, 2001; Minnett, Vandell & Santrock, 1983; Faber & Mazlish, 1989). Despite that they are fewer than parent-child studies, studies on siblings strongly support the impact of having a sibling and the quality of the sibling relationship on children's behavior (e.g. Epkins & Dedmon, 1999; Volling, McElwain & Miller, 2002). The results of the studies indicate that the sibling relationship is one of the vital relationships in one's life, as a family subsystem of two members just like the mother-child or father-child dyads (Stoneman & Brody, 1993), that contributes greatly to his/her development (Ambert, 2001; Bedford, Volling & Avioli, 2000; Brody, 1998; Epkins&Dedmon, 1999) both directly through the one to one sibling relationship and indirectly through the sibling's positive and negative impact on the family environment (Bedford et al., 2000) and the attitude of parents towards the sibling (Bedford et al., 2000). The sibling relationship, alongside the relationships with parents, influences the key developmental issues, such as learning about self and other (Dunn, 1992; cited in Apalaçi, 1996), identity development (Bedford et al., 2000; Hethherington, 1994; cited in White, 2001), attachment (Hethherington, 1994; cited in White, 2001), social-cognitive development (Brown & Dunn, 1992; Dunn, Slomkowski, Beardsall & Rende, 1991a,b; Howe 1991; Howe and Ross 1990; Youngblade and Dunn 1995; cited in Brody, 1998) and emotional well-being (Leung & Robson, 1991).

Besides the fact that it is as influential as other family relationships, the sibling relationship has some distinctive features, which qualitatively differentiates it from the parent-child (Baskett & Johnson, 1982; cited in Cicirelli, 1976) and peer (Brody et al., 1982) interactions (cited in Minnett et al., 1983). Firstly, it is the most

long-lasting familial relationship due to the closeness of ages when compared to the parents (Ambert, 2001; Ryan, 2002). Second, it is less obligatory, more optional and more egalitarian than the parent-child relationship (Cicirelli, 1994, Connidis, 1992). In addition, siblings provide both familial and peer-like relationship opportunities and at the same time differ from those with exclusive commonalities such as genes, family environment, social and economical backgrounds, etc. Probably due to these shared features sibling interactions are potentially much more affectively intense when compared to peer relationships (Howe, Aquan-Assee, Bukowski & Rinaldi, 2001; White, 2001). The sibling relationship is also distinct in terms of its emotional ambivalence. It can contain an array of emotions ranging from love to hate (Faber & Mazlish, 1989; Dunn and Kendrick, 1982, cited in Kramer, Noorman & Brockman, 1999). Lastly, the sibling relationship starts much earlier than peer relationships, offering an occasion to begin socialization and providing the child with a model for future intimate relationships (Apalaçi, 1996; Bank, 1987; cited in Brody, Copeland, Sutton, Richardson & Guyer, 1998; McCoy, Brody & Stoneman, 2002). In addition to early socialization, sibling interactions may provide the opportunity for learning cross-sex socialization prior to peer relationships (Carter, 1987; Ruble and Martin, 1998; cited in Updergraff, McHale & Crouter, 2000). In sum, the sibling relationship occupies a unique and noteworthy position between parent and peer relationships.

As it is in parent-child relationships, sibling relationships are reflected in adult personality and relationships to different degrees. Faber and Mazlish (1989) tell about their realization of the importance of sibling relationships -during a discussion of a group of parents, who sought help for resolving the conflicts between their children, on their own sibling relationships- as follows:

“ I listened in amazement. I had always been aware of the part that parents played in shaping their children’s lives, but never until this moment had I considered how powerfully siblings could affect each other’s destiny.

Yet there was one grown man saying he still has to be the boss; another who is still driving himself to keep up, a woman who still feels she can never measure up; and another who is still suffering from having to be the good girl. And mainly because of who their siblings happened to be.”

(Faber & Mazlish, 1989, p.30-31).

Similarly, Ross and Milgram (1982) claimed that childhood sibling rivalry is carried to adult relationships (cited in Brody, 1998). The specific impacts of having a sibling, one’s status as a sibling and the quality of the sibling interaction during childhood on development, personality and emotional problems, together with the empirical data supporting these impacts will be presented later in detail.

Siblings, who grant the longest companionship, continue to be involved and to exert influence on each other’s lives throughout adolescence and adulthood. There are contradictory findings regarding the changes in sibling relationships during the transition from middle childhood into adolescence. Brody (1994) and Dunn (1996) demonstrated empirical evidence for the stability of the quality of sibling relationship during this transition (cited in Brody, 1998). Similarly, the study of Worden, Davies & McCown (1999) supports the stability of high levels of disclosure and companionship, in contrast with the decrease in disclosure and companionship with parents (Worden et al., 1999). On the other hand, there are reports of increased closeness and support during adolescence and young adulthood (Cicirelli, 1982; Ross and Milgram, 1982; Buhrmester & Furman, 1990) and increased support, warmth and intimacy, especially between sisters, in later childhood and adolescence (Dunn,

1996; Furman and Buhrmester, 1992; cited in McCoy et al., 2002). Still, Raffaelli and Larson (1987) in a study on 5th and 9th graders concluded that there are no systematic developmental trends in sibling relationships (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990). Further, in adulthood, family systems are reorganized with the introduction of spouses and children, who gain priority over siblings (Parsons, 1943; cited in White, 2001).

However, this may not be the case in non-industrialized societies, where the inner circle of family system organization is larger. In these societies sibling relationships are more obligatory in nature (Cicirelli, 1994) and the ties with the family of origin are much more emphasized (Anderson & Sabatelli, 1999), leading to the continuation of the importance of siblings in adulthood. Moreover, even in the U.S., interviews with 60 adult sibling dyads revealed that the sibling ties are *“actualized, intensified and deepened as key events of life are experienced”* (Connidis, 1992, p.980) suggesting that the importance of sibling relationships persist throughout one’s life. In addition, siblings gain exceptional importance in old age (Gold, 1989), as in childhood, when the developmental tasks of *“companionship and emotional support, shared reminiscence and perceptual validation, resolution of sibling rivalry, aid and direct services surface”* (Goetting, 1986, p.711-712, quoted in Connidis, 1992)

A Review of Empirical Studies on Siblings

The studies on siblings are mounted up on a few interrelated key issues: the factors that influence the quality of sibling relationships, the impact of having a sibling and the quality of the relationship on the development of the child and on adult personality, and conflict and rivalry.

Empirical studies identified several factors that determine the quality of the sibling relationship, and the impact of this relationship on development and

personality such as individual characteristics of each sibling (age, gender, temperament) (e.g. Ambert, 2001; Brody, 1998; Stoneman & Brody, 1993; Leung & Robson, 1991), the structure of sibship (gender composition, birth order, birth spacing) (e.g. Buhrmester & Furman, 1990; Minnett et al., 1983; Baydar, Greek, & Brooks-Gunn, 1997), individual characteristics of parents (emotional disturbance, sensitivity) (e.g. VanIjzendoorn, Moran, Belsky, Pederson, Bakermans-Kranenburg & Kneppers, 2000), family context (marital conflict, size of the family) (e.g. Ambert, 2001; Baydar et al., 1997; Minnett et al., 1983; Stoneman & Brody, 1993) and the interaction of these factors.

Temperaments of Siblings

Studies afford support for the contribution of temperament to the variance in the qualitative aspects of sibling relationships. More specifically, high activity in older siblings was found to be related to initiation of conflict in younger siblings (Brody, Stoneman & Burke 1987, cited in Stoneman & Brody, 1993). Furthermore, it was reported in the same study that high activity, high emotional intensity, and low persistence in girls led to increased sibling conflict whereas for boys, the most reliable predictor of sibling conflict was high activity and low persistence of their younger brothers (Brody, 1998). Stoneman and Brody (1993) compared the temperaments of siblings and concluded that the dissimilarity of temperaments is associated with more conflict in sibling relationships for preschoolers. In addition, the difficulty of one sibling's temperament was related to less positive sibling relationships in middle childhood (Brody, 1994, cited in Brody, 1998) and early adolescence (McCoy et al., 2002).

Context of the Family

Factors related to family context are also found to be influential on the relationship between siblings. Negative sibling relationships and high levels of sibling conflict are associated with problematic parental relationships such as unhappy, conflicted marriages (Brody et al 1987, 1992, 1994; Hertherington 1988; MacKinnon, 1989, cited in Brody, 1998), divorce (Lamb & Sutton-Smith, 1982; MacKinnon, 1989; Montemayor, 1984; cited in Raffaelli, 1992) and violence (Martin, Schumm, Bugaighis, Jurich & Bollman, 1987; cited in Raffaelli, 1992). Moreover, emotional problems of one or both of the parents such as hostility or depression disrupts the children's processes of learning how to deal with their emotions and behavior (Fabes & Eisenberg, 1992; cited in Brody, 1998) and consequently leads to conflicted sibling relationships (Brody, 1998).

A very important concept for the sibling literature is parents' differential treatment of siblings and it needs particular consideration. The negative effect of parents' differential treatment on the sibling relationship has been invariably supported (Brody, 1998; Brody et al., 1998). Parental favoritism, especially mother's differential treatment of one sibling, leads to conflict, competition and feelings of envy, which may persist throughout the life course, and is considered among the factors that contribute to sibling conflict and rivalry (Brody et al 1992, 1994; McHale and Crouter 1996; Schacter and Stone, 1987; cited in Brody et al., 1998). The resulting sibling relationship quality can be defined as "*conflict-laden, controlling and competitive*" (Brody et al., 1998, p. 271). Kowal and Kramer (1997) hypothesized that the reason for this effect is the unfavored child's feelings of unworthiness and belief that parents are less concerned about him/her (cited in Brody, 1998). The explanation of Brody (1998) for the effect of favoritism on

siblings' relationship focuses on the displacement of anger, as a result of being unfavored, onto the favored sibling. Leung and Robson (1991) emphasize the unfavored sibling's perception of the other sibling as the "intruder" and a "threat" for parental love. Thus, according to Leung and Robson (1991), the hurt feelings of the unfavored child may cause him to react with intense negativeness towards the favored sibling. On the other hand, when the mother does not favor one of the siblings, but differentially treats one more aggressively, the likelihood that the target of her aggression will behave in a similar manner to his/her sibling increases. In such cases the sibling relationship is again colored by rivalry, aggression and dislike (Hetherington, 1988; cited in Brody et al., 1998). The perspective of the favored child has not been widely studied but Brody et al. (1998) suggested that there was a relationship between the favored status and guilt feelings as well as fear that one day he/she may lose this status. Alternatively, Freud (quoted in Jones, 1953) emphasized the positive aspect of being favored by the mother, that is increased self-confidence in the favored child (cited in Brody et al., 1998).

Age of Siblings

Increase in age leads to transformations in sibling relationships in the direction of more egalitarianism and less asymmetry (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990). Vandell et al. (1987) reported an increase with age, in older siblings' cooperation with younger ones in work and play activities, and in the younger siblings' positive behavior toward the older siblings (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990). Moreover, younger siblings reported a decrease in rivalry after age 8. However, reports of older siblings regarding rivalry remained stable. Another study partially supports this finding claiming that regardless of the birth order, sibling rivalry peaks between 2-4 years of age and decreases after age 8 (Leung & Robson, 1991). The possible reasons

for this pattern have been identified in the literature as the need to declare independence by breaking the ties with the family (Buhrmester and Furman, 1987; Furman and Buhrmester, 1989; cited in Buhrmester & Furman, 1990), the decrease in interaction as a result of changing social environments (Leung & Robson, 1991, Buhrmester & Furman, 1990) and the siblings' better grasp of their position as a member of family (Leung & Robson, 1991).

Birth order

The effects of birth order on siblings' roles in the relationship and their personality characteristics have been very popular in the area of research. The most robust finding is that the older siblings are dominant in interactions in childhood (Sutton-Smith & Rosenberg, 1968, cited in Ickes & Turner, 1983), adolescence (e.g. Buhrmester & Furman, 1990) and adulthood (e.g. Minnett et al., 1983; Cicirelli, 1994). Probably due to age, they possess greater power during childhood and adolescence (Miller and Maruyama, 1976; cited in Ickes & Turner, 1983). They are in the position of authority, responsibility (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990). They are the nurturers (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990) and role models (Ambert, 2001) in the sibling relationship. In childhood, firstborns are more likely to initiate behaviors, manage, nurture (DeHart, 1999), teach, employ positive behavior and praise their siblings (Minnett et al., 1983). In contrast, at earlier, preschool periods they are likely to use negative behavior such as hitting, taking toys, etc. (Lamb, 1978; cited in Minnett et al., 1983), probably due to greater physical and ascribed power.

Besides the aspects of the relationship, one's birth order is associated with some personality features. Data from several studies using personality assessment devices, parent reports and home observations demonstrate that firstborns are more aggressive (Martin and Ross, 1995; cited in Epkins & Dedmon, 1999), more

intelligent (Zajonc and Markus, 1975; cited in Ickes & Turner, 1983; and Minnett et al., 1983;), more verbal (Sampson, 1965, cited in Minnett et al., 1983), less flexible, warm, and selfless (Michalski & Shackelford, 2002), more adult-oriented (Ickes & Turner, 1983), more authority conforming (Adams, 1972, cited in Ickes & Turner, 1983), less cultured, knowledgeable and creative (Michalski & Shackelford, 2002), more successful in education (Bellmont and Marolla, 1973; Breland, 1973; Zajonc and Markus, 1975; Zajonc, Markus and Markus, 1979, cited in Ickes & Turner, 1983), more self-confident (Schwab and Lundgren, 1978, cited in Ickes & Turner, 1983), more stressed, anxious and neurotic (Howarth, 1980; Sutton&McIntire, 1977, cited in Ickes & Turner, 1983; Michalski & Shackelford, 2002), less socially skilled (Ickes & Turner, 1983), more inclined to take on task-oriented leadership roles (Chemers, 1970; Hardy, 1972; Hardy, Hunt & Lehr, 1978; cited in Ickes & Turner, 1983), and more prideful (Howarth, 1980; cited in Ickes & Turner, 1983), when compared to laterborns.

In order to account for the emergence of this character structure, the distinct qualities of the firstborn status were reviewed. Firstly, firstborns experience a period when he/she was the only child, the sole target of parental attention or love (Ickes & Turner, 1983; Michalski & Shackelford, 2002) followed by the anxiety-provoking event of the introduction of a new child (Michalski & Shackelford, 2002). This may be the reason that they have more emotional problems. Moreover, their position shifts from being the only one to being the older, bigger and stronger one (Sulloway, 1996; cited in Michalski & Shackelford, 2002). Their tendency towards power, dominance and aggression can be predicted from this special status. In addition, they have only adult role models (Ickes & Turner, 1983) and parents regard the firstborn children as inheritors of parental qualities (Michalski & Shackelford, 2002). Thus,

they mirror their parents as a strategy of preserving attention and love (Sulloway, 1996, cited in Michalski & Shackelford, 2002).

In contrast with the firstborns, laterborns in the sibling relationships tend to imitate (DeHart, 1999, Updergraff et al., 2000), be managed/dominated (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990; DeHart, 1999), learn, receive nurturance (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990; DeHart, 1999), watch older sibling (Abramovitch, Corter and Lando, 1979; Lamb, 1978; cited in Minnett et al., 1983), and to accept their aggression (Abramovitch et al., 1979; cited in Minnett et al., 1983). Their personality features also differ greatly from the firstborns, usually being the extreme opposite. Depending on parent, peer and self-reports, younger siblings are more active (Stoneman & Brody, 1993), more agreeable (Michalski & Shackelford, 2002), more peer-oriented (Markus, 1981; McArthur, 1956; Sells&Roff, 1963; cited in Ickes & Turner, 1983), less powerful (Ickes & Turner, 1983), more rebellious, creative, and open to radical ideas, more cooperative (Summers, 1999), more socially skilled, more popular among peers (Miller and Maruyama, 1976; Schacter, 1964) and more accepting of their peers (Sells & Roff, 1963; cited in Ickes & Turner, 1983), when compared to firstborns.

Some of these features may be the result of later-borns' avoidance of confrontation with firstborns due to firstborns' greater dominance and power (Ickes & Turner, 1983; Michalski & Shackelford, 2002). Moreover, they may adopt some characteristics in line with the strategy they use for gaining parental attention and love, namely differentiating themselves from the firstborn (Sulloway, 1996, cited in Michalski & Shackelford, 2002; Summers, 1999).

When the birth-order and the gender of the sibling are taken into account together, several features associated with these statuses emerge. The oldest sister is

usually regarded as the prima donna, the leader, single-minded, self-centered, the mother replacement, and the most responsible (McGoldrick, 1991). They are perceived as the caretaker both by themselves and their siblings. They are more nurturant and positive with their younger siblings, when compared to older brothers (Bossard and Boll, 1960; Koch, 1956; Abramovitch et al., 1979; cited in Minnett et al., 1983). On the other hand, being a younger sister is associated by being protected and flooded with affection. A laterborn sister is usually spoiled, especially by older brothers, and given privileges (McGoldrick, 1991). Older brothers are seen as idols. They are given a sense of entitlement from their birth. Younger brothers are envied and resented by older sisters due to both his gender and the period that she remembers as being the sole focus of attention and love (McGoldrick, 1991).

Gender of siblings and the gender composition of the sibling dyad

Research results indicate that the gender of the sibling influences his/her role in the sibling relationship as well as his/her feelings regarding the relationship. Sutton-Smith and Rosenberg (1970) reported that girls were more affected by their siblings than boys (Minnett et al., 1983). Supporting this finding, the study of Worden et al. (1999) on 125 parentally bereaved school-age children and 75 school-age children whose siblings had died, has shown that girls who experienced a sibling loss had more physical and emotional problems than girls who had lost a parent, whereas for boys, the loss of a parent was a more salient event than sibling loss (Worden et al., 1999). Similarly, a study on adult siblings revealed that when the sibling relationship is distorted, women, but not men, show signs of depression and they try to restore their relationship (Cicirelli, 1994). Sibling rivalry is also more common in girls (Bakwin & Bakwin, 1972; cited in Leung & Robson, 1991). Apart from these, sisters are more efficient as teachers and more responsive to their

siblings' prosocial behaviors (Abramovitch et al., 1979; Cicirelli, 1972, 1973, cited in Minnett et al., 1983).

In the same way as being a sister or brother does, having a sister or brother influences one's development, experience of the sibling relationship and feelings toward the sibling. For girls, having a sister versus brother results in higher levels of affection in the relationship (Epkins & Demon, 1999). Furthermore, a sister provides her brothers with the opportunity to interact with an opposite-sex person from early on. Thus, men who have sisters were found to be more successful and expressive in relating to an opposite-sex stranger (Ickes and Turner, 1983; Updergraff et al., 2000) and to feel more comfortable in interactions with a same-sex friend (Greenfield and Weatherley, 1986; cited in Updergraff et al., 2000). Moreover, men with younger sisters feel happier about life and have less difficulty regarding their basic security (Cicirelli, 1977; cited in Cicirelli, 1994).

There are mixed empirical results regarding the effect of having a sister on the acquisition of gender roles. Updergraff et al. (2000) found that having a sister is associated with more femininity in peer relationships for both adolescent boys and girls. On the other hand, Rust, Golombok, Hines, Johnston and Golding's (2000) data on 3-year-olds revealed that having an older sister predicted more feminine but not less masculine behavior for boys, whereas it decreased masculinity and did not increase femininity in girls (Rust et al., 2000). In contrast, Forer (1976) showed that having a sister results in increased masculinity in boys, probably due to the brother's efforts to differentiate himself from the sister (McGoldrick 1991).

Besides, for girls, having a brother is associated with more frequent use of control strategies in relationships with same-sex friends and more friends who were also controlling. This may be due to modeling the controlling behavior of the brother

and at the same time developing tolerance against controlling behavior. Again for girls, having an older brother led to the formation of a friend network with those who valued emotional intimacy (Updergraff et al., 2000).

When the gender role behaviors of siblings of brothers were considered, girls with brothers appear to be more sex-typed than girls with sisters (Grotevant, 1978; Leventhal, 1970; cited in Updergraff et al., 2000; Steegmiller, 1980; cited in Rust et al., 2000). In contrast, Rust et al. (2000) found that both sisters and brothers of older brothers are more masculine and less feminine (Rust et al., 2000).

The sexual composition of the sibling dyad is one of the crucial factors affecting the quality of sibling relationship and future friendship experiences (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990; Cicirelli, 1994; Minnett et al., 1983.). In terms of the affective quality of the sibling relationship, greater closeness was reported for the same-sex siblings than opposite-sex siblings (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990). In particular, the closest pair is the sister-sister, followed by mixed-sex dyads (younger sister-older brother and older sister-younger brother), and the least close is the brother-brother relationship (Adams, 1968; Cicirelli, 1994). Regarding the level of conflict, contradictory results were presented. Mixed-sex dyads of young siblings were found to be more conflicted when they were observed at home (Dunn and Dendrick, 1981; Pepler, Abramovitch and Corter, 1981; cited in Minnett et al., 1983). However, there is a vast amount of literature that supports greater conflict and rivalry in same-sex dyads (e.g. Epkins&Dedmon, 1999; Leung & Robson, 1991; McGoldrick, 1991; Minnett et al., 1983; Raffaelli, 1992). Alternatively, some studies identified the brother-brother pair as colored by rivalry, competitiveness, ambivalence, and jealousy whereas sister-sister pair is portrayed as supportive and caring (Adams, 1968; Cicirelli, 1985; cited in (McGoldrick, 1991). There have been

very few attempts to support these findings by placing them in a theoretical framework that can offer information about the reasons of the difference in the amount of conflict between same-sex and cross-sex dyads. (Leung & Robson, 1991) Minnett et al. (1983) attempted to explain greater rivalry and conflict in same-sex dyads by merely similarities in desires, attributes, social environments and interests.

As regards other relationships, older brothers of the mixed-sex dyads have less intimate friendship experiences whereas younger sisters of the same dyad had the most intimate friendships (Updergraff et al., 2000). Furthermore, older adolescent sisters of younger brothers are more likely to have masculine close friends and likewise adolescent boys from mixed-sex dyads have a tendency to relate with more feminine people (Updergraff et al., 2000).

One developmental issue that is largely influenced by the sex composition of the sibling dyad is the acquisition of gender role behavior. Rust et al. (2000) compared 2170 3-year-olds, who had one older sibling younger than 12 years with 3372 3-year-old singletons, using parent reports, and found that children from same sex-dyads were more sex-typed than their singleton counterparts. The least sex-typed children were from mixed-sex dyads (Rust et al., 2000). Similarly, in the study of Updergraff et al. (2000) on early adolescents, being a member of the cross-sex dyad was associated with displays of more opposite-sex characteristics, when compared to members of same-sex dyads (Updergraff et al., 2000).

Birth Spacing

The last factor to be mentioned, in order to be able to understand the variation in sibling relationships and the differential impact of the siblings on personality and relationships, is birth spacing. However, empirical findings are puzzling. In the relationship of closely spaced siblings, intense quarrels, rivalry, conflict (Raffaelli,

1992), and aggressive behavior (Epkins&Dedmon, 1999; Minnett et al., 1983) were found to be more common than in relationships of widely-spaced siblings. The explanations for the prevalence of rivalry themes in closely spaced dyads include similarity of skills and abilities (Minnett et al., 1983), overlapping social worlds (Howe et al., 2001) and decreased maternal sensitivity (vanIjzendoorn et al., 2000). In contrast, Koch (1954, 1956a, b, c) found that competitiveness and stress characterized the relationships of widely spaced siblings (cited in Minnett et al., 1983). Surprisingly, Abramovitch et al. (1979) reported very little effects of spacing on the sibling relationship for small ages (infants, toddlers or preschooler) (cited in Minnett et al., 1983).

The effects of birth spacing on positive aspects of the sibling relationship are also contradictory. Several research findings support more positive behavior in widely spaced dyads (Felson, 1983; Felson and Russo, 1988; Furman and Buhrmester, 1985; Herzberger and Hall, 1993; cited in Epkins&Dedmon, 1999; Minnett et al., 1983), whereas several others found evidence for greater closeness and warmth in closely spaced dyads (Furman and Buhrmester, 1985; cited in Howe et al., 2001; Buhrmester and Furman, 1990).

Sibling Conflict and Rivalry

Conflict and rivalry -a form of conflict-, are two important concepts that have been widely studied. In addition to the relationship of conflict and rivalry with the above factors, the nature and consequences of these two concepts require more attention. Sibling conflict and rivalry are universal themes (Cicirelli, 1994; Leung & Robson, 1991) that characterize sibling relationships. The sibling conflict is considered as unique due to its intense affective loading (Katz, Kramer & Gottman,

1992; Volling, Youngblade & Belsky, 1997, cited in Bedford et al., 2000; Hartup & Laursen, 1993, cited in DeHart, 1999). There have been attempts to explain the high frequency and intensity of sibling conflict by their easier access to and greater familiarity with each other, normalization of the sibling conflict by parents (Brody and Stoneman, 1987), inequity of power and dominance (Katz et al. 1992), and the obligatory nature of the continuation of a complex relationship before the child has developed the necessary skills to deal with such a relationship (Newman, 1994; cited in Bedford et al., 2000).

The factors that predict conflict in childhood are identified by empirical research as more time spent together (Raffaelli, 1992), small family size (Raffaelli, 1992; Leung & Robson, 1991), intimacy (Shantz & Hobart, 1989; cited in DeHart, 1999) and the asymmetry of the relationship in terms of power and dominance (Katz et al., 1992; Vespo, Pedersen, & Hay, 1995, cited in DeHart, 1999). Rivalry is more pronounced for the firstborns, since they experience a period when they are the sole target of parental love and attention. On the other hand, jealousy on the part of the laterborn is also common, considering the privileges that the firstborn have (Leung & Robson, 1991).

Rafaelli (1992) examined various aspects of conflict on 104 10- to 15-year olds. The most common cause of conflict was power issues, including behavioral control, followed by personal property disputes (the unauthorized use of the sibling's property or space). DeHart (1999) pointed out the age trends in the causes of conflict and claimed that object possession are most common in early childhood and the issue of social control is introduced by the age of 5, gaining as much importance as object possession (Shantz & Hobart, 1989, cited in DeHart, 1999). Alternatively, Crick and Dodge (1994) suggested that even when there is no apparent reason, siblings display

unkind behavior towards and provoke aggressive reactions from each other (cited in Brody, 1998).

On the other hand, what underlies rivalry is inevitably the competition for the love, affection and attention of parents during childhood. Competition for prestige and accomplishment comes secondary to parental resources (Leung & Robson, 1991). Adolescence marks a decrease in rivalry for parental attention and love (Allan, 1977; cited in Connidis, 1992; Raffaelli, 1992). Nevertheless, ending up with an absolute opposite relationship quality seems impossible (Scott, 1983; cited in Connidis, 1992).

There are positive and negative, short-term and long-term outcomes of sibling conflict and rivalry, indicating once more the importance of the sibling relationship in one's development and adult life. Sibling conflict is found to be associated with emotional problems and low self-esteem (Hanson et al., 1992; cited in Hardy, 2001), aggression outside the family (Patterson et al., 1984; cited in Connidis, 1992), and adult criminal behavior (Reid, 1988; cited in Hardy, 2001). However, in most sibling research, emphasis is on the positive consequences of conflict for children's social and emotional development (e.g. Kramer et al., 1999). Sibling conflict is conceptualized as an area in which the siblings can express their feelings, learn to deal with intense affect (Bedford et al., 2000; Brody, 1998), practice communication skills (Brody, 1998). According to some authors, it serves as a model for adult interaction (Banks and Kahn, 1997; Dunn, 1993; Lamb, 1982; cited in Ryan, 2002). In the study of Bedford et al. (2000), adults reported that conflicts with their siblings offered them information on their selves (strengths, limitations, etc.), and similarities / dissimilarities with their siblings. Furthermore, Jacobson (1964) claimed that the hated rivals are even more important than the objects of love in the development of identity. Sibling conflict is influential on the negotiation of other developmental

tasks as well, at different ages throughout one's life (Raffaelli, 1992). Shantz (1987) proposed that siblings "create" conflicts on the issues that they are trying to master, namely developmental tasks (cited in Raffaelli, 1992). For example, sibling conflict contributes to individuation by allowing siblings to express their differences via disagreements (e.g. Bedford et al., 2000), which Schacter refers to as de-identification (Schacter, Shore, Feldman-Rotman, Marquis and Campbell, 1976, cited in Bedford et al., 2000).

Thus, healthy competition among siblings is crucial in the development of social, interpersonal and cognitive skills. However, when the conflict and rivalry are not adequately dealt with, psychological problems may arise out of the problematic sibling relationship (Leung & Robson, 1991). Sibling rivalry is common in clinical texts of child psychology and pediatrics (DelGuidice, 1986; Griffin and De La Torre, 1985; cited in Leung and Robson, 1991; Neubauer, 1983; Pietropinto, 1985; cited in Volling et al.; 2002). Moreover, psychological problems may also arise out of the residuals of sibling conflict and rivalry in adulthood. Unresolved anger, jealousy and hurt may surface in adult relationships (Leung & Robson, 1991; Volling et al., 2002). Similarly feelings of shame, as a result of favoritism, may persist in adulthood (Brody et al., 1998). Therefore, clinicians should be alert and active in investigating the relationship with siblings (Brody et al., 1998).

Theoretical Approaches to Sibling Relationships

There have rarely been attempts to explain the empirical findings on the basis of theory. Social-learning theory was the most pronounced one and the de-identification model gained strength by emerging as a reaction to social learning

theory. They both enlightened the relationship between the gender of one's sibling and the development of gender role behavior.

Social-learning theory envisions a one to one correspondence between qualities of relationships that take place in different contexts (McCoy et al., 2002). For instance, one suggestion of the theory is that the pattern of parent-child interaction is generalized to interactions between siblings (Patterson 1984, cited in Brody, 1998). In this sense, sibling interactions function the same as parental interactions (Updergraff et al., 2000). The association between positive sibling interaction and positive peer relationships (Kramer and Gottman, 1992; McCoy, Brody & Stoneman, 1994; cited in McCoy et al., 2002) exemplifies this suggestion. Moreover, social learning theory expects laterborns to model firstborns (Updergraff et al., 2000). This theory has been successful in accounting for the findings of more opposite-sex qualities in siblings from mixed-sex dyads. However, it falls short in explaining the contradictory findings regarding gender role behavior. In addition, its expectation that laterborns model older siblings did not find support. There is more than modeling to sibling relationships, resulting in totally different behaviors and personalities of siblings of the same dyad. On the other hand, social learning theory has an important contribution to the literature by claiming that sibling interaction, together with parental interactions are carried to adult relationships.

The de-identification model suggests that children try to differentiate themselves from their siblings by adopting opposite stands (Volling et al. 1997; Schacter et al., 1976; cited in Bedford et al., 2000). This model finds support from the studies, which found that members of mixed-sex dyads are more sex-typed. Additionally, this model is consistent with the findings that laterborns adopt personality styles that are totally different from firstborns (Grotevant, 1978;

Leventhal, 1970, cited in Updergraff et al., 2000). However, de-identification cannot account for the laterborns' tendency to imitate behavior and for some findings on gender role behavior. Moreover, it totally ignores the quality of the relationship between siblings. Nevertheless, it also contributes to the literature by emphasizing the role of the sibling in development.

Taking the uniqueness, significance and complexity of having a sibling and the relationship with him/her into consideration, these theories do not suffice alone to offer enough explanations.

Psychoanalytic theory closely holds the belief that parental relationships shape the personality development and influence the risk for psychopathology (Bornstein, 1993). Furthermore, as previously mentioned, object relational theorists strongly emphasize the role of significant others in the formation of adult personality and interaction patterns. However, psychoanalytic theory has ignored the existence of the sibling as a contributor to one's development. One exception is Jacobsen (1964) who acknowledged the place of the sibling as a rival, together with the father. According to her, the sibling is the target of the child's displacement of hostile feelings from the mother and the projection of his/her hostility (Jacobson, 1964). Still, her attempt does not go beyond recognizing the existence of siblings, though the sibling is an important figure, which provides a unique relationship. Given the significance of the sibling and the emphasis of psychoanalytic theory on significant others, an integration of siblings into psychoanalytic theory and the introduction of psychoanalytic theory to the sibling literature as a perspective for understanding and interpreting the findings will offer benefits for both sides.

Since the launch of objects other than mother into the infant's life starts with the Oedipal period according to classical psychoanalytic theory and given that the

predominant theme in sibling relationship is rivalry, which is also the central theme of the Oedipal period, it seems to be an appropriate starting point to investigate. Furthermore, support from empirical findings for the existence of Oedipal influences on sibling relationships will be presented.

The Oedipus Complex

According to Freud the Oedipus complex is caused by the direction of various sexual elements towards a genital organization by the ages 5-6 (Mitchell & Black, 1995). He suggested that the primary impetus of the period is genital intercourse with the opposite-sex parent (Jacobson, 1964; Mitchell & Black, 1995; Tyson & Tyson, 1990), whereas the same-sex parent is a dangerous rival for the accomplishment of this aim (Mitchell & Black, 1995; Tyson & Tyson, 1990). However, Freud also recognized that the situation is not that simple, when frightening feelings of sexuality towards both parents and the intense rivalrous feelings are coupled by ambivalent emotions ranging from intense love to intense hate. Thus, the Oedipus complex may be either positive, when the love object is the opposite-sex parent and the rival is the same-sex parent, or negative when the child directs libidinal wishes to the same-sex parent and identifies the opposite-sex parent as the rival (Tyson & Tyson, 1990). The Oedipus complex, described by love and sexual attraction for one parent, who in turn creates fear and death wishes in the child, and rivalry against the other parent, who is also loved and admired, introduces full triadic object relationships, following a dyadic period with the primary caregiver.

Contemporary psychoanalytic theories broadened the focus of the Oedipus complex, from sexuality and rivalry to a wider area including “*different motivations and various constellations of family dynamics*” (Greenberg, 1991, p.16; cited in

Mitchell & Black, 1995). Thus, the Oedipus complex is not just regarded as a psychosexual stage but object relational development and gender development have gained importance as well (Jacobson, 1964; Tyson & Tyson, 1990).

The early and contemporary psychoanalytic theories depict the Oedipus complex as the interrelationships between the mother, father and child. The role of the sibling, who is present in the majority of the homes during childhood, is ignored. Although case examples include the sibling as an important element of the Oedipus complex (e.g. the case of Colin in Tyson & Tyson, 1990, p.310), the theory does not take it into account. This isolation of one member of the family from a highly conflicted and emotionally intense experience, namely the Oedipus complex, between the other three members of the family may curtail a better understanding of both the Oedipus complex and the sibling relationship.

The empirical findings, supporting that the sibling relationship is influenced by the Oedipus complex and is an integral element of it, include the age trends, intensity of rivalry and characteristics of the rival, high levels of aggression and sexuality, and lastly the robust impact of one's sibling on gender development. Firstly, there is a decrease in siblings' reports of rivalry by ages 7-8 (e.g. Buhrmester & Furman, 1990; Leung & Robson, 1991). This trend may indicate that the previous intensity of rivalry and negative feelings, especially towards the same-sex sibling, may be in part due to conceptualization of the sibling as an Oedipal rival and consequently the decrease in rivalry and increase in closeness may be a sign of successful Oedipal resolution. Moreover, adolescence is another period that marks increased closeness and decreased rivalry (Cicirelli, 1982; Ross & Milgram, 1982; cited in Buhrmester & Furman, 1990). Since adolescence is considered as a developmental period when unresolved issues of childhood are renegotiated (Kroger,

1989) such as Oedipal feelings, a decrease in rivalry may similarly be a result of successful negotiation of residual Oedipal feelings. In addition, girls' turning to female figures such as mothers and sisters in adolescence as love objects (Worden et al., 1999) may also be a sign of the same phenomenon, with the implicit indication that sisters as well as the mothers were seen as distant rivals previously.

The concept of sibling rivalry itself has Oedipal connotations. Volling et al. (2002) described the world of the child in terms of the parent -the beloved- and sibling -the rival-, and cited Parrott (1991, p.17) who claimed that the early life of the child is dominated by the "*most powerful jealousy of youth*", in which the parent-child relationship under the threat of a sibling rival (Volling et al., 2002). Further support for the Oedipal nature of sibling relationships come from self-reports and observations, which reveal that sister fights in childhood mainly focus on the love and attention of male figures (Faber & Mazlish, 1989; McGoldrick, 1991). The outcome of such conflicts seems to be the loss of mothers' and sisters' support and affection (McGoldrick, 1991), which is ignored for a while for the sake of male attention. Although the sister-sister rivalry over men has been more pronounced in the literature, it is useful to generalize it to brother-brother pairs and focus on the same-sex dyads. As mentioned above, empirical evidence strongly supports that same-sex dyads experience more conflict and rivalry (e.g. Epkins&Dedmon, 1999; Leung & Robson, 1991; McGoldrick, 1991; Minnett et al., 1983; Raffaelli, 1992.). Since the rival(s) in the Oedipus complex is the same-sex figure(s), this finding can be accounted for by the Oedipus complex. The explanations for this fact have always focused on shared contexts and interests (Dunn, 1983; cited in DeHart, 1999; Howe et al., 2001). Since the love object, father for the sisters and mother for the brothers, is one and perhaps the most important one of the siblings' shared interests, it is likely

that their rivalry will focus on him or her, which is the core of the Oedipus complex. Also the finding that the birth of a male sibling results in more negative response from the firstborn brother than does a female baby (Henchie, 1963, cited in Stewart, Mobley, VanTuyl & Salvador, 1987) may reflect that he is regarded as the Oedipal rival by the brother, whereas the female baby is not. As well, the girls' reaction to the male baby with disruption in the mother-child relationship (Henchie, 1963, cited in Stewart et al., 1987) may be an outcome of blaming the mother for castration, as the uncastrated one arrives.

In addition, the greatest rivalry is reported for same-sex siblings who are closely spaced (Epkins & Dedmon, 1999; Leung & Robson, 1991; Rafaelli, 1992). Considering the Oedipus complex, this is expected since a child is more likely to see a sibling who is closer to him/her in age, as a rival. In the case of mixed-sex widely spaced dyads, the child may see the sibling as the love object, just like he/she does with the parent. Thus, an effort to understand sibling rivalry from the perspective of Oedipus complex does not challenge the empirical findings and/or explanations. It just shifts the viewpoint from the apparent reasons of rivalry to the more subtle aspects and places the sibling relationship within a more general and systematic network of relationships.

The role of sexuality and aggression in sibling relationships may also support the existence of Oedipal themes in sibling relationships. Although it has been ignored both in the families and in sibling research, Smith and Israel (1987) suggested sibling incest is very common, even more common than parental incest (Hardy, 2001). Finkelhor (1980) conducted a survey on 796 non-clinical undergraduates and found that the percentages of females and males, who reported some kind of sexual experience with a sibling, were 15% and 10%, respectively. However, these

experiences are not considered to be abusive, given the small age difference, the lack of betrayal of trust, the innocent natural curiosity and experimentation (Canavan, Meyer & Higgs, 1992; cited in Hardy, 2001). Sexual experiences with a sibling become abusive when one threatens the other to keep it a secret, the age difference is large and one of the siblings is traumatized (Canavan et al. 1992, cited in Hardy, 2001). These findings suggest the existence of sexual feelings between siblings. These feelings may or may not be enacted.

A very different perspective on sexuality between siblings was disclosed by a member of Faber and Mazlish's parent group, while they were discussing their feelings about their siblings. He said that *"This may sound far out, but I think sometimes siblings of the opposite sex will start a fight as a way of dealing with sexual feelings they might have for each other. It is one way to maintain a safe distance."* (Faber & Mazlish, 1989, p. 147). Although the discussion did not proceed in that way, nobody in the group disagreed with the idea as reported by Faber and Mazlish.

Regarding aggression, findings indicate high rates of aggression in sibling relationships, resulting in physical violence. Hardy (2001) reported that 800 of the 1000 undergraduates had experienced sibling violence. However, serious harm is rarely reported in sibling violence (Raffaelli, 1992). Aggression is again more common for same-sex, closely spaced siblings (e.g. Minnett et al., 1983). Since aggression in sibling relationships is accepted and normalized by the parents, it becomes hard to differentiate serious aggressive behavior from normal rivalry (Hardy, 2001). Moreover, this attitude makes it more difficult to identify what purpose aggression serves in the sibling relationship. It can be hypothesized that

commonness of aggression, especially in same-sex closely spaced dyads, may signify strong Oedipal rivalrous feelings, as well as some sort of sexuality.

Lastly, regardless of the direction of the effect, it is known that having a sibling, the gender of the sibling and the sibling relationship are important contributors of gender development (Rust et al., 2000; Updergraff et al., 2000). Since the Oedipal period has the key role for one's gender development, these findings support that sibling relationships are an important, integral part of the Oedipal period.

To conclude, there are indications that sibling relationships carry some Oedipal qualities. Thus, the existence of Oedipal themes in siblings' reports on each other and on their relationship should be studied to directly investigate this idea.

The Concept of Representation and its Importance in Studying Sibling Relationships

The review of the literature on sibling relationships reveals the fact that individuals' perceptions of their siblings have been neglected. In most of the studies a third eye (experimenter, mother, teacher, peer) provided the information about the individual and dyadic characteristics. Self-reports were usually used to assess the subjects' personality and/or the quality of the relationship. However, siblings were not described as their siblings perceived them. It is known that the images siblings have about each other are under the influence of current or unresolved childhood rivalries and the view of parents, transmitted to them via stories (McGoldrick, 1991). Thus, it is highly probable that what an experimenter or mother perceives in an interaction is not the same as the perception of the child or adult. Moreover, objectively assessed personality features of siblings provide information about the

consequences of the sibling status or sibling relationship, not about what in the sibling causes the formation of certain personal and interpersonal patterns.

It is not the objective features of the sibling that influences the quality of the relationship and/or developmental aspects of the individual. It is his/her representation of the sibling. A representation refers to the way a person psychically represents an object (St.Clair, 1986), that is the sibling in this case. It is an internal organization formed by the collection and integration of many images of the sibling and features of the sibling relationship (Ilıcalı, 1999; Ogilvie & Ashmore, 1991). The basis of the representations is "*the subjective experience of being with another person*" (Stern, 1995). Ogilvie and Ashmore (1991) added that the whole relationship is also represented, including the image of self with the person and the feeling associated with that relationship. Further, they introduced the self-with-other construct which is defined as the "*mental representation that includes the set of personal qualities (traits, feelings, and the like) that an individual believes characterizes his or her self when with a particular other person*" (Ogilvie & Ashmore, 1991, p.290)

The representations of significant others influence the formation and functioning of intrapsychic structures (Stern, 1995). According to object relations theorists, personality is made up of the representations of the self, other and the self-other interaction (Bornstein, 1993). Moreover, as long as they remain stable, representations guide a person's behavior (Stern, 1995). Given that siblings have significant and highly influential roles in individuals' lives, the sibling representation should be studied in order to understand the nature of the sibling relationship and its impacts.

Representation is the mediator between having a sibling and his/her effects, and it is missing in the current literature. There are bits of information about how one perceives and depicts his/her sibling. For example, Elizabeth Fishel gives a description of a sister from her sister's perspective in her book *Sisters* (1979): "*My dearest friend and bitterest rival, my mirror and opposite, my confidante and betrayer, my student and my teacher, my reference point and counterpoint, my support and dependent, my daughter and mother, my subordinate, my superior and scariest still, my equal. My sister is someone who lives out another part of myself, freeing me or limiting me to my role, which is by definition not her*" (quoted in McGoldrick, 1991, p.245). Such a description uncovers the importance and ambivalence of the sibling relationship and provides a great deal of information, when compared to relationship rating scales that try to classify the relationship.

Besides, the comparisons of siblings' reports on their relationship revealed that siblings gave different accounts of the relationship, especially about rivalry and conflict (Ambert, 2001; Buhrmester & Furman, 1990; Epkins & Dedmon, 1999). For example, Dunn and McGuire (1994) stated that only 23 percent of the siblings of the same dyad reported similar degrees of closeness (Ambert, 2001). Likewise, laterborns reported a decrease in conflict with age, whereas firstborns' gave no account of a decline in Buhrmester and Furman's (1990) study. Moreover, the data of the same study revealed that laterborns rated the relationship as more intimate and mentioned more admiration towards siblings than firstborns did (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990). These findings indicate totally different perceptions of the same relationship and are supported by Epkins and Dedmon (1999) who found that siblings' reports on rivalry and hostility were not related. Thus, naming a relationship as rivalrous, or a sibling as aggressive may not always be correct. How one perceives

him/herself, his/her sibling and their relationship, as colored by his/her personality and past experiences, is more relevant when the impact of the sibling or the relationship on the person is in question. Moreover, simply reading the description of a person is not enough to capture the place of this person in one's life. All these support the conclusion that studying self-with-sibling representations will be beneficial both for a better understanding of the available information and for future research.

To conclude, the review of literature on siblings indicates two important points: the lack of studies that focus on representations of siblings and the inadequacy of theories in explaining empirical findings. Accordingly, the first aim of this study is to explore sibling representations. A descriptive analysis of the representation of sibling and the representation of self-with-sibling will be carried out. Since there are no previous studies on sibling representations, this study will be an exploratory study and no hypothesis on representations will be stated. Further, the relationship between the representation of sibling and the reports of the sibling relationship will be explored. One of the basic premises of this study is that what shapes the relationship is the representation of the sibling. Thus, it is expected that the representation of the sibling will be influential on different aspects of the sibling relationship. However, no directional hypothesis could be stated due to the lack of sufficient knowledge on the possible directions of this influence. The second aim of the study is to reveal indications of Oedipal feelings towards sibling. On the basis of the Oedipal indicators detected in the sibling literature the following hypotheses are formulated:

Hypothesis 1: a) It is expected that subjects with same-sex siblings will report higher jealousy/rivalry than opposite-sex siblings.

b) This jealousy/rivalry will be more over the love/attention of the opposite-sex parent, when compared to the same-sex parent and rivalry regardless of parents' love/attention.

Hypothesis 2: Subjects with older opposite-sex siblings are expected to report more admiration towards their siblings than subjects with older same-sex, younger same-sex and younger opposite-sex siblings do.

Hypothesis 3: a) Jealousy/rivalry reports regarding childhood are expected to decrease by the end of the adolescence.

b) This decrease is expected to be more prevalent for subjects from same-sex dyads.

METHOD

Sample. For the purposes of the study, the prerequisite of having only one sibling was set before the sample selection started. Boğaziçi University undergraduates who met this criterion voluntarily participated in the study and were given credits for their participation. The first phase of the study was completed by 235 subjects. 26 of them were excluded because either they did not complete the questionnaire properly or they mistakenly participated in the study, although they did not meet the prerequisite and 13 subjects did not show up in the second phase. The remaining 197 subjects attended the second phase, 195 of which properly completed. Since the death of a sibling implies the possibility that the subject had more than one sibling during a period in his/her life, the subjects who experienced the death of a sibling were excluded. In addition, considering the aim of the study to explore Oedipal themes, subjects whose age difference from the sibling exceeds 5 years were also excluded. The final sample consisted of the remaining 142 subjects who have one sibling with an age difference between 1-5. The ages of the subjects ranged from 18 to 25 and their siblings' ages ranged from 14 to 29. Statistics for the age of the subject, the age of the sibling and the age difference for the final sample are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Statistics for age-related variables (N=142)

	MIN	MAX	MEAN	SD
Age of the subject	18	25	20.30	1.05
Age of the subject's sibling	14	29	20.32	3.56
Age difference between the subject and his/her sibling	1	5	3.12	1.30

Approximately half of the subjects (49%) have older siblings and half (51%) have younger siblings. Similarly, about half of the subjects (51%) have same-sex siblings and half (49%) have opposite-sex siblings. The frequencies for each composition of the sibling dyad are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Frequencies of male and female subjects with each type of sibling.

		SIBLING				
		Older		Younger		TOTAL
SUBJECT		Male	Female	Male	Female	
	Male	23	18	22	21	84
	Female	19	10	11	18	58
TOTAL		70		72		142

Materials and Procedure. The materials used in this study are the Demographic Information Questionnaire, the Self-with-Other Questionnaire and Matrix, and the Sibling Relationship Scale (SRS). The study was conducted in two phases. The Demographic Information Questionnaire and the Self-with-Other Questionnaire were administered in the first phase. The second phase included the administration of the Self-with-Other matrix and the SRS.

Demographic Information Questionnaire

The Demographic Information Questionnaire included questions on age, gender, marital status, residence and contact information of the subject as well as the age, occupation and education of the parents and the sibling. This questionnaire was administered in the first phase of the study as the first two pages of the Self-with-Other Questionnaire.

Self-with-Other Questionnaire and Matrix

The Self-with-Other Questionnaire (see Appendix A) used in this study is a version of Ogilvie & Ashmore's (1991) interviewing method. The aim of this method is to obtain the representational structures of the subjects in terms of how they represent themselves when with a particular person. It was converted to a self-administered format and used on a Turkish sample by Mitrani (1999). The Self-with-Other Questionnaire was administered to approximately 50 subjects at each meeting, after they were partially informed about the study, being told that the study was about important people in their lives and their relationship with them. In the Self-with-Other Questionnaire, subjects were first asked to make a list of the important people in their lives such as family members, friends, boy/girlfriends and enemies. They were instructed to include their mother, father and sibling in their lists and not to exceed 25 people. An example for the list of important people is presented in Table 3.

Table 3. V.O's list of important people

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| 1. Mother | 10. Male friend B |
| 2. Father | 11. Female friend F |
| 3. Older Brother | 12. Female friend G |
| 4. Female friend A | 13. Female friend H |
| 5. Female friend B | 14. Female friend I |
| 6. Female friend C | 15. Male friend C |
| 7. Female friend D | 16. Male friend D |
| 8. Female friend E | 17. Male friend E |
| 9. Male friend A | |

In the next step, the subjects were asked to choose a person from their list who is easy to describe and to write his/her name in the “People” section of the questionnaire, with the person’s gender and an indication of their relationship in parentheses. Then, they were asked to describe this person using adjectives and/or phrases. After describing the person, subjects were asked to think themselves with that person and to describe how they perceive themselves and how they feel when they are with this person. The resulting data is illustrated by two of V.O’s descriptions in Table 4. The first phase of the study is completed when the subjects applied the same procedure to each subject in the list.

Table 4. Sample descriptions selected from V.O’s list

2	Mehmet (M, Father)	Attentive, caring, have difficulty with affect, gets angry quickly, pays attention to details, humorous
	Me with my father	Happy, relieved, safe
11	Seda (F, Friend)	Sensitive, honest, reliable, emotional
	Me with Seda	Relieved, cheerful, sincere

At the end of the first phase, the date of the second meeting was arranged for one week later. By the Self-with-Other Questionnaire, a list of important people (targets) and a list of the words used to describe them (features) were elicited for each subject, capturing their own representational world. Before the second phase, a target x feature matrix was prepared for each subject, in which the important people in his/her list were rows and the adjectives and/or phrases they used were columns. Three new targets were added to the matrix as additional rows, that are “Me, at my worst”, “Me, as I usually am” and “Me, as I would like to be”.

In the second phase, the subjects were given their matrix and asked to think of themselves with the person in the row and rate the feature in the column as 1, if the feature defines how he/she perceives him/herself when with that particular person; and 0, if it does not (see Table 5 for V.O's target x feature matrix). Subjects were instructed to fill the rows for the 3 new targets -"Me, at my worst", "Me, as I usually am" and "Me, as I would like to be"- by directly thinking about themselves (see Appendix B for instructions).

Sibling Relationship Scale

The Sibling Relationship Scale was designed for the purposes of this study. The scale included 29 statements that may describe one's relationship with his/her sibling and feelings towards him/her as well as his/her feelings about his/her parents' attitude towards sibling. The scale requires the respondents to rate how much the item defined his/her relationship with his/her sibling on a 1 to 5 scale. The first page of the scale included 29 items to be rated by thinking of the period before primary school and on the second page respondents are asked to rate the same items by thinking the last year of the high school, henceforth called the primary school subscale (PSS) and the high school subscale (HSS). A pilot study was carried out for reliability analysis. The Cronbach alpha score for the ratings before primary school was .82 and for the ratings that define the relationship at the last year of the high school was .87.

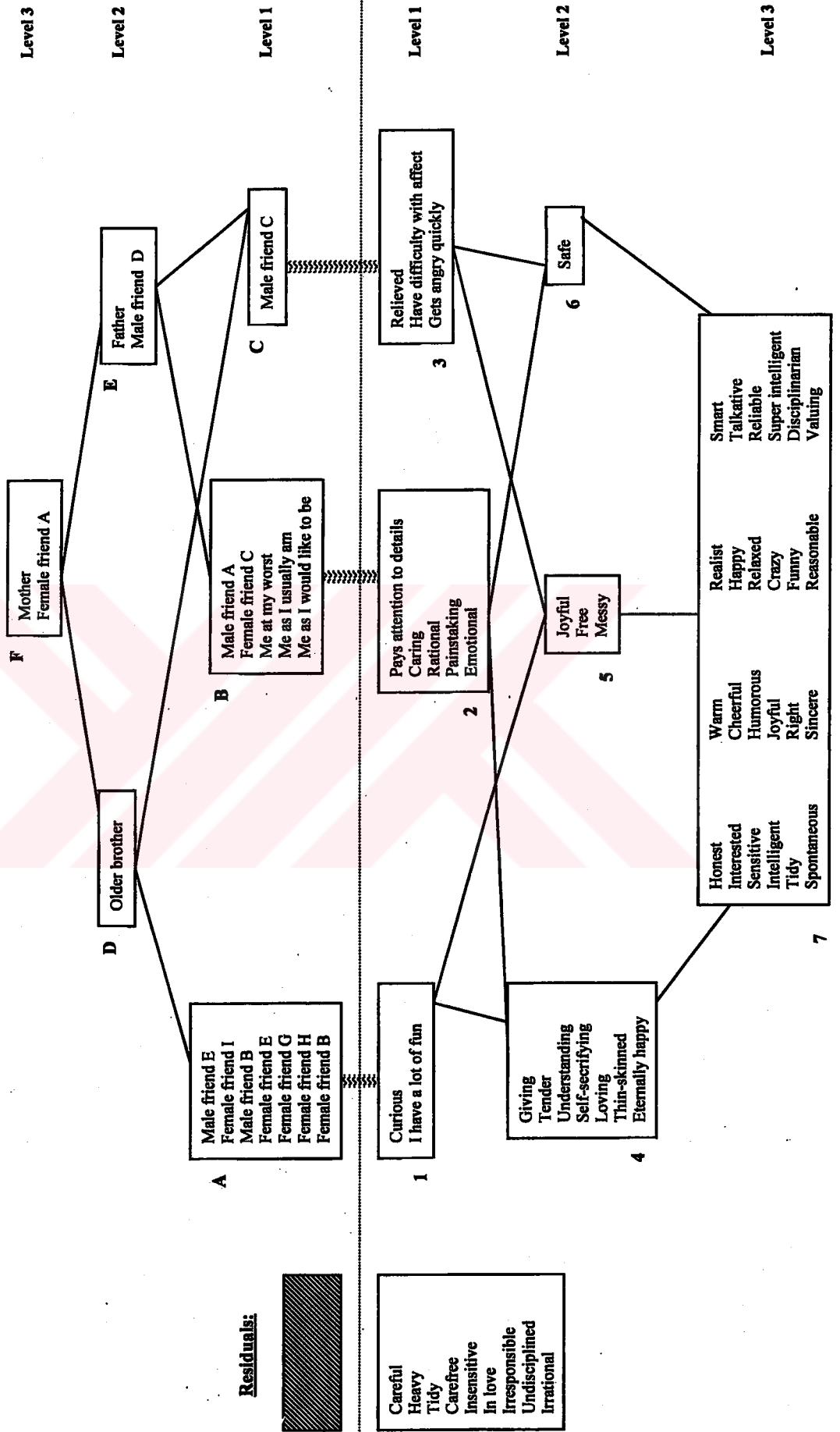
In this study, subjects were given the Sibling Relationship Scale after they returned the completed matrix, in order to prevent priming the subject to the sibling before his/her representational structure was elicited. The subjects were warned that the two pages consisted of identical items that should be rated for two different periods in their lives.

	Emotional	Enjoyable	Heavy	Neat	Disciplinarian	Tidy	Rational	Realist	Cherish	Carefree	Free	Sensitive	Reliable	Crazy	Insensitive	Messy	I have a lot of fun	Thin-skinned	Right	Spontaneous	In love	Irresponsible	Undisciplined	Irrational	Valuing	Eternally happy
Older brother	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Mother	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Female friend A	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Male friend E	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Father	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Male friend D	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Male friend A	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Female friend C	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Me at my worst	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Me, as I usually am	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Female friend I	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Male friend B	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Me, as I would like to be	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Female friend D	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Female friend E	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Female friend F	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Female friend G	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Male friend C	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
Female friend H	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Female friend B	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	1	1

Analyses. In order to arrive at the Self-with-Other representational structures for each subject, a hierarchical classes analysis (HICLAS) was done on the matrices. A rank 3 solution was applied to all subjects, since it gives adequate goodness-of-fit values and provides an easily interpretable outcome (e.g. Ashmore, 1990; Ashmore&Ogilvie, 1992; Mitrani, 1999). The rank 3 solution organizes the representational structure into 3 hierarchical ranks/levels. The HICLAS groups together the targets that share common features and features that are used for the same targets by locating the best-fitting row and column classes (see Figure 1 for a sample chart). HICLAS classifies a target in the same cluster with other targets that are defined with the identical set of features. In the same way, a feature is categorized with other features that define the identical set of targets. A target class is directly linked to feature classes if these classes represent a set of features that describe all the targets in that class. If the target is defined with too few features or a feature is associated with too few targets, it is classified as *residual*. Hierarchical relations are represented by the position of the linked classes as above/below each other. A target class is linked to a target class below it, if the feature class/classes that is/are linked to the class below it is/are a proper subset/subsets of the feature classes that define it. The same relationship applies to feature classes. In the sample chart, the targets in Level 3 cluster F are defined by all non-residual features and the Level 3 feature cluster 7 defines the subject when with all non-residual targets.

Ashmore and Ogilvie (1992) identified 3 main dimensions of representational structures. These are “Elaboration of the Class”, defined as the number of targets and features within an individual cluster; “Prominence”, defined as the level of an individual target or feature within the structure; and “Evaluative tone”, defined in terms of how positive versus negative the individual cluster is.

Figure 1. Representational structure of V.O produced by HICLAS



The *elaboration* of a class is determined by the comparison of the number of targets or features in a class to a cut-off point decided by the researcher. If the number of elements in a target class or the number of elements in a feature class exceeds the cut-off point it is named as an elaborated class and if not as unelaborated. Taking the mean and standard deviation of the number of elements in target classes into account, the cut-off point in this study for the elaboration of a target class is determined as 3. Since individual differences were high regarding the number of elements in feature classes, setting a single cut-off point produced senseless classifications. Thus, it was decided to use the average size of the feature class as its cut-off point for each subjects' representational structure.

The *prominence* of a class is scored as 1 for residual classes, 2 for Level 1 classes, 3 for Level 2 classes and 4 for Level 3 classes. The levels of the classes are automatically determined by HICLAS. A target class that appears above all other target classes in the representational structure and has direct and indirect links to them, indicating that it shares the same features with all classes, is a Level 3 class. The Level 2 classes have direct links to more than one target class below them and share the same features with these classes. When a group of people constitutes a class that has no target class below it, implying that it does not share the features of more than one target class, the class is named as Level 1. The Level 1 classes appear at the bottom of the target section of representational structures (the section above the dotted line in Figure 1). Residuals are the targets, which were not defined by enough number of features to form a class with other targets that are defined by the same features.

Lastly, the *evaluative tone* of the class is determined by its contents. If the features in a class are mainly positive the class is labeled as positive, if features are

mainly negative as negative. In addition, if the number of positive features and negative features are almost equal the class is named as ambivalent. When the majority of the features in a class could not be evaluated as either positive or negative, that class is named as neutral. The neutral and ambivalent categories were rated together as ambivalent/uncertain by Ashmore and Ogilvie (1992). However, in this study these categories were taken separately, because the difference between defining a sibling with an equal number of positive and negative adjectives and defining him/her with toneless, uncertain words would be important in interpreting the results. In order to determine the evaluative tones of the classes in this study, 3 independent raters evaluated the classes in terms of these 4 categories. The concordance rate between the 3 sets of ratings, as calculated by Kendall's W test, was .94. For cases in which there wasn't full agreement, the rating with the highest frequency is used. For target classes, evaluative tones are determined by the evaluative tones of the feature clusters that they were directly linked to. For Level 2 or 3 target classes, the evaluative tone is dependent on the tones of the target classes below it.

Apart from these 3 main dimensions, the frequency of appearance of a target, such as mother, cousin, friend, etc., in the same cluster with the sibling is calculated using the representational structures produced by HICLAS.

RESULTS

Descriptives of the Sibling Representations

The sibling representations as elicited by the Self-with-Other Method were examined using the three dimensions, namely prominence, elaboration and evaluative tone.

The prominence of the target classes was scored on the basis of the position of the class and its links to other classes, as determined by HICLAS. Level 1 classes appeared at the bottom of the targets section with no target classes below. Level 2 classes were directly linked to at least two classes, and shared all the features of these classes. Level 3 classes were at the top of the targets section and shared the same features with all other non-residual classes. Residuals are the targets that are defined by too few features to form a class with other targets. As can be seen in Table 6, the prominence of the class in which the subjects placed their siblings was Level 1 for the majority of the subjects, and less than 1% of the subjects placed their sibling in a Level 3 class. When Residual and Level 1 classes are regarded as not prominent, and Level 2 and Level 3 classes as prominent, it is seen that 24.6% of the siblings were in prominent clusters, whereas 75.4% of the siblings were not. This indicates that for the majority of the subjects, their perception of themselves when with their siblings does not constitute a superset for their perceptions of themselves, when they are with other important people.

Table 6. Distribution of the subjects with respect to prominence level

	PROMINENCE				
	Residual	Level 1	Level 2	Level 3	
Frequency	14	93	34	1	142
%	9.9%	65.5%	23.9%	0.7%	100%

In terms of feature elaboration, a feature class was labeled as elaborated if the number of its elements exceeded the average number of elements per feature class for the subject and as unelaborated if not. The siblings in residual classes had no associated feature class. The number of subjects whose sibling was directly linked to an unelaborated feature class was slightly greater than the number of subjects who placed their siblings in a class that is directly linked to an elaborated class (see Table 7). This distribution demonstrates that the representation structures, in which the number of words and/or phrases that the subjects used to describe themselves with their siblings is fewer than the average number of words and/or phrases per class, slightly exceeds the structures in which self-with-siblings is described by more word and/or phrases than average.

The elaboration of the target class that includes the sibling was determined in comparison to the cut-off point of 3. The majority of the subjects (62.7%) placed their siblings in elaborated target clusters (see Table 7). In other words, the majority of the subjects perceived themselves when with their siblings, in the same way as they do with at least 3 other people in their lives.

Table 7. Distribution of the subjects with respect to feature and target elaboration

		ELABORATION					
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	<i>Both</i>	<i>Residual</i>		
FEATURE	CLASS	<i>Frequency</i>	52	62	14	14	142
		%	36.06%	43.7%	9.9%	9.9%	100%
TARGET	CLASS	<i>Frequency</i>	89	39	(not applicable for target class)	14	142
		%	62.7%	27.5%		9.9%	100%

The last dimension was the evaluative tone of the feature class, to which the target class including the sibling was directly linked. 60% of the subjects described themselves with their siblings with mainly positive words/phrases, whereas 30% used negative, ambivalent or uncertain words/phrases.

Table 8. Distribution of the subjects with respect to evaluative tone

	EVALUATIVE TONE					
	<i>Positive</i>	<i>Negative</i>	<i>Ambivalent</i>	<i>Uncertain</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
<i>Frequency</i>	85	17	16	10	14	142
<i>%</i>	59.9%	12%	11.3%	7%	9.9%	100%

In sum, for the majority of the subjects, siblings appear in Level 1, elaborated target classes that are directly linked to unelaborated, positive feature classes. In other words, the majority of the subjects described themselves when with their siblings in the same way as they do for at least 3 other important people in their lives. Additionally, the number of words and phrases they used specifically to describe the class including the sibling is less than average number of elements for their feature classes, and these words and phrases are mainly positive. Lastly, the sibling was in a class that shared all the features of several different target classes for a minority of the representational structures.

The relationships between each dimension and subject's gender, sibling's gender, age composition of the dyad (older/younger), gender composition of the dyad (same-sex/opposite-sex) and the combinations of these compositions (e.g. males with older brother, females with younger sister) were separately analyzed. The cross-tabulation tables are presented in Appendix D. None of the Chi-square analyses

proved significant. However, although not statistically significant, several trends were observed. On the target elaboration dimension, male subjects with older sisters showed a slight tendency to put their siblings in unelaborated target classes rather than elaborated classes, while the clear majority of subjects from all other dyad combinations represented themselves with their siblings in elaborated target classes. Another observation is that the self-representations of females when they are with their older sisters demonstrated a more obvious trend to be positive (90%) and to be similar to their self-representations with at least 3 other important people in their lives (90%).

The final point of interest regarding the self-with-sibling representations was the targets who shared the same class with the sibling. The mean number of targets that shared the same cluster with subjects' siblings was 3.74. The mean number of people that share the same self-with-other definitions with the sibling is highest for females with older sisters ($M=6$) and lowest for males with older sisters ($M=2$), pointing out that females' description of themselves with their siblings is the same with more people in their lives than the other groups and males describe themselves with their older sisters, as they do so with fewer people than other groups.

The person that most frequently appears in the same cluster with the sibling is the same-sex friend. 50% of subjects defined themselves with their siblings as the same when they think about themselves with at least one of their same-sex friends. Same-sex friend is followed by the representations of "me as ideal" and "me as usual". This demonstrates that for approximately 40% of the subjects, the self-with-sibling representation corresponded to the ideal way in which the person feels or behaves and approximately 30% of the subjects' self-with-sibling definition was the same as how they perceived themselves as they usually are.

The second most frequently appearing target in the same class with the sibling is the mother and the third is the opposite-sex friend. The frequencies of appearance of at least one of the specified targets in the same target class with the sibling are listed in Table 9. Since these are all self-definitions, the additional targets “me as ideal”, “me as usual” and “me at my worst” are also regarded in the same list.

Table 9. The frequency and percentage of targets that share the same class with sibling

	Frequency	%
Same-sex friend	71	50%
<i>Me as ideal</i>	55	39%
<i>Me as usual</i>	44	31%
Mother	43	30%
Opposite-sex friend	40	28%
Father	29	20%
Aunt	15	11%
Teacher	13	9%
Same-sex cousin	12	8.5%
Grandmother	10	7%
Uncle	9	6%
Boy/girlfriend	6	4%
<i>Me at my worst</i>	5	3.5%
Ex-boy/girlfriend	5	3.5%
Other	5	3.5%
Grandfather	4	3%
Opposite-sex cousin	2	1%
Enemy	0	0
Single	28	20%
Residual	14	10%

When several groups are separately examined (male vs female; have a brother vs sister; have an older vs younger sibling; and combinations of these variables), it is seen that for all groups the same-sex friend was invariably the most frequent target that shared the same cluster with one's sibling. On the other hand, for female subjects with older sisters "me as ideal" is as frequent as same-sex friend (70%), showing that females with older sisters feel themselves the same as their ideal self when they are with their sisters. Similarly, for females with younger brother "me as ideal" and teacher is as frequently placed in the same cluster with the sibling as their female friends. Approximately 50% of the females with younger brothers defined themselves with their brothers the same as they define themselves with their female friends, teachers and as ideal. Lastly, approximately for 30% of males with older sisters, the sibling appeared in a single class.

Very few (3.5%) of the subjects defined themselves when with their siblings as "me at my worst". However, all of these 5 people were from same-sex dyads. None of the subjects from an opposite-sex dyad defined him/herself when with sibling as at his/her worst. (see Appendix E for the frequency tables of different age and gender compositions of the sibling dyads)

Results of the Sibling Relationship Scale

Factor Analysis

The Sibling Relationship scale was composed of two subscales, with identical item sets of 29 items to be rated for "before primary school" (PSS) and "at the last year of high school" (HSS). Two separate factor analyses were done. The factor analysis of PSS extracted 7 factors by principal component analysis. These 7 factors can explain 69% of the variance. As obtained after varimax rotation (converged in 9

iterations), the contents of the factors are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. The factor organization of PSS

Factor	Items
Factor 1	<p>9. Kardeşimin annemle daha çok vakit geçirmesinden çok rahatsız olurdum.</p> <p>11. Kardeşim yüzünden babamın bana daha az ilgi/sevgi gösterdiğini düşünürdüm.</p> <p>19. Babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesi beni çok rahatsız ederdi.</p> <p>23. Kardeşimin babamla daha çok vakit geçirmesinden çok rahatsız olurdum.</p> <p>4. Babamın sadece benim olmasını isterdim.</p> <p>5. Kardeşimi çok kıskanırdım.</p> <p>6. Annem kardeşimle ilgilenirken ilgisini çekmek için çaba gösterirdim.</p> <p>13. Annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesi beni çok rahatsız ederdi.</p> <p>17. Annemin sadece benim olmasını isterdim.</p> <p>28. Babam kardeşimle ilgilenirken ilgisini çekmek için çaba gösterirdim.</p> <p>26. Kardeşim yüzünden annemin bana daha az ilgi/sevgi gösterdiğini düşünürdüm.</p> <p>25. Babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesi, annemin abime ilgi göstermesinden daha rahatsız ediciydi.</p>

The principal component analysis of the HSS also extracted 7 factors, which could explain 67% of the variance. Varimax rotation (converged in 8 iterations) ended up in a slightly different composition of items, as presented in Table 11.

Table 10. The factor organization of PSS (continued)

Factor	Items
Factor 2	1. Kardeşimle çok yakın ve sıcak bir ilişkimiz vardı 3. Kardeşimle çok iyi anlaşırdık. 10. Kardeşimle herşeyimi paylaşırdım. 22. Kardeşimle olan ilişkim benim için çok önemliydi. 27. Kardeşimle birbirimize çok benzerdik.
Factor 3	18. Kardeşimle çok kavga ederdik. 24. Hiç sebep yokken kavga çıkarırdım. 12. Kardeşimi geçmek/yenmek için uğraşırdım.
Factor 4	7. Kardeşimi her yönden çok beğenirdim. 14. Kardeşimi örnek alırdım. 16. Kardeşim beni çok kıskanırdı. (-) 20. Kardeşimin hiçbirşeyini beğenmezdim. (-)
Factor 5	8. Kardeşim babamla benim olduğumdan daha yakındı. 15. Babam kardeşime daha çok ilgi gösterirdi.
Factor 6	2. Annem kardeşime daha çok ilgi gösterirdi. 21. Kardeşim annemle benim olduğumdan daha yakındı.
Factor 7	29. Annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesi, babamın abime ilgi göstermesinden daha rahatsız ediciydi

Since these scales were designed to measure the same aspects of the sibling relationship at two different periods in one's life and these scores were required to be meaningfully comparable, a solution that would fit both was needed. Thus, a factor organization combining the PSS and HSS organizations was created by combining some factors on the basis of items' content and 2nd highest loading.

Table 11. Factor organization of HSS

Factor	Items
Factor 1	<p>1. Kardeşimle çok yakın ve sıcak bir ilişkimiz vardı</p> <p>3. Kardeşimle çok iyi anlaşırdık.</p> <p>10. Kardeşimle herşeyimi paylaşırdım.</p> <p>22. Kardeşimle olan ilişkim benim için çok önemliydi.</p> <p>27. Kardeşimle birbirimize çok benzerdik.</p> <p>7. Kardeşimi her yönden çok beğenirdim.</p> <p>14. Kardeşimi örnek alırdım.</p> <p>16. Kardeşim beni çok kıskanırdı. (-)</p> <p>20. Kardeşimin hiçbirşeyini beğenmezdim. (-)</p>
Factor 2	<p>4. Babamın sadece benim olmasını isterdim.</p> <p>5. Kardeşimi çok kıskanırdım.</p> <p>6. Annem kardeşimle ilgilenirken ilgisini çekmek için çaba gösterirdim.</p> <p>13. Annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesi beni çok rahatsız ederdi.</p> <p>17. Annemin sadece benim olmasını isterdim.</p> <p>28. Babam kardeşimle ilgilenirken ilgisini çekmek için çaba gösterirdim.</p>
Factor 3	<p>8. Kardeşim babamla benim olduğumdan daha yakındı.</p> <p>15. Babam kardeşime daha çok ilgi gösterirdi.</p> <p>25. Babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesi, annemin abime ilgi göstermesinden daha rahatsız ediciydi.</p>
Factor 4	<p>9. Kardeşimin annemle daha çok vakit geçirmesinden çok rahatsız olurdum.</p> <p>11. Kardeşim yüzünden babamın bana daha az ilgi/sevgi gösterdiğini düşünürdüm.</p> <p>19. Babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesi beni çok rahatsız ederdi.</p> <p>23. Kardeşimin babamla daha çok vakit geçirmesinden çok rahatsız olurdum.</p>

Table 11. Factor organization of HSS (continued)

Factor	Items
Factor 5	26. Kardeşim yüzünden annemin bana daha az ilgi/sevgi gösterdiğini düşünürdüm. 29. Annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesi, babamın abime ilgi göstermesinden daha rahatsız ediciydi. 12. Kardeşimi geçmek/yenmek için uğraşırđım.
Factor 6	18. Kardeşimle çok kavga ederdik. 24. Hiç sebep yokken kavga çıkarırdım.
Factor 7	2. Annem kardeşime daha çok ilgi gösterirdi. 21. Kardeşim annemle benim olduğumdan daha yakındı.

Factor 6 of the PSS was exactly the same with the Factor 7 of HSS. Thus, those 2 items were kept the same as a factor in the final factor organization. Factor 1 of the HSS grouped Factors 2 and 4 of the PSS together. Taking their contents into account, it was decided to keep them as two separate factors. On the other hand, Factor 1 of PSS covered Factor 2 and 4, plus one item form Factor 5 and one item from Factor 3 of the HSS. When the other items that made up Factor 5 of the HSS was analyzed it was seen that for the PSS factor arrangement, their exclusion from their factors and addition to Factor 1, which is the factor that had the 2nd highest loading for these items at the PSS factor analysis, results both in the remaining factors to represent exactly Factor 6 and Factor 3 of the HSS and in a more meaningful categorization of the items. Moreover, by this addition, the single-item Factor 7 of the PSS joined Factor 1 and the number of factors dropped to 6. Finally, the resulting Factor 1 was categorized into 3 groups regarding their contents: items

on mother, items on father and items with no target parent. (see Table 12) The aim of this categorization is to allow comparisons of mother and father scores.

In its final form Factor 1, "*Jealousy/Rivalry*", consists of 3 groups of items that stand for the *jealousy/rivalry over mother, over father and with no target parent*. Items with no target parent include simply being jealous of the sibling and attempts to triumph over him/her. Factor 2, "*Positiveness of the Relationship*", describes mutual positive feelings. Factor 3, "*Conflict*", focuses on fights and arguments. Factor 4 stands for "*Admiration and Acceptance*" of the sibling. Factors 5 and 6, are measures of "*Perceived Differential Treatment*" in favor of the sibling, by subject's *father* (DT by father) and *mother* (DT by mother), respectively. Factor scores were computed by taking the sum of the associated items.




Table 12. Final Factor Organization

Factor		
No	Label	Items
1	Jealousy / Rivalry	Items on mother
		9. Kardeşimin annemle daha çok vakit geçirmesinden çok rahatsız olurdum.
		6. Annem kardeşimle ilgilenirken ilgisini çekmek için çaba gösterirdim.
		13. Annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesi beni çok rahatsız ederdi.
		17. Annemin sadece benim olmasını isterdim.
		26. Kardeşim yüzünden annemin bana daha az ilgi/sevgi gösterdiğini düşünürdüm.
		29. Annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesi, babamın abime ilgi göstermesinden daha rahatsız ediciydi
		11. Kardeşim yüzünden babamın bana daha az ilgi/sevgi gösterdiğini düşünürdüm.
		19. Babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesi beni çok rahatsız ederdi.
		Items on father
23. Kardeşimin babamla daha çok vakit geçirmesinden çok rahatsız olurdum.		
4. Babamın sadece benim olmasını isterdim.		
25. Babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesi, annemin abime ilgi göstermesinden daha rahatsız ediciydi		
28. Babam kardeşimle ilgilenirken ilgisini çekmek için çaba gösterirdim.		
2	Positiveness of the Relationship	No target
		Parent
		5. Kardeşimi çok kıskanırdım.
		12. Kardeşimi geçmek/yenmek için uğraşırdım.
		1. Kardeşimle çok yakın ve sıcak bir ilişkimiz vardı
		3. Kardeşimle çok iyi anlaşırđık.
10. Kardeşimle herşeyimi paylaşırdım.		
22. Kardeşimle olan ilişkim benim için çok önemliydi.		
27. Kardeşimle birbirimize çok benzerdik.		

Table 12. Final Factor Organization (continued)

Factor		
No	Label	Items
3	Conflict	18. Kardeşimle çok kavga ederdik.
		24. Hiç sebep yokken kavga çıkarırdım.
4	Admiration / Acceptance	7. Kardeşimi her yönden çok beğenirdim.
		14. Kardeşimi örnek alırdım.
		16. Kardeşim beni çok kıskanırdı. (-)
		20. Kardeşimin hiçbirşeyini beğenmezdim. (-)
5	DT by father	8. Kardeşim babamla benim olduğumdan daha yakındı.
		15. Babam kardeşime daha çok ilgi gösterirdi.
6	DT by mother	2. Annem kardeşime daha çok ilgi gösterirdi.
		21. Kardeşim annemle benim olduğumdan daha yakındı.

Results of the Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1

The Hypothesis 1 states that “It is expected that subjects with same-sex siblings will report higher jealousy and rivalry”, implies an expectation that subjects who have same-sex siblings will score higher on jealousy/rivalry factor than subjects with opposite-sex siblings. Since, this is hypothesized as an indicator of an Oedipal theme, PSS scores were compared. The mean jealousy/rivalry score on PSS for the total sample was 24.82, which corresponds to a mean rating of approximately 2 on the 1-to-5 scale. This indicates that although subjects did not deny the existence of the jealousy/rivalry, they rated it as faintly describing their relationship with their siblings. The 3 subcategories of jealousy/rivalry factor, which are jealousy/rivalry

over mother's love/attention, over father's love/attention, and without a target parent were also separately considered. All of these scores were also around 2 on a 5-point scale.

In order to see if there was a significant difference between PSS jealousy/rivalry scores of subjects from dyads of different gender composition, ANOVA was conducted. The analysis obtained a main effect of sibling's gender, indicating that subjects with male sibling and female siblings significantly differed on total jealousy/rivalry scores [$F(1,134)=3.11, p<.05$]. When the subcategories of this factor -items on mother, items on father and items with no target parent- were analyzed, sibling's gender proved significant on the items on mother [$F(1,134)=5.75, p<.05$]. These findings denote that subjects with sisters reported higher jealousy scores than subjects with brothers, especially when mother is the target parent. The subject's gender and the interaction between subject's gender and sibling's gender had no significant effect on the mean jealousy/rivalry scores of subjects, as well as on the items on mother, items on father and items with no target parent. This finding implies that the jealousy/rivalry scores of subjects from male-male, female-female and opposite sex dyads did not differ significantly.

Further, subjects from male-male and female-female dyads were combined as the subjects from "same-sex" dyads and independent samples t-tests were conducted to see if Jealousy/Rivalry scores of subjects from same-sex and opposite-sex dyads differed. The descriptive statistics and t values for jealousy/rivalry scores are presented in Table 13. No significant difference was found between the total jealousy/rivalry scores and 3 subcategory scores of subjects from same-sex and opposite-sex dyads. Thus, the first part of the first hypothesis, stating that same-sex siblings will report higher jealousy/rivalry than opposite-sex siblings was rejected.

Table 13. Descriptives and t values for the jealousy/rivalry score and its sub-categories on PSS

	Subjects with same-sex siblings			Subjects with opposite-sex siblings			t
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	
Total Jealousy/rivalry (# of items: 14)	67	25.73	11.78	67	23.91	10.67	.35
<i>Items on mother</i> (# of items: 6)	71	11.23	5.52	67	10.39	4.71	.34
<i>Items on father</i> (# of items: 6)	69	10.48	5.08	69	10.03	4.95	.60
<i>Items with no target parent</i> (# of items: 2)	71	4.18	2.26	69	3.55	1.93	.08

The second part of the hypothesis states “the jealousy/rivalry will be more over the love/attention of the opposite-sex parent when compared to same-sex parent”. The ANOVA results, mentioned above, indicate no significant difference between male and female subjects on jealousy over mother’s love/attention [$F(1,134)=.48, p>.05$] or jealousy over father’s love and attention [$F(1,134)=.43, p>.05$]. Thus, it cannot be concluded that females are more jealous of their fathers than males and males are more jealous of their fathers than females.

In addition to the comparison of males and females, the scores of items on mother and items on father were compared separately for male and female subjects in order to see if subjects were more jealous of their opposite-sex parent, when compared to same-sex parent. Paired samples t-tests were conducted separately for

male and female subjects. Neither males nor females showed a significant difference between the jealousy/rivalry over the same-sex parent and opposite-sex parent [$t(79)=1.89$, $p>.05$, two-tailed; $t(54)=1.05$, $p>.05$, two-tailed, respectively]. On the PSS, all subjects rated their jealousy/rivalry over mother's love and attention towards their sibling significantly higher than jealousy/rivalry over father's [$t(134)=2.01$, $p<.05$, two-tailed]. However, further analyses revealed that sibling's gender had an effect on the difference between jealousy/rivalry scores over mother and father. Although all subjects were more jealous of their mothers' love/attention, when compared to fathers', this difference was greater and statistically significant for subjects who have sisters [$t(63)=2.31$, $p<.05$, two-tailed], whereas it is smaller and non-significant for the subjects who have brothers [$t(70)=0.48$, $p>.05$, two-tailed]. This indicates that the jealousy/rivalry over mother's love and attention to sibling is significantly greater than jealousy/rivalry over father, when the sibling is the same sex with the mother. Nevertheless, it should be kept in mind that the jealousy/rivalry scores were very low and the observed differences indicate variations between a definite rejection of the existence of jealousy/rivalry in the sibling relationship (1 on the 5-point-scale) and a low rating (2 on the 5-point-scale).

Hypothesis 2

As stated in Hypothesis 2, subjects with older opposite-sex siblings were expected to report more admiration towards their siblings than subjects with older same-sex siblings and younger siblings. The effects of the gender of the subjects' siblings (same-sex vs opposite-sex), the age of the sibling (older vs younger) and their interaction on the acceptance/admiration score of the PSS were tested by ANOVA and demonstrated a significant main effect for the age of the sibling, as older or younger from the subject [$F(1,137)=285.24$, $p<.01$], whereas the gender of

the sibling, as same-sex and opposite-sex, and the interaction of these two variables were not significant [$F(1,137)=.59, p>.01$; $F(1,137)=1.38, p>.05$, respectively].

Subjects with older siblings reported a significantly higher level of acceptance/admiration ($M=14.31$; $SD=3.48$) than subjects with younger siblings ($M=11.48$; $SD=2.62$). In other words, admiration of the older sibling was rated as a decent descriptor of the sibling relationship, while admiration of the younger sibling was more indeterminate in terms of describing the sibling relationship.

Replication of the same ANOVA on the HSS admiration/acceptance scores showed that the subjects admired their older siblings significantly more than their younger siblings also at high school [$F(1,138)=136.04, p<.01$], despite the significant difference in the admiration of the younger sibling between PSS and HSS, as identified via paired samples t-test [$t(70)=-4.04, p>.01$, two-tailed]. In other words, older siblings are admired more than younger siblings and this admiration remains almost stable when asked to rate it for HSS. However, the admiration of younger siblings was significantly greater at high school when compared to the primary school, but this difference was not sufficient to eliminate the significant superiority of the older siblings in terms of being admired.

For a more detailed look at the differences in acceptance/admiration scores of PSS, the effects of subject's gender, sibling's gender and the age of the sibling (older vs younger) on the PSS admiration/acceptance score were analyzed by ANOVA. The interaction between these three variables proved significant [$F(1,141)=4.646, p<.05$]. The descriptive statistics of acceptance/admiration scores for each group are presented in Table 14.

In order to be able to compare the 8 groups, resulting from the interaction of 3 variables, ANOVA with Scheffe procedure was conducted. The analyses revealed

that female subjects' admiration ratings for their older brothers were significantly higher than their ratings for their younger sisters, and than male subjects' ratings for their younger sisters and brothers. In addition, females assigned significantly higher ratings for their older sisters, when compared to their ratings for younger sisters and brothers, and to male subjects' ratings for older sisters, younger sisters and younger brothers. The mean differences between these groups were significant at .05 level. Female subjects' admiration of their older sisters was the highest score and was significantly higher than the admiration scores of other dyad combinations, except for the older brothers.

Table 14. Descriptive statistics of the PSS acceptance/admiration scores for each type of dyad composition.

	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Females with older sister	10	14	20	17.50	2.55
Females with older brother	19	6	20	15.47	3.94
Males with older brother	23	10	19	13.70	2.49
Males with older sister	18	8	18	12.11	2.85
Females with younger brother	11	8	16	12	2.24
Males with younger brother	22	7	17	11.73	2.57
Males with younger sister	21	8	18	11.38	2.77
Females with younger sister	17	4	14	10.94	2.84

Regarding Hypothesis 2, since the age of the sibling (older vs younger) had a significant effect on admiration scores and the gender of the sibling (same-sex vs opposite-sex) had no significant effect, it can be concluded that subjects with older

siblings report more admiration; however, this admired older sibling is not necessarily of the opposite sex. Supporting this finding, the highest admiration scores were reported by female subjects for their older sisters. Although the females' admiration of their older brothers are significantly higher than the ratings of several other groups, it still remains behind the females' scores for their older sisters and is not significantly different from males' score for their older brother. Moreover, females with older sisters admire their sisters more than males with older sisters do. In sum, being an opposite-sex sibling does not assure admiration even when the sibling is older. Thus, despite the fact that older siblings were rated as more admirable Hypothesis 2 cannot be confirmed.

ANOVA on acceptance/admiration score of the HSS yielded non-significant results for the interaction between subject's gender, sibling's gender and age of the sibling. [$F(1,142)=2,898, p>.05$].

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 expected the Jealousy/Rivalry scores of the PSS to be higher than the HSS. In order to see if the PSS and HSS scores differed, Paired Samples t-tests were computed. The total jealousy/rivalry score, as well as jealousy/rivalry over mother, jealousy/rivalry over father and jealousy/rivalry with no target parent were significantly lower for HSS than for PSS. This finding supports the Hypothesis 3. Similarly, the conflict score of the PSS was significantly higher than the conflict scores of the HSS. On the other hand, positiveness of the relationship and admiration/acceptance scores were significantly higher for HSS than for PSS (see Table 15).

Table 15. Descriptive information on factor scores for PSS and HSS, and t values for the comparison of their means

	PSS			HSS			t
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	
Jealousy/Rivalry (# of items: 14)	134	24.82	11.23	135	18.98	7.06	6.76*
Positiveness of the relationship (# of items: 5)	140	14.76	5.05	139	17.02	4.59	-4.66*
Conflict (# of items: 2)	139	5.36	2.32	140	3.9	1.86	7.2*
Admiration/Acceptance (# of items: 4)	141	12.89	3.38	142	13.51	3.49	-2.77*
DT by father (# of items: 2)	138	3.90	2.04	140	3.84	2.32	0.18
DT by mother (# of items: 2)	139	4.55	2.23	140	4.06	1.99	2.57**

* significant at .01 level

** significant at .05 level

The second part of Hypothesis 3 expected this difference between PSS and HSS to be more prevalent for subjects from same-sex dyads. Paired samples t-tests indicated that the decrease in jealousy/rivalry score and in the scores of its subcategories was significant for both subjects with same-sex siblings and subjects with opposite-sex siblings (see Table 16).

Table 16. Means jealousy scores of PSS and HSS, their difference (Diff.) and the t-values

	Subjects with Same-sex Siblings				Subjects with Opposite-sex Siblings			
	PSS	HSS	Diff	t	PSS	HSS	Diff	t
Total Jealousy/rivalry	25.58	19.23	6.35	4.98*	23.82	18.68	5.14	4.55*
<i>Items on mother</i>	11.27	8.51	2.76	4.64*	10.45	8.02	2.43	5.23*
<i>Items on father</i>	10.40	7.79	2.61	4.85*	10.03	8.13	1.90	3.56*
<i>Items with no target parent</i>	4.18	2.99	1.19	4.68*	3.51	2.78	0.73	3.34*

*significant at .01 level

In order to see whether the subjects' having a same-sex versus opposite-sex sibling had an influence on the amount of difference between PSS and HSS Jealousy/Rivalry scores, HSS scores were subtracted from PSS scores and difference variables were computed for the total score and its sub-categories. Independent samples t-tests resulted in non-significant findings, indicating that subjects with same-sex siblings and subjects with opposite-sex siblings did not differ on the amount of decrease in the jealousy/rivalry scores. This finding rejects the second statement in Hypothesis 3.

Nevertheless, subject's gender, regardless of the sibling's gender, had an influence on the difference between PSS and HSS jealousy/rivalry scores. The Independent samples t-test shows that the decrease in the jealousy/rivalry over father is significantly greater for females (mean difference=3,21) than the decrease for males (mean difference=1,58) [$t(88)=-2.01, p<.05$, two-tailed]. In addition, sibling's

gender, regardless of the subjects' gender, also had an influence on jealousy scores such that subjects with female siblings reported a significantly greater decrease in their jealousy/rivalry over mother (mean difference=3,43) than the subjects with a male sibling (mean difference=1,86) [$t(134)=-1.576$, $p<.05$, two-tailed].

The Relationship between Self-with-Other Representations and Factor Scores

In order to see the relationship between the qualities of subjects' representations of themselves when with their siblings and their relationships with their siblings, ANOVAs were computed. Since there was only 1 subject who placed her sibling in a Level 3 class, Level 2 and Level 3 were combined in these analyses. The prominence level of the representation was found to have a significant effect on the positiveness of the relationship at high school [$F(2,136)=5.54$, $p<.01$]. Post-hoc analyses identified that the subjects who placed their sibling in a residual cluster (he/she did not define themselves when with sibling using enough features) differ significantly from subjects who placed their siblings in Level 1 or Level 2&3 clusters. Both Level 1 and Level 2&3 groups had significantly higher positiveness scores than the residual group (see Table 17).

Table 17. Mean scores for positiveness of the relationship on HSS with respect to prominence

	Positiveness of the relationship
Residual	13.29
Level 1	17.37
Level 2&3	17.62

ANOVAs were computed to see whether the elaboration of the target cluster of the sibling and factor scores had a significant relationship. Elaboration of the target also appeared to have a significant effect on the positiveness of the relationship at high school [$F(2,136)=8.49$, $p<.01$]. Post-hoc analyses identified that the subjects who placed their sibling in residual classes differ significantly from subjects who placed their siblings in elaborated clusters. Subjects whose siblings were in elaborated target classes had significantly higher positiveness scores than subjects whose siblings were in residual classes (see Table 18).

Table 18. Mean scores for positiveness of the relationship on HSS with respect to target elaboration

	Positiveness of the relationship
Residual	13.29
Unelaborated	16.05
Elaborated	18.05

The elaboration of the feature class, to which the target class including the sibling has a direct link, demonstrated the relationship with positiveness score [$F(3,135)=3.78$, $p<.05$] Post-hoc analyses revealed that the subjects who placed their sibling in a residual cluster yielded significantly lower positiveness scores than the subjects who placed their siblings in elaborated classes, unelaborated classes and to classes that had links to both elaborated and unelaborated clusters (see Table 19).

Table 19. Mean scores for positiveness of the relationship on HSS with respect to feature elaboration

	Positiveness of the relationship
Residual	13.29
Unelaborated	17.34
Elaborated	17.37
Both	18.14

Lastly, ANOVAS were computed to see whether the emotional tone of the sibling's class has an effect on factor scores or not. Emotional tone had a significant effect on the positiveness of the relationship at high school [$F(4,134)=5.01, p<.01$]. Post-hoc analyses found out that the subjects who placed their sibling in a positive cluster yielded significantly higher positiveness scores than the subjects who placed their siblings in residual clusters (see Table 20).

Table 20. Mean scores for positiveness of the relationship on HSS with respect to evaluative tone

	Positiveness of the relationship
Positive	18.17
Negative	15
Ambivalent	16.33
Uncertain	16.9
Residual	13.29

To summarize, qualities of self-with-sibling representation were significantly associated with the positiveness of the relationship scores of HSS. This association was not observed for the PSS scores. In addition, the representational qualities had no significant relationship with other aspects of the sibling relationship as measured by the factor scores.

Additional Analyses on Factor Scores

Perceived Differential Treatment (DT)

Subjects rated their mothers and fathers as favoring the sibling at low degrees, namely around 2 on a 5-point scale for both PSS and HSS (see Table 15 for means and standard deviations). On the PSS, subjects' scores for DT in favor of the sibling by the mother was more than the DT scores for the father [$t(135)=-2.91$, $p<.01$, two-tailed]. The DT by the father in favor of the sibling on the PSS is closely associated with the siblings' gender [$t(117)=-2.1$, $p<.01$, two-tailed]. If the sibling is a sister, subjects perceived their fathers as favoring her more than him/herself ($M=4.45$), whereas this perception was less prevalent for subjects with a brother ($M=3.42$). This difference in perception remained also significant at high school [$t(122)=-2.31$, $p<.05$, two-tailed]. Moreover, the same pattern was observed for the DT by mother on the HSS [$t(138)=-2.26$, $p<.05$, two-tailed]. On HSS, subjects rated DT by their mothers higher if the sibling is a sister ($M=4.45$), when compared to their perception of DT by their mothers in favor of their brother ($M=3.70$).

Positiveness of the Sibling Relationship

Subjects' ratings of positiveness of the sibling relationship on HSS differed significantly between males and females [$t(137)=-2.01$, $p<.05$, two-tailed]. Females ($M=17.95$ – close to 4 over 5) rated their relationship with siblings as more positive

($M=16.38$ – close to 3 over 5). The same pattern was observed also for the admiration/acceptance scores both on PSS and HSS [$t(139)=-2.55$, $p<.05$, two-tailed; $t(140)=-2.35$, $p<.01$, two-tailed, respectively]. Females rated their siblings as more admirable, when compared to males both before primary school and at high school.

Gender Differences on Jealousy/Rivalry

Males and females differed significantly on the jealousy/rivalry scores of HSS. [$t(128)=2.1$, $p<.05$, two-tailed]. Males were more jealous of their siblings at high school than females. Considering that both scores are low, it would be better to say that females totally reject any jealousy at high school, whereas males report low degrees of jealousy.

Items on jealousy without a target parent at high school were rated differently by males and females [$t(135)=3.52$, $p<.01$, two-tailed]. Males were significantly more jealous of their siblings and reported trying to triumph over them more than females did. However, both males and females rated this jealousy as low.

Gender Differences on Conflict

Males and females yielded significantly different conflict scores on HSS [$t(138)=1.1$, $p<.05$, two-tailed]. Males' ratings for conflict at high school were significantly higher than females'. Yet, as in other negative aspects of the relationship, the ratings were low.

DISCUSSION

This study aimed to examine the sibling as an object in one's world, who is represented in terms of the subjective experience of being with him/her. The descriptive findings revealed that the self-with-sibling representation is not a superset for other representations. The sibling constitutes a class with at least three other important people, however this class does not entail the properties of two or more classes of important people. Further, the self-with-sibling representation is an unelaborated representation, which is clearly positive, rather than a negative, ambivalent or uncertain one.

This configuration implies that although the sibling relationship is one of the earliest relationships, the representation of oneself in that relationship does not comprise characteristics of other subgroups that are constituted of other important people. In other words, it may not be serving as a basis for other relationships. This finding seems to be surprising considering that the sibling relationship provides the child with a model for future relationships (Apalaçi, 1996; Bank, 1987; cited in Brody, Copeland, Sutton, Richardson & Guyer, 1998; McCoy, Brody & Stoneman, 2002).

However, these findings should not be interpreted to mean that siblings are unimportant, since the mother and friends are also usually represented in the same class with the sibling. Instead, this organization of representations may be due to the nature of the hierarchical organizations. The HICLAS, applied with a Rank 3 solution, organizes the representations into 3 hierarchical levels. However in this study, this method could not yield any hierarchically higher class for most of the cases. Thus, the place of the sibling should be considered within this representational structure context rather than being regarded as a lower level representation. In many

structures the sole level was Level 1 and thus, the inclusion of the sibling in a Level 1 class does not imply that it is less encompassing and it lacks the qualifications to serve as a basis for other developing structures. The absence of higher-level classes may be due to people's tendency to define themselves in a stable and similar manner regarding their interactions with important people who give them similar feelings. They do not attempt finer discriminations in how they feel differently with people within these groups. These indicate a necessity to conceptualize the hierarchical level of self-with-sibling representations by considering that the discrimination between classes in terms of being hierarchically higher or lower was blurred in this study both due to the subject's tendencies and the application of the method.

Nevertheless, appearing in this context, the sibling can be said to be an important object and worthy of being described, since the sibling was rarely left out in residual classes, although its inclusion in the list was experimenter induced. Subjects identified their sibling as an important person in their lives and they took time and effort to go into detail in defining them. Moreover, they were represented similarly with friends and mother, who are very important figures for the majority of the late adolescent-young adult population. Thus, the appearance of the sibling in a non-residual class, with other very important figures supports the literature that clearly states that the sibling is very important in one's life.

In addition to its importance, it was reported in the literature that the sibling is expected to generate intense (Howe, Aquan-Assee, Bukowski & Rinaldi, 2001; White, 2001) and ambivalent emotions ranging from love to hate (Faber & Mazlish, 1989; Dunn and Kendrick, 1982, cited in Kramer, Noorman & Brockman, 1999). However, this study does not support this intense and distinct ambivalence. It was apparent that university students described themselves in interaction with their

siblings positively and their degree of ambivalence or uncertainty as well as clear negativeness was low. This may be due to the age of the population from which the sample was drawn. These subjects represent a late adolescent-young adult population who may have resolved this ambivalence. Since the ambivalent relationship is transformed into a more positive one during adolescence (Buhrmester & Furman, 1990), as also supported by this study, the representations produced by HICLAS, may in fact, represent the transformed, positive sibling relationship. Thus, it would be better to conceptualize the representation of the sibling as unstable throughout ages. In other words, based on this study, it can be said that being with sibling is a clearly positive experience for young adults, supporting Buhrmester & Furman (1990).

Apart from its importance, a unique quality has also been attributed to the sibling in the literature due to its more optional and more egalitarian nature when compared to the parent-child relationship (Cicirelli, 1994, Connidis, 1992) and its exclusive commonalities such as genes, SES, etc., when compared to peers (Howe et al., 2001; White, 2001). This study does not support this uniqueness for the same reason that presents the sibling as important, which is people's tendency to define themselves with their siblings as they do with several other important people. The sibling was not represented as inducing unique experiences and feelings.

At this point it is important to know who else generates the same self-representations. This study identified that university students described themselves when with their sibling as the same as they do when with their same-sex friends. In addition, they describe themselves feeling and/or behaving in their usual and/or ideal in manner, when they are with their siblings and same-sex friends. Hence, the

experience of being with a sibling is the same with being with a peer and is usually positive.

The appearance of parents in the same class with the sibling was not as high as the appearance of peers. This may be explained by the fact that the dyads in this study were closely spaced. Thus, university students are likely to regard their closely spaced sibling as a friend. This may be due to the fact that siblings offer a more peer-like, egalitarian relationship (Ciccirelli, 1994; Connidis, 1992).

On the other hand, when the parents are separately considered it is seen that the experience of being with father was not similar to the experience of being with sibling, whereas the representation of self-with-mother was the same with the self-with-sibling, especially for the majority of the females. This observation offers a new perspective in understanding the findings. When developmentally considered, it is expected that familial relationships that are crucial in childhood lose importance in adolescence, when peer relationships constitute the closest relationship network. The sibling, being both a peer and a family member usually remains in the inner circle with peers (Worden et al., 1999). However, in non-industrialized societies, such re-organization of relationships in adolescence is less evident, but the family of origin remains to be very important (Anderson & Sabatelli, 1999; Ciccirelli, 1994). Thus, the organization in which the sibling is in the middle of the parents, who are further, and peers, who are closer, is less applicable for non-industrialized societies. Instead, parents, siblings and peers join each other to form the close relationship network.

In Turkish culture, the family is defined by a strong hierarchy and high levels of intimacy (Fişek, 2002), resulting in the development of the familial self (see Roland, 1988). Familial self is a self-structure that organizes existence in terms of hierarchical relationships within the family, society and the other social groups. In

Turkey, the adolescents and adults still maintain very close ties with their family and total exclusion of them from the inner circle and replacement by peers are almost never totally accomplished. Instead, close same-sex peers are included in the close connections. Further, father is usually distant, is not emotionally involved with children throughout their lives and is at a hierarchically higher position (Fişek, 2002). He is absent in the house most of the time and the task of dealing with the physical and especially emotional needs of the children belongs to mother. As predicted by the notion of the familial self, a symbiotic-reciprocal relationship with the mother is formed and remains stable during adulthood (Fişek, 2002), especially for daughters since they value familial relationships more and are regarded as confidants by their mothers. However, the relationship with father is represented more in terms of a structural hierarchy by both males and female, where intimacy is less intense than in the relationship with mother.

This cultural pattern in which a familial self is developed is reflected in the self-with-other representations of Turkish university students. The sibling does not appear in a separate class that is linked to the parents and peers. Instead, for Turkish university students the peers -the most important objects for young adults and adolescents-, the mother -standing for the close and stable familial bond-, and the sibling -who carries the features of both- appear in the same class and the father remains out of it. This class represents the re-organized world of important objects for a Turkish university student. Moreover, the subjects' tendency to describe themselves with their friends, siblings and mothers as the ideal and/or usual way in which they feel and behave can also be explained by the concept of familial self, since it is organized around existing relationships, which are pervaded by positive feelings. In the framework of the sibling literature, the fact that siblings are regarded

as peers and remain important after adolescence is supported, while the exclusion of parents from this network by adolescence is not. This points to the need for understanding the findings from a cultural perspective.

A noteworthy exception to this sibling-friend-mother class, defined as the usual and/or ideal self, is that male subjects placed their older sisters in a single-target class as frequently as they did with a same-sex friend. In addition, they had a tendency to describe themselves with their sisters in a less elaborative manner and the number of positive feature classes that are linked to the sibling class was the same as the number of non-positive (negative, uncertain and ambivalent) classes. These indicate male students' tendency to keep their older sisters out of their close relationship network. There may be several explanations for this finding. Although not usually enacted, there is evidence in the literature for sexual feelings towards the sibling (Hardy, 2001). Along the line of these findings, keeping the older sister out of the other close relationships, with no other accompanying object, may point to an attempt to defend the self against these threatening feelings. These feelings may be directly felt toward the older sister or may be displaced from the mother onto the older sister, who is less dangerous and less needed for survival. In addition, keeping the older sister at a distance may serve to avoid being overwhelmed by female intimacy as well as the intense envy and resentment of the older sister towards himself (McGoldrick, 1991).

The last point to be discussed regarding the qualities of self-with-sibling representations is the appearance of the teacher in the same class with the sibling as frequently as same-sex friends for females with younger brother. The reason for this may be the identification of older sisters with the caretaker, teacher, and responsible roles. The feelings of being identified with the teacher when with him/her due to

hierarchical modes of identification may correspond to the same feelings when with the younger brother, since younger brothers elicit this identification with the caretaker role. In other words, the identification when with the teacher may have led the same feelings with a reversal in the hierarchical position. The role of the teacher in an older sister's life should be further studied for a better understanding of this finding.

The second aim of this study was to demonstrate that it is important to study the self-with-other representations of siblings, because they are associated with how one relates to his/her sibling. The findings indicate that how one represents him/herself in interaction with his/her sibling is closely associated with his/her ratings of the relationship as positive. The subjects, who did not define themselves with their siblings with a sufficient number of words and/or phrases, rated their relationship with their siblings at high school as more negative than the subjects who adequately defined their siblings. Thus, it can be said that representing oneself with the sibling and defining a positive relationship with him/her in adolescence were crucially related. Moreover, the higher level, elaborated and positively defined self-representations in interaction with siblings predicted more positive relationships at adolescence. These findings, in line with Stern (1995), clearly support that the representation of self-with-sibling and the positiveness of the relationship are interrelated, thus strengthening the need to study the representations. Moreover, this association between the representations and the scale scores is a potential indicator of the construct validity of SRS.

The hypotheses of this study were formed on the basis of previously observed potential indicators of Oedipal themes in the sibling relationship. The first hypothesis expected that the subjects with same-sex siblings would report higher

jealousy/rivalry and this difference to be more prevalent for the jealousy/rivalry over opposite-sex parents' love and attention, when they were asked to remember the period before primary school. The jealousy/rivalry scores for PSS were very low for all students. Very few of them clearly rated their jealousy as high. The reason for this may be the retrospective nature of the study. Sibling jealousy/rivalry is common in reports of child psychology and pediatrics (DeGuidice, 1986; Griffin and De La Torre, 1985; cited in Leung and Robson, 1991; Neubauer, 1983; Pietropinto, 1985; cited in Volling et al.; 2002). Since the sibling relationship undergoes transformations at several stages in one's life, the crucial issues of childhood may not have been remembered after being transformed. The current positive feelings towards siblings as identified both by self-with-sibling representations and the scale scores may have prevented them from reporting the negative aspects. In addition, the negative feelings towards siblings, if they continue to exert influence in adulthood, are usually unresolved anger, jealousy and hurt (Leung & Robson, 1991; Volling et al., 2002) or feelings of shame as a result of favoritism. These feelings, that could not be successfully resolved in adolescence, are usually unconscious. This might also have contributed to low jealousy reports. Thus, the findings on jealousy scores should be considered carefully, taking the possibility of consciously or unconsciously failing to report jealousy. By the same token, the low scores of jealousy on this study do not rule out the need to be alert in investigating sibling relationships in clinical settings.

The students from same-sex dyads reported slightly but not significantly higher jealousy scores than students from opposite-sex dyads, not providing support for the first part of the first hypothesis. The literature strongly supports greater conflict and rivalry in same-sex dyads, regardless of any Oedipal connotation (e.g.

Epkins&Dedmon, 1999; Leung & Robson, 1991; McGoldrick, 1991; Minnett et al., 1983; Raffaelli, 1992). However, this study failed to confirm this finding.

Nevertheless, as mentioned above, the lack of any difference may be due to the fact that scores are very low for both groups. Although not significantly different from other dyads, highest jealousy was observed in female-female dyads in line with Bakwin & Bakwin (1972) (cited in Leung & Robson, 1991). However, this may be due to the special nature of the sister relationship (Adams, 1968; Cicirelli, 1994) rather than to Oedipal rivalry feelings, since this jealousy/rivalry does not focus on father's love and attention and it is not observed in male-male dyads. The reason for the specialness of sisters' relationship may be the greater dedication of females to the sibling relationship (Sutton-smith & Rosenberg, 1970; cited in Minnett et al., 1983; Worden et al., 1999) and greater emotional sharing (Epkins & Dedmon, 1999; Rosenberg, 1970), as well as commonality of needs and resources (Leung & Robson, 1991).

The second part of the first hypothesis, stating that this jealousy/rivalry would be more over the love/attention of the opposite-sex parent, when compared to the same-sex parent and rivalry regardless of parents' love/attention was also rejected. The jealousy/rivalry over mother's love and attention was higher for all groups. This indicates that, as Leung & Robson (1991) claimed, the primary need of being nurtured by the mother is the most important motive and the sibling is regarded as a rival to be fought against the primary care-giving resource rather than against the opposite-sex love object. The increased jealousy over mother's love and attention when the sibling is a sister may be due to more perceived commonality between mother and the sibling, associated with symbiosis-reciprocity between them (see Roland, 1988), which may have resulted in feeling "out of the bond". This also

indicates that the difference between jealousy over mother and over father is unrelated to Oedipal feelings but related to losing the mother, the primary caregiver.

The second hypothesis was partly supported in that older siblings were admired more than the younger as also reported by Ambert (2001). However, whether the sibling was of the subjects' gender or not did not have any influence. As expected from the above description of the sister-sister relationship, the highest admiration was younger sister's admiration of her older sister. This was followed by younger sister's admiration of older brother and younger brother's admiration of older brother; since girls are more affected by their siblings and since older brothers serve as idols and identification figures for younger brothers (McGoldrick, 1991). This pattern seemed to be stable from early childhood to adolescence. Younger sisters are the least admired siblings for both males and females during childhood. This represents that younger females are the least entitled ones due to their gender and age. In sum, the admiration depends primarily on the siblings' being older and the special sister-sister bond is also reflected in admiration. In addition, gender is influential not in terms of being the same or opposite-sex, but regarding the less supremacy attributed to females.

The third and last hypothesis that expected a decrease in jealousy/rivalry by the end of adolescence was supported by this study. The literature involved conflicting findings on this issue. There were studies supporting decrease in rivalry for parental attention/love (e.g. Allan, 1977; cited in Connidis, 1992; Raffaelli, 1992), increase in closeness (e.g. Cicirelli, 1982; Ross and Milgram, 1982; Buhrmester & Furman, 1990), stability of the quality of sibling relationship during this transition into adulthood (e.g. cited in Brody, 1998) and no systematic developmental trends (Rafaelli & Larson, 1987; cited in Buhrmester & Furman,

1990). Even so, most researchers agree that an absolute opposite relationship quality is almost impossible (e.g. Scott, 1983; cited in Connidis, 1992). This study supports an increase in the positiveness of the relationship and decrease in jealousy/rivalry and conflict. The reasons for this may be the developmentally expected decrease in the need for parental resources and thus, a decrease in the need to fight for them; a better understanding of one's position as a family member (Leung & Robson, 1991) and the decrease in interaction as a result of changing social environments (Leung & Robson, 1991, Buhrmester & Furman, 1990). Oedipal feelings do not seem to constitute a reason, because this difference was not more prevalent for the same-sex dyads.

The rejected hypotheses indicate a failure in finding any Oedipal themes in sibling relationships. Before concluding that sibling relationships are not associated with the Oedipal triangle, it is important to inspect the reasons that may have prevented any Oedipal theme from being revealed by this study. A reason might be the unconscious nature of these feelings. Since the study is retrospective, reaching Oedipal feelings and the behaviors associated with these feelings are likely to be subject to motivated forgetting. Thus, Oedipal feelings might have been present in childhood, but not reported when asked in adulthood. The failure to report jealousy also contributes to this notion. It has been a difficulty to identify the quality of jealousy that is nearly absent.

In addition, another reason for failure to find any Oedipal sign may be that the Western schema for the Oedipus Complex may not be appropriate for Turkey. Thus, searching for Oedipal signs using this schema may prove unsuccessful not because they were absent but because they were of different nature.

On the other hand, the identification of the mother as the target of jealousy for both males and females signifies that the jealousy is over the resources of mother, rather than over the love of the opposite-sex parent. This finding supports the developmental explanations that focus primarily on the developmental needs designated to be met by shared limited resources (e.g. Leung & Robson, 1991). Moreover, admiration scores also support the social learning theory (e.g. Updergraff et al., 2000) that this admiration is based on age-related idealization rather than perceiving the sibling as an Oedipal love object. Thus, this study fails to associate findings on sibling relationship with the Oedipus Complex, as clinically presented. The social and developmental perspectives in the existing literature are supported by this study as better explanations of sibling relationship, than an analytic perspective focusing on Oedipus Complex in the classical sense.

In sum, this study provides the description of the self-with-sibling representation, which is identified as an important determinant of a positive sibling relationship on a Turkish sample of university students. They describe themselves when with their siblings by unelaborated but clearly positive words and/or phrases. They experience themselves as in their usual and/or ideal state of feeling or behaving, when they are with their siblings. This experience is the same with same-sex friends and mother, representing the object world of a Turkish university student. The aspects of the relationship are characterized by low degrees of jealousy and high degrees of positiveness in both early childhood and high school. Further, the positiveness increases and jealousy decreases from childhood to high school. While the relationship between feelings towards sibling and Oedipal period was not supported, the retrospective nature of the study and low degrees of jealousy should also be considered in interpreting this finding.

Implications for Future Research

The representation of self-with-sibling warrants further study, since it shares commonalities with important people in one's life and it is closely associated with the positiveness of the relationship. Different rank solutions on HICLAS may result in finer discriminations between representations and may help in understanding the exact placement of the sibling among other important people better.

In terms of the Oedipal nature of the sibling relationship, retrospective self-reports proved unsuccessful. Thus, other methods should be used in future research.



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APPENDICES

Appendix A – Demographic Questions and Self-with-Other Questionnaire

Elinizdeki form Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı'nın gereklerinden olan tez çalışmasının bir parçasıdır. Söz konusu çalışma insanların hayatlarındaki önemli kişilerle olan ilişkileri üzerine iki aşamalı bir çalışmadır. İsim, telefon numarası ve mail adresi gibi bilgiler sadece araştırmanın ikinci aşamasında sizinle temas kurulabilmesi amacıyla kullanılacak, ve tez çalışmasında ya da herhangi başka bir amaçla kesinlikle açıklanmayacak ve yayınlanmayacaktır.

Adınız – Soyadınız: _____

Doğum tarihiniz: _____

Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın Erkek

Medeni Haliniz: Evli Bekar Dul/Boşanmış

Şu anda kimlerle oturuyorsunuz?

- Anne, baba, kardeş
- Eş (ve çocuklar)
- Arkadaş
- Öğrenci yurdu
- Diğer

Babanızın:

Doğum Yılı: _____

Mesleği: _____

Eğitim Durumu: _____

Annelerinizin:

Doğum Yılı: _____

Mesleği: _____

Eğitim Durumu: _____

Kardeşinizin:

Doğum Yılı: _____ Cinsiyeti: _____

Eğitim Durumu: _____ Mesleği: _____

Aşağıdaki durumlardan ailenizde mevcut olanlarını işaretleyiniz.

 Annenin kaybı Yıl: _____ Babanın kaybı Yıl: _____ Kardeş kaybı Yıl: _____ Boşanma Yıl: _____

Telefon Numaranız: _____

E-mail adresiniz: _____

Lütfen bir sonraki sayfaya geçin...

Sizden ricam, hayatınızdaki önemli ya da geçmişte önemli oluş insanların 25 kişiyi aşmayan bir listesini yapmanız. Bu listeye aileniz, akrabalarınız, arkadaşlarınız, sevmediğiniz kişiler, düşmanlarınız, ve sizi olumlu ya da olumsuz yönde etkilemiş başka tanıdıklarınız dahil olabilir. Bu listede özellikle olmasını istediğim kişiler anneniz, babanız ve kardeşiniz.

Listemizdeki kişilerden bazılarıyla ilişkinizde çok önemli bir değişiklik olmuşsa, bu kişiyi iki ayrı kişi gibi ele alabilirsiniz (Örneğin: “Annem 1: Babamdan ayrılmadan önce”, “Annem 2: Babamla ayrıldıktan sonra). Listenizde aynı isimde birden fazla kişi varsa, bu kişileri ayırmak için ilave birer harf kullanın (Örneğin: “Ahmet A.”, “Ahmet K.”).

NOT: Listenize dahil edeceğiniz kişi sayısında bir alt sınır söz konusu değildir.

- | | |
|-----------|-----------|
| 1. _____ | 14. _____ |
| 2. _____ | 15. _____ |
| 3. _____ | 16. _____ |
| 4. _____ | 17. _____ |
| 5. _____ | 18. _____ |
| 6. _____ | 19. _____ |
| 7. _____ | 20. _____ |
| 8. _____ | 21. _____ |
| 9. _____ | 22. _____ |
| 10. _____ | 23. _____ |
| 11. _____ | 24. _____ |
| 12. _____ | 25. _____ |
| 13. _____ | |

Lütfen bir sonraki sayfaya geçin...

Bu noktadaki amacımız, sizin genelde diğer insanları, ve onlarla etkileşim içindeyken kendinizi tanımlamakta kullandığınız niteliklerin bir listesini oluşturmak. Bu iş için bir önceki sayfada oluşturduğunuz önemli kişiler listesinden ve sayfa 5 ve 6'daki boş tablodan yararlanacağız.

1. Şimdi listenize bakın, ve sizin için tanımlaması kolay olan bir kişi seçin. Bu kişinin adını 5. sayfadaki “**Kişiler**” sütununun “**1**” (bir numaralı kişi) satırına yazın. Parantez içinde cinsiyetini (K ve E şeklinde kısaltabilirsiniz) ve ilişkinizin niteliğini belirtin. Sonra “**Tanımlayıcılar**” sütununa geçin ve bu kişiyi tarif edin. Bunu yaparken sıfatlar ve değişik kelime grupları kullanabilirsiniz (Örneğin: Akıllı, yumuşak başlı, dediğim dedik, güvenilir, sürekli diken üstünde)

Örnek:

	Kişiler	Tanımlayıcılar
1	<i>Ayşe (K, Arkadaş)</i>	<i>Akıllı, esprili, duyarlı, ayrıntıya önem veren, konuşkan, telaşlı, açık fikirli, titiz, edebiyata meraklı, yoğun yaşayan</i>

2. Şimdi de bu kişiyle beraber olduğunuz zamanları düşünün. Bu kişiyleyken siz kendinizi nasıl hissediyor ve algılıyorsunuz? (Örneğin: Mutlu, huzursuz, anlayışlı, çocuk gibi). Cevabınızı “**Bu kişiyken ben**” satırlarına yazın.

Örnek:

	Kişiler	Tanımlayıcılar
1	<i>Ayşe (K, Arkadaş)</i>	<i>Akıllı, esprili, duyarlı, ayrıntıya önem veren, konuşkan, telaşlı, açık fikirli, titiz, edebiyata meraklı, yoğun yaşayan</i>
	<i>Bu kişiyken ben</i>	<i>Neşeli, konuşkan, mantıklı, ilgili, çocuksu, dağınık, değerli, güvende, özgür</i>

3. İlk iki adımdaki işlemleri listenizdeki diğer kişiler için de uygulayın.

	Kişiler	Tanımlayıcılar
1		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
2		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
3		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
4		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
5		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
6		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
7		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
8		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
9		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
10		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
11		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
12		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
13		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	

	Kişiler	Tanımlayıcılar
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
15		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
16		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
17		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
18		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
19		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
20		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
21		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
22		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
23		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
24		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	
25		
	<i>Bu kişiyeyken ben</i>	

Yardımlarınız için teşekkürler...

Appendix B – Instructions of the Self-with-Other Questionnaire

Elinizdeki tablonun tepesinde, soldan sağa, çalışmamızın bir önceki safhasında kullanmış olduğunuz tanımlayıcıları bulacaksınız. Tablonun en sol sütunundaysa, yukarıdan aşağıya, alfabetik sırada, önemli insanlar listenizdeki kişileri göreceksiniz. Sizden istediğim, sırayla kendinizi her bir kişiyle beraber hayal etmeniz, ya da beraber olduğunuz tipik bir sahneyi hatırlayarak kafanızda canlandırmanız. Bu noktada kendinizi bu kişiyleken nasıl hissettiğinize ve nasıl algıladığınıza dikkat edin. Tablonun tepesindeki tanımlayıcıları tek tek ele alarak, hayal ettiğiniz durumda kendinizle ilgili algınıza ne kadar uyduğunu değerlendirin. Eğer bir tanımlayıcı, sizin kendinizi söz konusu ikili etkileşim içerisinde nasıl algıladığınızı doğru biçimde tasvir ediyorsa, ilgili kutucuğa “1” yazın. Eğer tanımlayıcı sizin kendinizi nasıl algıladığınızı anlatmıyorsa “0” yazın.

Listenizdeki önemli kişiler dışında, üç yeni kişinin bu tabloda yer aldığını göreceksiniz. Bunlar: “Olmak istediğim halimle ben”, “En kötü halimle ben” ve “Genelde olduğum halimle ben”. Bu nitelermelerle ilgili stırları doldururken, başkalarıyla nasıl olduğunuzu değil. Doğrudan doğruya kendinizi düşünün.

Yardımlarınız için teşekkürler...

Appendix C – Sibling Relationship Scale

Aşağıda kardeş ilişkilerini tanımlayan bazı cümleler var. Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyun ve siz ilkokula başlamadan önce 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)

	Hiç uymuyor				Tam olarak uyuyor
1. Kardeşimle çok yakın ve sıcak bir ilişkimiz vardı.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Annem kardeşime daha çok ilgi gösterirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Kardeşimle çok iyi anlaşırdık.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Babamın sadece benim olmasını isterdim.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Kardeşimi çok kıskanırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Annem kardeşimle ilgilenirken ilgisini çekmek için çaba gösterirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Kardeşimi her yönden çok beğenirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Kardeşim babamla benim olduğumdan daha yakındı.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Kardeşimin annemle daha çok vakit geçirmesinden çok rahatsız olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Kardeşimle herşeyimi paylaşırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Kardeşim yüzünden babamın bana daha az ilgi/sevgi gösterdiğini düşünürdüm.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Kardeşimi geçmek/yenmek için uğraşırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesi beni çok rahatsız ederdi.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Kardeşimi örnek alırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Babam kardeşime daha çok ilgi gösterirdi.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Kardeşim beni çok kıskanırdı.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Annemin sadece benim olmasını isterdim.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Kardeşimle çok kavga ederdik.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesi beni çok rahatsız ederdi.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Kardeşimin hiçbirşeyini beğenmezdim.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Kardeşim annemle benim olduğumdan daha yakındı.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Kardeşimle olan ilişkim benim için çok önemliydi.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Kardeşimin babamla daha çok vakit geçirmesinden çok rahatsız olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Hiç sebep yokken kavga çıkarırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesi, annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesinden daha rahatsız ediciydi.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Kardeşim yüzünden annemin bana daha az ilgi/sevgi gösterdiğini düşünürdüm.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Kardeşimle birbirimize çok benzerdik.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Babam kardeşimle ilgilenirken ilgisini çekmek için çaba gösterirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesi, babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesinden daha rahatsız ediciydi.	1	2	3	4	5

Aşağıda kardeş ilişkilerini tanımlayan bazı cümleler var. Lütfen her cümleyi dikkatle okuyun ve siz lise son sınıftayken 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)

	Hiç uymuyor					Tam olarak uyuyor				
1. Kardeşimle çok yakın ve sıcak bir ilişkimiz vardı.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. Annem kardeşime daha çok ilgi gösterirdi.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3. Kardeşimle çok iyi anlaşırđık.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. Babamın sadece benim olmasını isterdim.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. Kardeşimi çok kıskanırdım.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. Annem kardeşimle ilgilenirken ilgisini çekmek için çaba gösterirdim.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. Kardeşimi her yönden çok beğenirdim.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. Kardeşim babamla benim olduğumdan daha yakındı.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. Kardeşimin annemle daha çok vakit geçirmesinden çok rahatsız olurdum.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10. Kardeşimle herşeyimi paylaşırdım.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
11. Kardeşim yüzünden babamın bana daha az ilgi/sevgi gösterdiğini düşündürdüm.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
12. Kardeşimi geçmek/yenmek için uğraşırdım.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13. Annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesi beni çok rahatsız ederdi.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
14. Kardeşimi örnek alırdım.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
15. Babam kardeşime daha çok ilgi gösterirdi.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
16. Kardeşim beni çok kıskanırdı.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
17. Annemin sadece benim olmasını isterdim.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
18. Kardeşimle çok kavga ederdik.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
19. Babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesi beni çok rahatsız ederdi.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
20. Kardeşimin hiçbirşeyini beğenmezdim.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
21. Kardeşim annemle benim olduğumdan daha yakındı.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
22. Kardeşimle olan ilişkim benim için çok önemliydi.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
23. Kardeşimin babamla daha çok vakit geçirmesinden çok rahatsız olurdum.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
24. Hiç sebep yokken kavga çıkarırdım.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
25. Babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesi, annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesinden daha rahatsız ediciydi.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
26. Kardeşim yüzünden annemin bana daha az ilgi/sevgi gösterdiğini düşündürdüm.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
27. Kardeşimle birbirimize çok benzerdik.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
28. Babam kardeşimle ilgilenirken ilgisini çekmek için çaba gösterirdim.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
29. Annemin kardeşime ilgi göstermesi, babamın kardeşime ilgi göstermesinden daha rahatsız ediciydi.	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix D – The frequencies and percentages of prominence, target elaboration, feature elaboration and evaluative tone for different groups of subjects.

		PROMINENCE SCORE				
		<i>1</i> <i>Residual</i>	<i>2</i> <i>Level 1</i>	<i>3</i> <i>Level 2</i>	<i>4</i> <i>Level 3</i>	
SUBJECT'S GENDER	<i>Male</i>	10	54	20	0	84
	%	11,9%	64,3%	23,8%	0	100%
	<i>Female</i>	4	39	14	1	58
	%	6,9%	67,2%	24,1%	1,7%	100%
	TOTAL	14	93	34	1	142
%	9,9%	65,5%	23,9%	0,7%	100%	

		PROMINENCE SCORE				
		<i>1</i> <i>Residual</i>	<i>2</i> <i>Level 1</i>	<i>3</i> <i>Level 2</i>	<i>4</i> <i>Level 3</i>	
SIBLING'S GENDER	<i>Male</i>	6	54	14	1	75
	%	8%	72%	18,7%	1,3%	100%
	<i>Female</i>	8	39	20	0	67
	%	11,9%	58,2%	29,9%	0	100%
	TOTAL	14	93	34	1	142
%	9,9%	65,5%	23,9%	0,7%	100%	

		PROMINENCE SCORE				
		<i>1</i> <i>Residual</i>	<i>2</i> <i>Level 1</i>	<i>3</i> <i>Level 2</i>	<i>4</i> <i>Level 3</i>	
SIBLING	<i>Older</i>	4	48	17	1	70
	%	5,7%	68,6%	24,3%	1,4%	100%
	<i>Younger</i>	10	45	17	0	72
	%	13,9%	62,5%	23,6%	0	100%
	TOTAL	14	93	34	1	142
%	9,9%	65,5%	23,9%	0,7%	100%	

		PROMINENCE SCORE				
		<i>1</i> <i>Residual</i>	<i>2</i> <i>Level 1</i>	<i>3</i> <i>Level 2</i>	<i>4</i> <i>Level 3</i>	
GENDER COMPOSITION	<i>Same-sex</i>	6	51	16	0	73
	%	8,2%	69,9%	21,9%	0	100%
	<i>Opposite-sex</i>	8	42	18	1	69
	%	11,6%	60,9%	26,1%	1,4%	100%
	TOTAL	14	93	34	0,7	142
%	9,9%	65,5%	23,9%	0,7%	100%	

		PROMINENCE SCORE				
		<i>1</i> <i>Residual</i>	<i>2</i> <i>Level 1</i>	<i>3</i> <i>Level 2</i>	<i>4</i> <i>Level 3</i>	
SIBLING	<i>Older brother</i>	2	29	20	1	42
	%	4,8%	69%	23,8%	2,4%	100%
	<i>Older sister</i>	2	19	7	0	28
	%	7,1%	67,9%	25%	0	100%
	<i>Younger brother</i>	4	25	4	0	33
	%	12,1%	75,8%	12,1%	0	100%
	<i>Younger sister</i>	6	20	13	0	39
	%	15,4%	51,3%	33,3%	0	100%
	TOTAL	14	93	34	0	142
%	9,9%	65,5%	23,9%	0,7%	100%	

		PROMINENCE SCORE				
		<i>1</i> <i>Residual</i>	<i>2</i> <i>Level 1</i>	<i>3</i> <i>Level 2</i>	<i>4</i> <i>Level 3</i>	
<i>Males with Older brother</i>		1	16	6	0	23
%		4,3%	69,6%	26,1%	0	100%
<i>Females with Older brother</i>		1	13	4	1	19
%		5,3%	68,4%	21,1%	5,3	100%
<i>Males with Older sister</i>		2	11	5	0	18
%		11,1%	61,1%	27,8%	0	100%
<i>Females with Older sister</i>		0	8	2	0	10
%		0	80%	20%	0	100%
<i>Males with Younger brother</i>		3	17	2	0	22
%		13,6%	77,3%	9,1%	0	100%
<i>Females with Younger brother</i>		1	8	2	0	11
%		9,1%	72,7%	18,2%	0	100%
<i>Males with Younger sister</i>		4	10	7	0	21
%		19%	47,6%	33,3%	0	100%
<i>Females with Younger sister</i>		2	10	6	0	18
%		11,1%	55,6%	33,3%	0	100%
TOTAL		14	93	34	1	142
%		9,9%	65,5%	23,9%	0,7%	100%

		PROMINENCE		
		<i>Prominent (Level 2 & 3)</i>	<i>Not prominent (Residual & Level 1)</i>	
SUBJECT'S GENDER	<i>Male</i>	20	64	84
	%	23,8%	76,2%	100%
	<i>Female</i>	15	43	58
	%	25,9%	74,1%	100%
	TOTAL	35	107	142
	%	24,6%	75,4%	100%

		PROMINENCE		
		<i>Prominent (Level 2 & 3)</i>	<i>Not prominent (Residual & Level 1)</i>	
SIBLING'S GENDER	<i>Male</i>	15	60	75
	%	20%	80%	100%
	<i>Female</i>	20	47	67
	%	29,9%	70,1%	100%
	TOTAL	35	107	142
	%	24,6%	75,4%	100%

		PROMINENCE		
		<i>Prominent (Level 2 & 3)</i>	<i>Not prominent (Residual & Level 1)</i>	
SIBLING	<i>Older</i>	18	52	70
	%	25,7%	74,3%	100%
	<i>Younger</i>	17	55	72
	%	23,6%	76,4%	100%
	TOTAL	35	107	142
	%	24,6%	75,4%	100%

		PROMINENCE		
		<i>Prominent (Level 2 & 3)</i>	<i>Not prominent (Residual & Level 1)</i>	
SIBLING	<i>Same-sex</i>	16	57	73
	%	21,9%	78,1%	100%
	<i>Opposite-sex</i>	19	50	69
	%	27,5%	72,5%	100%
	TOTAL	35	107	142
	%	24,6%	75,4%	100%

		PROMINENCE		
		<i>Prominent (Level 2 & 3)</i>	<i>Not prominent (Residual & Level 1)</i>	
SIBLING	<i>Older brother</i>	11	31	42
	%	26,2%	73,8%	100%
	<i>Older sister</i>	7	21	28
	%	25%	75%	100%
	<i>Younger brother</i>	4	29	33
	%	12,1%	87,9%	100%
	<i>Younger sister</i>	13	26	39
	%	33,3%	66,7%	100%
	TOTAL	35	107	142
%	24,6%	75,4%	100%	

		PROMINENCE		
		<i>Prominent (Level 2 & 3)</i>	<i>Not prominent (Residual & Level 1)</i>	
<i>Males with Older brother</i>		6	17	23
%		26,1%	73,9%	100%
<i>Females with Older brother</i>		5	14	19
%		26,3%	73,7%	100%
<i>Males with Older sister</i>		5	13	18
%		27,8%	72,2%	100%
<i>Females with Older sister</i>		2	8	20
%		20%	80%	100%
<i>Males with Younger brother</i>		2	20	22
%		9,1%	90,9%	100%
<i>Females with Younger brother</i>		2	9	11
%		18,2%	81,8%	100%
<i>Males with Younger sister</i>		7	14	21
%		33,3%	66,7%	100%
<i>Females with Younger sister</i>		6	12	18
%		33,3%	66,7%	100%
TOTAL		35	107	142
%		24,6%	75,4%	100%

		FEATURE ELABORATION				
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	<i>Both</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
SUBJECT'S GENDER	<i>Male</i>	31	36	7	10	84
	%	36,9%	42,9%	8,3%	11,9%	100%
	<i>Female</i>	21	26	7	4	58
	%	36,2%	44,8%	12,1%	6,9%	100%
	TOTAL	52	62	14	14	142
	%	36,6%	43,7%	9,9%	9,9%	100%

		FEATURE ELABORATION				
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	<i>Both</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
SIBLING'S GENDER	<i>Male</i>	30	34	5	6	75
	%	40,9%	45,3%	6,7%	8%	100%
	<i>Female</i>	22	28	9	8	57
	%	32,8%	41,8%	13,4%	11,9%	100%
	TOTAL	52	62	14	14	142
	%	36,6%	43,7%	9,9%	9,9%	100%

		FEATURE ELABORATION				
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	<i>Both</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
SIBLING	<i>Older</i>	24	33	9	4	70
	%	34,3%	47,1%	12,9%	5,7%	100%
	<i>Younger</i>	28	29	5	10	72
	%	38,9%	40,3%	6,9%	13,9%	100%
	TOTAL	52	62	14	14	142
	%	36,6%	43,7%	9,9%	9,9%	100%

		FEATURE ELABORATION				
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	<i>Both</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
GENDER COMPOSITION	<i>Same-sex</i>	29	32	6	6	73
	%	39,7%	43,8%	8,2%	8,2%	100%
	<i>Opposite-sex</i>	23	30	8	8	69
	%	33,3%	43,5%	11,6%	11,6%	100%
	TOTAL	52	62	14	14	142
	%	36,6%	43,7%	9,9%	9,9%	100%

		FEATURE ELABORATION				
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	<i>Both</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
SIBLING	<i>Older brother</i>	16	19	5	2	42
	%	38,1%	45,2%	11,9%	4,8%	100%
	<i>Older sister</i>	8	14	2	4	28
	%	28,6%	50%	14,3%	7,1%	100%
	<i>Younger brother</i>	14	15	0	4	33
	%	42,4%	45,5%	0	12,1%	100%
	<i>Younger sister</i>	14	14	5	6	
	%	35,9%	35,9%	12,8%	15,4%	100%
TOTAL		52	62	14	14	142
%		36,6%	43,7%	9,9%	9,9%	100%

		FEATURE ELABORATION				
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	<i>Both</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
<i>Males with Older brother</i>		8	12	2	1	23
%		34,8%	52,2%	8,7%	4,3%	100%
<i>Females with Older brother</i>		8	7	3	1	19
%		42,1%	36,8%	15,8%	5,3%	100%
<i>Males with Older sister</i>		5	7	4	2	18
%		27,8%	38,9%	22,2%	11,1%	100%
<i>Females with Older sister</i>		3	7	0	0	10
%		30%	70%	0	0	100%
<i>Males with Younger brother</i>		11	8	0	3	22
%		50%	36,4%	0	13,6%	100%
<i>Females with Younger brother</i>		3	7	0	1	11
%		27,3%	63,6%	0	9,1%	100%
<i>Males with Younger sister</i>		7	9	1	4	21
%		33,3%	42,9%	4,8%	19%	100%
<i>Females with Younger sister</i>		7	5	4	2	18
%		38,9%	27,8%	22,2%	11,1%	100%
TOTAL		52	62	14	14	142
%		36,6%	43,7%	9,9%	9,9%	100%

		TARGET ELABORATION			
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	Residual	
SUBJECT'S GENDER	<i>Male</i>	48	26	10	84
	%	57,1%	31%	11,9%	100%
	<i>Female</i>	41	13	4	58
	%	70,7%	22,4%	6,9%	100%
	TOTAL	89	39	14	142
	%	62,7%	27,5%	9,9%	100%

		TARGET ELABORATION			
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	Residual	
SIBLING'S GENDER	<i>Male</i>	48	21	6	75
	%	64%	18%	8%	100%
	<i>Female</i>	41	18	8	67
	%	61,2%	26,9%	11,9%	100%
	TOTAL	89	39	14	142
	%	62,7%	27,5%	9,9%	100%

		TARGET ELABORATION			
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	Residual	
SIBLING	<i>Older</i>	44	22	4	70
	%	62,9%	31,4%	5,7%	100%
	<i>Younger</i>	45	17	10	72
	%	62,5%	23,6%	13,9%	100%
	TOTAL	89	39	14	142
	%	62,7%	27,5%	9,9%	100%

		TARGET ELABORATION			
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	Residual	
SIBLING	<i>Same-sex</i>	51	16	6	73
	%	69,9%	21,9%	8,2%	100%
	<i>Opposite-sex</i>	38	23	8	69
	%	55,1%	33,3%	11,6%	100%
	TOTAL	89	39	14	142
	%	62,7%	27,5%	9,9%	100%

		TARGET ELABORATION			
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
SIBLING	<i>Older brother</i>	28	12	2	42
	%	66,7%	28,6%	4,8%	100%
	<i>Older sister</i>	16	10	2	28
	%	57,1%	35,7%	7,1%	100%
	<i>Younger brother</i>	20	9	4	33
	%	60,6%	27,3%	12,1%	100%
	<i>Younger sister</i>	25	8	6	39
	%	64,1%	20,5%	15,4%	100%
	TOTAL	89	39	14	142
%	62,7%	27,5%	9,9%	100%	

		TARGET ELABORATION			
		<i>Elaborated</i>	<i>Unelaborated</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
<i>Males with Older brother</i>		16	6	1	23
%		69,6%	26,1%	4,3%	100%
<i>Females with Older brother</i>		12	6	1	
%		63,2%	31,6%	5,3%	100%
<i>Males with Older sister</i>		7	9	2	18
%		38,9%	50%	11,1%	100%
<i>Females with Older sister</i>		9	1	0	
%		90%	10%	0	100%
<i>Males with Younger brother</i>		13	6	3	22
%		59,1%	27,3%	13,6%	100%
<i>Females with Younger brother</i>		7	3	1	
%		63,6%	27,3%	9,1%	100%
<i>Males with Younger sister</i>		12	5	4	
%		57,1%	23,8%	19%	100%
<i>Females with Younger sister</i>		13	3	2	
%		72,2%	16,7%	11,1%	100%
TOTAL		89	39	14	142
%		62,7%	27,5%	9,9%	100%

		EVALUATIVE TONE					
		<i>Positive</i>	<i>Negative</i>	<i>Ambivalent</i>	<i>Uncertain</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
SUBJECT'S GENDER	<i>Male</i>	45	10	10	9	10	84
	%	53,6%	11,9%	11,9%	10,7%	11,9%	100%
	<i>Female</i>	40	7	6	1	4	58
	%	69%	12,1%	10,3%	1,7%	6,9%	100%
	TOTAL	85	17	16	10	14	142
	%	59,9%	12%	11,3%	7%	9,9%	100%

		EVALUATIVE TONE					
		<i>Positive</i>	<i>Negative</i>	<i>Ambivalent</i>	<i>Uncertain</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
SIBLING'S GENDER	<i>Male</i>	46	11	7	5	6	75
	%	61,3%	14,7%	9,3%	6,7%	8%	100%
	<i>Female</i>	39	6	9	5	8	67
	%	58,2%	9%	13,4%	7,5%	11,9%	100%
	TOTAL	85	17	16	10	14	142
	%	59,9%	12%	11,3%	7%	9,9%	100%

		EVALUATIVE TONE					
		<i>Positive</i>	<i>Negative</i>	<i>Ambivalent</i>	<i>Uncertain</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
SIBLING	<i>Same-sex</i>	48	8	7	4	6	73
	%	65,8%	11%	9,6%	5,5%	8,2%	100%
	<i>Opposite-sex</i>	37	9	9	6	8	69
	%	53,6%	13%	13%	8,7%	11,6%	100%
	TOTAL	85	17	16	10	14	142
	%	59,9%	12%	11,3%	7%	9,9%	100%

		EVALUATIVE TONE					
		<i>Positive</i>	<i>Negative</i>	<i>Ambivalent</i>	<i>Uncertain</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
SIBLING	<i>Older</i>	44	8	9	5	4	70
	%	62,9%	11,4%	12,9%	7,1%	5,7%	100%
	<i>Younger</i>	41	9	7	5	10	72
	%	56,9%	12,5%	9,7%	6,9%	13,9%	100%
	TOTAL	85	17	16	10	14	142
	%	59,9%	12%	11,3%	7%	9,9%	100%

		EVALUATIVE TONE					
		<i>Positive</i>	<i>Negative</i>	<i>Ambivalent</i>	<i>Uncertain</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
SIBLING	<i>Older brother</i>	26	6	5	3	2	42
	%	61,9%	14,3%	11,9%	7,1%	4,8%	100%
	<i>Older sister</i>	18	2	4	2	2	28
	%	64,3%	7,1%	14,3%	7,1%	7,1%	100%
	<i>Younger brother</i>	20	5	2	2	4	33
	%	60,6%	15,2%	6,1%	6,1%	12,1%	100%
	<i>Younger sister</i>	21	4	5	3	6	39
	%	53,8%	10,3%	12,8%	7,7%	15,4%	100%
	TOTAL	85	17	16	10	14	142
%	59,9%	12%	11,3%	7%	9,9%	100%	

		EVALUATIVE TONE					
		<i>Positive</i>	<i>Negative</i>	<i>Ambivalent</i>	<i>Uncertain</i>	<i>Residual</i>	
SIBLING	<i>Males with Older brother</i>	13	3	3	3	1	23
	%	56,5%	13%	13%	13%	4,3%	100%
	<i>Females with Older brother</i>	13	3	2	0	1	19
	%	68,4%	15,8%	10,5%	0	5,3%	100%
	<i>Males with Older sister</i>	9	2	3	2	2	18
	%	50%	11,1%	16,7%	11,1%	11,1%	100%
	<i>Females with Older sister</i>	9	0	1	0	0	10
	%	90%	0	10%	0	0	100%
	<i>Males with Younger brother</i>	14	3	1	1	3	22
	%	63,6%	13,6%	4,5%	4,5%	13,6%	100%
	<i>Females with Younger brother</i>	6	2	1	1	1	11
	%	54,5%	18,2%	9,1%	9,1%	9,1%	100%
	<i>Males with Younger sister</i>	9	2	3	3	4	21
	%	42,9%	9,5%	14,3%	14,3%	19%	100%
	<i>Females with Younger sister</i>	12	2	2	0	2	18
	%	66,7%	11,1%	11,1%	0	11,1%	100%
TOTAL	85	17	16	10	14	142	
%	59,9%	12%	11,3%	7%	9,9%	100%	

Appendix E - The frequencies and percentages of appearance of each target in the same class with the sibling for different age and gender compositions

	total		older		younger		same-sex		opposite-sex		older brother		younger		older sister		younger	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
Me at my worst	5	3,6	3	4,3	2	2,8	5	6,8	0	0,0	3	7,1	1	3,0	0	0,0	1	2,6
Me as usual	44	31,0	20	28,6	24	33,3	27	37,0	17	24,6	13	31,0	12	36,4	7	25,0	12	30,8
Me as ideal	55	38,7	26	37,1	29	40,3	30	41,1	25	36,2	15	35,7	14	42,4	11	39,3	15	38,5
Mother	43	30,3	22	31,4	21	29,2	24	32,9	19	27,5	15	35,7	9	27,3	7	25,0	12	30,8
Father	29	20,4	13	18,6	16	22,2	18	24,7	11	15,9	10	23,8	6	18,2	3	10,7	10	25,6
(Same-sex parent)	37	26,1	17	24,3	20	27,8	21	28,8	16	23,2	12	28,6	7	21,2	6	21,4	10	25,6
(Opposite-sex parent)	35	24,6	18	25,7	17	23,6	21	28,8	14	20,3	13	31,0	8	24,2	4	14,3	12	30,8
Grandmother	10	7,0	1	1,4	9	12,5	5	6,8	5	7,2	1	2,4	3	9,1	0	0,0	6	15,4
Grandfather	4	2,8	0	0,0	4	5,6	3	4,1	1	1,4	0	0,0	1	3,0	0	0,0	3	7,7
Female relative	15	10,6	5	7,1	10	13,9	10	13,7	5	7,2	3	7,1	4	12,1	2	7,1	6	15,4
Male relative	9	6,3	5	7,1	4	5,6	4	5,5	5	7,2	4	9,5	1	3,0	1	3,6	3	7,7
(Same-sex relative)	17	12,0	7	10,0	10	13,9	10	13,7	7	10,1	4	9,5	3	9,1	3	10,7	7	17,9
(Opposite-sex relative)	7	4,9	3	4,3	4	5,6	4	5,5	3	4,3	3	7,1	2	6,1	0	0,0	2	5,1
Teacher	13	9,2	2	2,9	11	15,3	5	6,8	8	11,6	1	2,4	6	18,2	1	3,6	5	12,8
Female cousin	6	4,2	2	2,9	4	5,6	1	1,4	5	7,2	1	2,4	2	6,1	1	3,6	2	5,1
Male cousin	8	5,6	4	5,7	4	5,6	4	5,5	4	5,8	1	2,4	3	9,1	3	10,7	1	2,6
(Same-sex cousin)	12	8,5	6	7,1	7	9,7	5	6,8	7	10,1	2	4,8	5	15,2	3	10,7	2	5,1
(Opposite-sex cousin)	2	1,4	1	1,4	1	1,4	0	0,0	2	2,9	0	0,0	0	0,0	1	3,6	1	2,6
Female friend	54	38,0	26	37,1	28	38,9	28	38,4	26	37,7	15	35,7	10	30,3	11	39,3	18	46,2
Male friend	57	40,1	27	38,6	30	41,7	33	45,2	24	34,8	16	38,1	14	42,4	11	39,3	16	41,0
(Same-sex friend)	71	50,0	34	48,6	37	51,4	40	54,8	31	44,9	22	52,4	15	45,5	12	42,9	22	56,4
(Opposite-sex friend)	40	28,2	19	27,1	21	29,2	21	28,8	19	27,5	9	21,4	9	27,3	10	35,7	12	30,8
Boy/girlfriend	6	4,2	1	1,4	5	6,9	5	6,8	1	1,4	0	0,0	1	3,0	1	3,6	4	10,3
Ex-boy/girlfriend	5	3,5	3	4,3	2	2,8	3	4,1	2	2,9	2	4,8	1	3,0	1	3,6	1	2,6
Enemy	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0
Single	28	19,7	17	24,3	11	15,3	12	16,4	16	23,2	10	23,8	7	21,2	7	25,0	4	10,3
Residual	14	9,9	4	5,7	10	13,9	6	8,2	8	11,6	2	4,8	4	12,1	2	7,1	6	15,4
Other	5	3,5	4	5,7	1	1,4	2	2,7	3	4,3	2	4,8	1	3,0	2	7,1	0	0,0

	subject: male 84		subject: female 58		sibling: male 75		sibling: female 67	
	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%	freq	%
Me at my worst	4	4,8	1	1,7	4	6,3	1	1,5
Me as usual	22	26,2	22	37,9	25	33,3	19	28,4
Me as ideal	28	33,3	27	46,6	29	38,7	26	38,8
Mother	19	22,6	24	41,4	24	32,0	19	28,4
Father	13	15,5	16	27,6	16	21,3	13	19,4
(Same-sex parent)	13	15,5	24	41,4	21	28,0	16	23,9
(Opposite-sex parent)	19	22,6	16	27,6	19	25,3	16	23,9
Grandmother	5	6,0	5	8,6	4	5,3	6	9,0
Grandfather	2	2,4	2	3,4	1	1,3	3	4,5
Female relative	4	4,8	11	19,0	7	9,3	8	11,9
Male relative	6	7,1	3	5,2	5	6,7	4	6,0
(Same-sex relative)	6	7,1	11	19,0	7	9,3	10	14,9
(Opposite-sex relative)	4	4,8	3	5,2	5	6,7	2	3,0
Teacher	3	3,6	10	17,2	7	9,3	6	9,0
Female cousin	2	2,4	4	6,9	3	4,0	3	4,5
Male cousin	8	9,5	0	0,0	4	5,3	4	6,0
(Same-sex cousin)	8	9,5	4	6,9	7	9,3	5	7,5
(Opposite-sex cousin)	2	2,4	0	0,0	0	0,0	2	3,0
Female friend	19	22,6	35	60,3	25	33,3	29	43,3
Male friend	36	42,9	21	36,2	30	40,0	27	40,3
(Same-sex friend)	36	42,9	35	60,3	37	49,3	34	50,7
(Opposite-sex friend)	19	22,6	21	36,2	18	24,0	22	32,8
Boy/girlfriend	2	2,4	4	6,9	1	1,3	5	7,5
Ex-boy/girlfriend	3	3,6	2	3,4	3	4,0	2	3,0
Enemy	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0	0	0,0
Single	21	25,0	7	12,1	17	22,7	11	16,4
Residual	10	11,9	4	6,9	6	8,0	8	11,9
Other	2	2,4	3	5,2	3	4,0	2	3,0