



**THE MEDIATING ROLE OF SELFOBJECT NEEDS AND
PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS ON THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN ATTACHMENT STYLES AND
CODEPENDENCY**

PELİN ALPSOY

Thesis for the Master's Program in Clinical Psychology

Graduate School
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PELİN ALPSOY

THESIS ADVISOR: PROF. DR. FALİH KÖKSAL

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ETHICAL DECLARATION

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis and that I have conducted my work in accordance with academic rules and ethical behaviour at every stage from the planning of the thesis to its defence. I confirm that I have cited all ideas, information and findings that are not specific to my study, as required by the code of ethical behaviour, and that all statements not cited are my own.



Name, Surname:

Date:

Signature:

ABSTRACT

THE MEDIATING ROLE OF SELFOBJECT NEEDS AND PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTACHMENT STYLES AND CODEPENDENCY

Alpsoy, Pelin

Master's Program in Clinical Psychology

Advisor: Prof. Dr. Falih Köksal

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The aim of this research is to investigate the relationship between attachment styles, codependency, through the mediation of selfobject needs and psychological need satisfaction and dissatisfaction. For this purpose, data were collected from 219 participants ages between 18-67. Three-Dimensional Attachment Style Scale, Spann-Fischer Codependency Scale, Selfobject Needs Inventory and Balanced Measure of Psychological Needs were used to gather data. Results indicated that anxious attachment is highly correlated with codependency. A positive correlation was found between attachment secure and satisfaction of psychological needs; also, in between avoidant attachment and avoidance of selfobject needs. Then, dissatisfaction of psychological needs and codependency found highly correlated. Furthermore,

mediation analyses revealed that hunger for selfobject needs mediated the relationship between attachment anxiety and codependency. Satisfaction and dissatisfaction of autonomy and competence needs mediated the relationship between attachment anxiety and codependency. All findings were discussed according to the literature framework.

Keywords: codependency, attachment, selfobject needs, psychological needs.



ÖZET

KENDİLİK NESNESİ İHTİYAÇLARININ VE PSİKOLOJİK İHTİYAÇLARIN, BAĞLANMA STİLLERİ VE EŞBAĞIMLILIK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİDE ARACI ROLÜ

Alpsoy, Pelin

Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı

Tez Danışmanı: Prof. Dr. Falih Köksal

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Bu araştırmanın amacı, bağlanma stilleri, eşbağımlılık, kendiliknesnesi ihtiyaçları aracılığı ile psikolojik ihtiyaç doyumu ve doyumsuzluğu arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Bu amaçla yaşları 18-67 arasında değişen 219 katılımcıdan veri toplanmıştır. Verilerin toplanmasında Üç Boyutlu Bağlanma Tarzı Ölçeği, Spann-Fischer Eşbağımlılık Ölçeği, Kendiliknesnesi İhtiyaçları Envanteri ve Psikolojik İhtiyaç Doyumunda Denge Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Sonuçlar, endişeli bağlanmanın, eşbağımlılık ile yüksek oranda ilişkili olduğunu göstermiştir. Güvenli bağlanma ile psikolojik ihtiyaçların tatmini arasında pozitif bir ilişki bulundu; ayrıca kaçınan bağlanma ve kendiliknesnesi ihtiyaçlarından kaçınma ile de. Daha sonra, psikolojik ihtiyaçların tatminsizliği ve eşbağımlılık yüksek oranda ilişkili bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, arabuluculuk analizleri, kendiliknesnesi ihtiyaçlarına yönelik açlığın, bağlanma kaygısı ile karşılıklı bağımlılık arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık ettiğini ortaya koydu. Aynı zamanda, özerklik ve yeterlilik ihtiyaçlarının tatmini ve tatminsizliği, bağlanma

kaygısı ile karşılıklı bağımlılık arasındaki ilişkiye aracılık etmiştir. Tüm bulgular literatür çerçevesine göre tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: eşbağımlılık, bağlanma stilleri, kendiliknesnesi ihtiyaçları, psikolojik ihtiyaçlar.



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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Our relationship with others begins from the moment we were born, and we continue to relate to others throughout our lives. The quality of this first relationship, its satisfaction or dissatisfaction, and whether the baby's needs are met or not are the main factors in the formation of his self. Bowlby called it attachment with the primary caregiver. Attachment style we have affects how we relate to others, the characteristics of the partner we choose in our life, and the way the relationship is lived. Also, it influences how we perceive our life, and ourselves. (Bowlby, 1982). At the same time, whether the needs that are met or unmet in the relationship with the mother, who is the first object, determine what the person seeks and tries to satisfy throughout his life. On the other hand, codependency is a behavior pattern that poses a major obstacle to individuals' capacity to create and sustain functional relationships, as a pattern of dependency that includes compelling behaviors against approval and acceptance from others in search of trust, self-worth, and identity in mutual relationships. At the same time, as a pattern of dependency that includes people's compulsive behaviors towards approval and acceptance from others, it poses a great obstacle for individuals to establish and maintain functional relationships (Beattie, 1992). There are studies among some concepts, but not all of them and they are seen as related to each other, so no research was found on the relationship between attachment, codependency, selfobject needs and psychological needs. We wanted to test if selfobject needs mediated the relationship between attachment and codependency. In this study, we also wanted to see if satisfaction or dissatisfaction of psychological needs mediated the relationship between attachment and codependency. In the following section, attachment, codependency, selfobject needs and psychological needs will be discussed in detail respectively.

1.1. Attachment Theory

1.1.1. Roots of Attachment Theory

Attachment theory was pioneered by psychologist and psychiatrist John Bowlby. He discovered that mothers of neurotic children tend to replace hostility originally related to their own parents. They also tend to place excessive and unreasonable demands on them in an effort to fulfill unfulfilled affectionate needs. In his paper, "The Influence

of Early Environment in the Development of Neurosis and Neurotic Character" (1940), Bowlby expressed his worry about how families interact and how attachment and relatedness patterns are passed down through generations. He expressed increasing concern in later articles about the negative effects of separation and loss from the mother, and also lack of maternal care.

Bowlby's primary focus was on examining the character and vicissitudes of the strong bond that forms early in life between the developing child and his or her parents. However, until the middle 50s, psychoanalysts tended to hold only one perspective regarding the character and origin of affectionate bonds. The attachment of the child to his mother develops in a consequence of the child realizing that a maternal figure is required to eliminate instinctual tension, such as hunger. This point of view holds that the child must be fed and satisfied orally but fails to adequately account for the uniqueness of his bond with a singular maternal figure.

Bowlby interested by the possibility that ethological study could assist in resolving this philosophical quandary. Studies on imprinting, specifically filial imprinting, and its biological function in life and defense were relevant. (Imprinting is the process by which juvenile animals quickly learn to recognize and be attracted to other members of their own species or substitutes.)

The ethologist Robert Hinde started going to Bowlby's Tavistock Clinic meetings on a regular basis in 1954, and he brought Harlow's work with rhesus monkeys to Bowlby's notice. Harlow's research on juvenile monkeys who desired to interact with a mother substitute (a dummy) revealed that proximity-seeking behaviour was unrelated to the need for food. (Harlow and Harlow, 1966; Harlow and Zimmerman, 1959).

Bowlby asserts that children's propensity to form a strong, basic attachment with a mother figure is a remnant from a long history. Its main goal is to defend the species from predators in a habitat that has evolved via adaptation, and this inclination is generally independent of oral or feeding behavior.

The concept of attachment, which has its roots in ethological foundations, aroused the interest of researchers as it changed the previous viewpoint and states a new perspective. The lifelong effects of establishing a close and strong relationship with the mother, independent of feeding, on infants have attracted attention and created interest in researches.

1.1.2. Attachment

Attachment theory is a child psychoanalysis and studies have made significant contributions to developmental psychology, psychoanalysis, and psychotherapy practice. Bowlby emphasizes that the attachment relationship in humans has basic functions such as being a haven to return to while exploring the environment, meeting physical needs, and establishing a feeling of security about life (Holmes, 1997; Karen, 1998).

Child develops the fastest physically, mentally, and emotionally, between the ages of 0-2, which is defined as the infancy period. Indispensably, the baby will be dependent on the person who cares for him since his skills are not yet sufficiently developed. The term attachment indicates to the existence of an emotional and helpful relationship between infants and their caregivers (Ozturk, 2002). In this period, the first person that the new-born will apply to meet his social needs is the person who looks after him, which is usually the mother. The mother can also be referred to an "other" to whom the child's need for attachment is satisfied. Besides, others can be added to a hierarchy, that is, a baby can have a primary attachment to his mother, and then his father, siblings, and grandparents can come. If there is no mother, or if there is someone else with whom he has a more intimate relationship, that person may also be the primary attached person.

Bowlby (1988) suggested that failure to start or fragment the attachment to the mother means that it will have serious negative consequences. A child should take ongoing care from this most important attachment figure for first two years of his life approximately. He argued that if the attachment figure disrupts the critical two-year period, the child will suffer the unreversible long-term consequences of this maternal deprivation. Right up to the age of five, this danger exists. Bowlby also used the term maternal deprivation to express the failure to develop an attachment with the break-up or disappearance of the mother. The underlying assumption of the maternal deprivation hypothesis of Bowlby is that the continuous decaying of the bond between the infant and the primary caregiver may lead to long-term cognitive, social, and emotional challenges for infant.

1.1.3. Attachment in childhood

In 1952, John Bowlby and James Robertson made the observation that when children are taken from their mothers, they suffer greatly. Such children's fear persisted even

after they were fed by different caretakers. Three phases of distress were discovered: Protest: When the parent departs, the child sobs, yells, and behaves furiously. To prevent the separation, he attempts to cling to the parent. Despair: The boy's protest starts to stop, and he appears calmer, although they are still upset. The child rejects other people's attempts at consolation and frequently appears distant and uninterested in everything. Be without prejudice: The youngster will resume having ties with others if the separation persists. When the caregiver returns, he will reject them and act angrily. These results ran counter to the prevalent behavioral attachment hypothesis, which has been demonstrated to undervalue the relationship between the kid and his mother. According to the behavioral attachment hypothesis, a kid is bonded to their mother because she breastfeeds them. (Dollard and Miller, 1950).

The basis of attachment theory is based on cognitive representations and is expressed as 'internal working models' in attachment theory. The attachment relationship of the child with the primary caregiver leads to the evolvement of an internal working model (Bowlby, 1969). This internal working model is a cognitive framework that includes mental representations for understanding the world, oneself, and others. A person's interaction with others is guided by memories and expectations from their internal models, which affect their contact with others and help to evaluate them (Bretherton and Munholland, 2008). These start to shape the child's personality at the age of three, which has an impact on how they see the world and interact with others in the future (Schore, 2000).

Bowlby (1988) believed the primary caregiver acts as a model for future relationships through the internal working model. He states that in the attachment process between infant and caregiver, infants develop internal working models or mental representations of themselves and their environment. The baby understands himself and the world with these representations. The internal work model has three main characteristics: (1) a model that others are trustworthy, (2) a model that a self is valuable, and (3) an effective self-model when interacting with others. In later adult relationships, it supports and improves the person's sense of psychological stability.

The baby is likely to develop an internal working model that includes self-esteem and self-confidence if the attachment figure respected the baby's autonomous exploration of the surroundings as well as the baby's demands for comfort and safety. However, if the parent consistently rejects the infant's requests for affection and exploration, the baby may internalize feelings of worthlessness or inadequacy. Children anticipate the

attachment figure's preparation of potential conduct and their own reactions with the use of working models.

1.1.4. Attachment in adulthood

The mother image formed around the age of three creates a platform for us to understand not only ourselves but also all the "others" we encounter in the rest of our life. According to Mahler (1975), the child uses the lenses created by the image of the mother when looking at other people. Kohut (1977) explains a similar point with the metaphor of "reference point". According to him, people with congenital grandiosity adapt to the social environment in proportion to meeting the narcissistic needs of their parents. They use this satisfaction dimension as a reference point that determines their expectations from other people (Mahler, 1975; Kohut, 1977; Carver and Scheier, 1998).

Horney (1945), another theorist who interprets object relations, speaks of "fundamental anxiety". She says that every new-born has the fear of being abandoned by his parents, and the extent of this anxiety varies depending on the environment of security and peace in the family. The child's way of coping with this basic anxiety (rejecting attitude, grandiosity, or submissive attitude) determines the person's approach in his relations in the future (Horney, 1945; Ollendick et al., 2001). In additional studies, Hazan and Shaver found that people with ambivalent attachment styles went to extremes in their bilateral relationships, displaying excessive love and jealousy, being preoccupied with their thoughts constantly, and requiring spiritual affinities and oneness. On the other hand, subjects with a similar avoidant attachment style used work life as a tool to escape from the social environment (Hazan and Shaver, 1990; Carver and Scheier, 1998).

Many different theorists and studies say that relationships with primary caregivers determine future life in many ways. Different attachment types can have varying effects on an individual's attitude on life, their relationships, and professional careers.

1.1.5. Attachment Styles

Ainsworth (1978) made the attachment theory the subject of her research with her experimental studies. She brought it to the stage where it could be evaluated within the framework of a standard laboratory observation with the Strange Situation

Experiment. In this experiment that consist of 8 parts, the mother and baby enter a laboratory playroom attended by an unfamiliar woman.

In episodes 1-3, a stranger and a strange setting (a playroom) are both encountered by the young child while he or she is with a caregiver. (An unknown assistant). In the fourth episode, the baby is left with the stranger after the caretaker leaves the room. In the fifth episode, the caretaker returns, and the stranger departs. The baby is left alone in the room when the caregiver departs once more (episode 6). In episode 7, the stranger makes a comeback, and in episode 8, the caretaker finally returns too. The caregiver is urged to respond to the infant only when required and to avoid initiating any interactions with the child in order to prevent the consequences of varied parental behaviors during the process.

Expectedly, Ainsworth discovered that infants explored the room and toys more strongly in the presence of their mother than after a stranger had entered or when the mother was absent. At the same time, the infant is included in one of the two main attachment styles, depending on the reaction at the moment of separation and meeting with the mother: safe or unsafe. Insecure attachment is further divided into ambivalent and avoidant.

1.1.5.1. Secure Attachment

Children who are securely attached rely on those people and feel safe as a result. Even though they could be upset when the associated adult departs the setting, they are confident in the adult's return. When children are safely bonded, they turn to their attached adult for comfort. These children are aware that the person to whom they are attached is always there to provide support, safety, and care. Babies whose needs are consistently met have developed a secure attachment and do not show overly anxious reactions in their mother's absence and calmly wait for their mother's return. When their mother returns, they continue their behavior and do not show any negative reaction. They tend to perceive their mother as a safe base while exploring. In the presence of the mother, they explore the environment along with visual, verbal and physical interaction. As the mother leaves the environment, her discoveries decrease. They may react to cry or not cry, but when their mother or caregiver returns, they make a very positive welcome. If their sadness is high, they approach their caregivers to relax and continue to explore (Ainshworth, 1979; Ainshworth, 1989; Goldberg, 2004). Rate of incidence is 70% (Paktuna, 2012). Secure attachment is a concept that is

positively related to psychological well-being and emotional health, with mental health indicators such as self-confidence and resilience. Moreover, it shows positive relationships with understanding emotions, social problem-solving skills, conscience development, and positive self-concepts (Raikes and Thomspson, 2006). It was determined that primary caregivers of securely attached children play more games with children, respond rapidly to children's needs, and are more sensitive to their children than insecurely attached children (Hazan and Shaver, 1994).

1.1.5.2. Anxious/ambivalent Attachment

When children with anxious-ambivalent attachments are taken away from their mothers, they become incredibly restless and exhibit stress symptoms. These unfavorable sensations do not go away when the person they are linked to leaves the room, and they find it difficult to calm down. These children are quite wary of strangers. Children with this attachment pattern typically have an unstable primary caregiver who struggles to satisfy their needs. Even when children can occasionally reach the adult, there are instances when the caretaker is too preoccupied to watch after the child. Therefore, infants whose needs are not met in a timely manner and are inconsistently met develop an anxious/ambivalent attachment style. In the absence of their mother, they show extremely anxious reactions and display these reactions until the mother returns. When the mother returns, the baby does not relax and shows angry reactions toward the mother. They may not even want their favorite toys (Ainsthworth, 1979; Ainsthworth, 1989; Goldberg, 2004). On the one hand, they try to establish intimacy because she wants her mother to calm her down, but on the other hand, they do not want to establish complete intimacy. They may be friendlier to a stranger than to their mother (Bowlby, 1988). Anxious-ambivalently attached children may become overly dependent on others in later life. Additionally, anxiously attached children are hesitant to approach others as adults even when their sentiments are not shared. Due to the frigid and distant nature of the connection, these people frequently face separations in their love relationships (Hazan and Shaver, 1994).

1.1.5.3. Avoidant Attachment

Children that avoidant attachment has a propensity to disregard the caregiver. They do not express a preference when given the option to pick between a caregiver and a stranger. When the adult leaves the room and comes back, the avoidant attached

children pay the caregiver no attention. He does not require the person he is attached to, to give a recommendation or make contact with him. Instead of experiencing rejection, avoidant children seek tight relationships. Caretakers might neglect them (emotionally, physically, etc.), or they may have their needs disregarded. These needs, of course, go beyond basic bodily requirements to include emotional and social requirements including contact for forming connections and social interaction. Therefore, babies with an insensitive attitude toward their needs form an avoidant attachment style. They behave almost completely independently of their mothers while exploring their surroundings. These babies do not show any positive or negative reaction when their mother leaves the room. When his mother returns to the room, this unresponsiveness continues, and they do not seek any intimacy. They do not try to establish physical contact and do not feel the need to relax (Arslan, 2008). Although they want to be close, they may act as if they have no connection with their mother because they think they will be rejected. Since they think that they are resistant to the reactions of the caregiver and punish them, they avoid asking for help and support in their later ages. (Hazan and Shaver, 1994).

1.2. Codependency

1.2.1 Roots and Definitions of Codependency

The concept of codependency was first used in the 1940s to describe the behavior patterns of individuals living with or having relationships with people with addictions in the United States. Experts began to see situations where the spouses of alcoholics or drug addicts are also dependent on them. Based on observations, they argued that such behavior often contributes to their partner's addiction (Price, 1945; Mac Donald, 1956; Ingrid, 2014). It was observed that even when the person with alcohol addiction has recovered from the addiction, codependents still maintain their co-dependency in the same way. Researchers found other dynamics of codependency in relationships. The family environment of people, their relationship with parents, and whether there is someone living with addiction in their home were found the causes of codependency (Bacon et al., 2020). Over time, the definition of codependency also includes people who have relationships with chronic patients, parents of children with behavioral problems, people who are in relationships with irresponsible individuals, professionals, nurses, social workers, and other professionals in helping positions (Beattie, 1992).

Although there is no clear and precise definition of codependency, there are different definitions in the literature. Sioui and Tousignant (2009) defined codependency as a fear of trusting others and feeling powerless, distance from intimacy, excessive concern with the other, and distorted relationships. Morgan and James (1991), on the other hand, described it as a state of excessive focus on the person who needs others for alcohol use or other reasons, with a sense of responsibility of other family members. Schaef 1986 and Gomberg, 1989, defined it as an unhealthy attachment style in which one member of the family abuses the others, fed by the anxiety of losing value in society. In their study, Fischer, Spann, and Crawford (1991) outlined codependency as a combination of behaviors that lead to difficult circumstances in interpersonal relationships, such as excessive interfering with others and restraints on expressing one's emotions. According to Laign (1989), codependency is a set of compulsive behaviors that are driven by a need for another person's approval and intended to provide a sense of security, identity, and self-worth.

According to Friel and Friel (1988), the severity, duration, and overall number of symptoms associated with codependency vary along a continuum. An individual does not only rely on a relationship for a sense of self-worth when they are at the low end of the continuum (Clark and Stoffel, 1992). He or she makes reasonable goals, exudes confidence, and solicits assistance when required. On the other end of the spectrum, a person's sense of self-worth is dependent on the acceptance of others. He or she frequently sets unreasonable expectations, speaks poorly of oneself, is unable to judge one's own abilities, and is unable to ask for assistance when required (Clark and Stoffel, 1992).

1.2.2. Personality Traits of Codependent Individuals

An essential characteristic of codependent people is that they keep placing their self-worth in their capacity to command and shape other people's actions and emotions. (Cermak, 1991). A codependent may constantly meet the wants of their significant other in an effort to regulate their feelings. They think that person will be required to provide the codependent with the love they desire. However, rather of being rewarded by affection, codependent actions are frequently ignored or resented. This in turn causes emotions of inadequacy, a sense of having acted incorrectly, and a sense of needing to do more. Codependents employ a variety of defense mechanisms, including denial, rationalization, and projection, to deal with such distressing circumstances

(Cermak, 1991). People lose their ability to perceive their genuine emotions as these defenses are used more frequently. As a result, they lose the ability to recognize and meet their own needs (Clark and Stoffel, 1992; Wilson-Schaef, 1986).

Codependents typically feel low self-respect and self-acceptance. They feel as they have exceptionally small control over their interpersonal connections and their intuitions are guided by others or by outside impacts. They are exceptionally self-conscious, both publicly and privately. They claim to be conscious of and sensitive to their own concealed internal states (such as emotions, values, and beliefs), as well as the thoughts and responses of others in social circumstances. Despite having a great desire to leave a good impression, many are unsure that they can (Schlenker and Leary, 1982; Schlenker and Weigold, 1990). A person who exhibits high levels of social anxiety, self-consciousness, low self-esteem, poor interpersonal control, and poor impression management is one who spends a lot of time reflecting on their own limits, flaws, and failings.

Codependents are typically described as giving their all to their spouse and gratifying all his needs. They frequently mask their genuine feelings, which makes it difficult for them to comprehend and meet their own needs (Cermak, 1991; Clark and Stoffel, 1992; Friel and Friel, 1987; Wilson-Schaef, 1986). Codependents tend to have strong desires for approbation but also a lot of self-doubts and a sense of having poor interpersonal control. They could become somewhat reluctant to speak well of themselves as a result. These people typically struggle with poor self-esteem and are constantly reminded by a persistent inner voice that "If you are needed by other people, you won't ever be abandoned." It has been observed that those who struggle with codependency worry about being abandoned and find it intolerable (Bulwer, 2006).

1.2.3. Causes of Codependency

When looking at the causes of codependency, the first was having an alcoholic spouse or living with an alcoholic at home. In time it was seen that, although he/she does not have an alcoholic family member, growing up in a stressful family environment can cause a person to establish dysfunctional relationships and show self-sacrificing behaviors (Fuller and Warner, 2000). Children who grow up in families with authoritarian and oppressive attitudes have personality traits that are submissive to others, cowardly, and make great efforts to fulfill what is asked of them (Yıldız, 2016).

It is substantial that these features intersect with the personality traits that exist in codependency.

In the relationship between mother and baby, difficulties may arise in adjusting the correct distance due to the mother's suffocating protection of her child or the fact that there is very little presence decently in the child's life. The mother, who does not allow the perception of deficiency to be formed by seeing the needs in advance, inhibits the child's demand. Thus, the child cannot develop an individuality of his own. Having an identity whose autonomy is not sufficiently developed can be interpreted as a risk factor for the development of codependency (ChapauxMorelli and Couderc, 2018).

In the research conducted by Mukba (2013), it was found that there is a relationship between codependency and the presence of a family history of physical or mental disorders. According to the research findings, since this situation focuses more on the individual with physical or mental disorders at home, other children may be neglected, and these children may have a risk of having codependency in adulthood. According to Prest and Storm (1988), other family members' addictions and diseases have also been connected to codependency like spouses of obsessive drinkers and eaters.

In 1996, students were asked to complete the Spann-Fischer scale about their parents. They wondered about a connection between students' codependency and their parents' (perceived) codependency (reported by the student). In this respect, people who have codependent moms have a higher tendency toward codependency since codependency could be a taught pattern based on the observation of family relationships (Crothers and Warren, 1996).

The collectivist tendencies and gender roles that are characteristically dominant in Turkish society bring with them approaches to being individual and anti-individual, especially towards women. In cultures with sharp patriarchal boundaries, the belief that women should care for almost all social relations, especially spouses and children, strengthens women's attitudes that include codependency (Tuskan, 2012).

1.2.4. The difference with Dependent Personality Disorder

Codependency and dependent personality disorder share certain symptoms. The DSM-V includes dependent personality disorder as a recognized mental illness. A continuous desire, uncertainty, need on acceptance from others, trouble making decisions, hypersensitivity to criticism, and dread of loneliness are all traits of DPD. These people frequently prioritize the needs of others before their own (APA, 2013).

Being codependent in relationships may have a detrimental effect on a person's life even if codependency is not recognized as an official mental health diagnosis. A codependent person neglects their own needs in favor of being too concerned with satisfying those of another person, frequently to the extent that that person becomes the center of their universe. As a result, both parties experience a one-sided relationship that is unhealthy and dysfunctional. While dependent personality disorder depicts dependence on others generally, codependency is a dependence on a single individual. Codependent actions is not always displayed by people with dependent personality disorder, and not all people who display codependent behavior also fit the DPD criteria.

1.2.6. Relationship Between Attachment and Codependency

According to attachment research, characteristics of codependents are nervous, insecure, and avoidant of intimate relationships. Codependents appear to have a strong need for reciprocation and merger in a relationship but also dread closeness. No one, in their opinion, is as eager to make a commitment as they are. They are obsessed with the people they are in relationships. They claim to have a strong physical attraction to their relationships and to be fiercely possessive and jealous of their partner's attention. They lack confidence in their capacity to rely on another person for protection, they fear being abandoned, they have trouble trusting, they feel misunderstood, and they doubt their own deserving of love. It is not unexpected that codependents have particularly stressful relationships given their beliefs about themselves and important others. Codependents claimed to be more likely to feel emotional empathy for their spouses, but they were not inclined to show support or care. Codependents revealed more sentiments of rivalry in their partnerships.

Codependents exhibit less secure attachment patterns and lower levels of different satisfaction measures, as well as anxious and avoidant attachment styles, social anxiety, and public self-consciousness. These fit the definition of the codependent as having a strong yearning for a deep connection but significant doubts about their ability to attain one (Springer, Britt and Schlenker, 1998). Individuals who are securely attached in childhood feel valued in their adulthood, they find other people acceptable and lovable. An anxious attachment style is an individual who has low self-confidence, perceives others as supportive but does not benefit, and cannot reveal their own feelings and thoughts. Avoidant attachment style finds himself valuable and lovable,

but they tend to stay away from disappointment and close relationships (Kesebir et al, 2011).

1.3. Selfobject Needs

The concept of selfobject is the main psychic construct according to Heinz Kohut's theory of self-psychology. This theory focuses on how connections and interpersonal interactions contribute to the formation and maintenance of a healthy self. He described selfobject as others perceived as a part of the self. Selfobject needs arise early and continue throughout life. Kohut argues that selfobject requirements represent certain psychological and emotional needs that people have in their interactions with others and provide the development of a dependable and steady self-identity. In the following years of life, these selfobjects become other objects one keeps around to preserve self-esteem. The first objects that make up the personality of a person are called selfobjects (Kohut and Wolf, 1978).

1.3.1. Definition and Types of Selfobject Needs

The person who helped create the self at birth is conceptually the true selfobject. This suggests that there are three different ways to interact with a baby and a selfobject. These exchanges between the self and the selfobject called transferences. The need for mirroring refers to the first of these transferences. The baby expects a response with his expressions and behaviors towards the mother. Expects a laugh, a nod of approval, or a "well done" in return. While doing this, the infant also takes a pompous attitude to highlight how great his performance is. He or she wants to be recognized for their achievements. The infant and selfobject are interacting for the first time in this manner (Kohut and Wolf, 1978). The infant feels seen and confined as a result of the selfobject's appreciation for him or her. He or she feels like a beloved, revered, and respected being. This requirement and the development of this behavior signify the start of investment in the object. When the infant is not admired by the object, narcissism is present (Kohut and Wolf, 1978).

Kohut (1971; 1977; 1984) proposed three main selfobject needs that correlate to the three axes of self-development to explain the distinctive selfobject roles of important others—functions that he discovered he was fulfilling for his psychoanalytic clients. These specifications were mentioned as needs for mirroring, twinship, and idealization. The selfobject need for mirroring is a desire to be praised for one's traits

and accomplishments. Children require a caregiver who respects them, embraces their successes, and celebrates their growth, according to Kohut (1971). This selfobject need may be satisfied in two ways, pride in one's skills and accomplishments and receiving praise from others, both of which contribute to what Kohut described as a healthy sense of "grandiosity." The drive to create idealized images of significant others and have a sensation of merging with the resulting idealized selfobjects is known as the selfobject need for idealization. According to Kohut (1971), children need to have a picture of one or more idealized parental figures that they may like and identify with to the point where they feel that they share those people's extremely attractive traits. Children can develop more securely and internalize the capacity to uphold beliefs and create challenging but achievable objectives through this type of identification. The selfobject need for twinship is a desire to identify with others and participate in their interactions. Kohut (1984) asserts that children need a parent who they can relate to and who will help them feel like they are a member of a family or other group that is there for them and will look out for them. By addressing this need, it becomes simpler to adopt community standards and develop social skills, empathy, and a sense of belonging.

Kohut (1971; 1977; 1984) made an effort to describe the dynamic interaction between these selfobject needs and a unified self. The formation of an internal sense of stability, security, and self-cohesion is facilitated by caregivers' empathetic reactions to children's narcissistic demands. On the other hand, when this feeling of self-cohesion is strengthened, the need for selfobjects decreases as the fundamental mechanism for self-control is the coherent self of the person. That is, when selfobject needs are met, a person's sentiments of connectivity, idealization, and healthy grandiosity are increased, and they progressively develop into the ability to self-regulate. In particular, rather than needing approval from others, the individual may control their own objectives and sense of self-worth. Instead of needing to identify with a strong other, the person may create his or her own set of ideas and goals and keep a feeling of direction in life. As a result, the person's reliance on outside sources for self-regulation decreases, and they are able to interact with others without needing them to perform selfobject roles.

Kohut (1971) argued that pathological narcissism may arise when close relatives, or what he termed selfobjects, failed to sensitively meet the baby's needs for mirroring, idealization, and twinship. They may thus be in denial of them or in need of self-object

provisions, so self-development is not completed properly. A child with insufficient mirroring, incomplete, neglectful, or inconsistent caregivers becomes an adult with a hunger for mirroring and who needs others to increase their sense of specialness. The need for these objects has the potential to create serious anxiety and anger about one's own worth (Cuhadaroglu, 2001).

People who do not try to reject their selfobject needs and who have relatively weak and mature selfobject needs also appear to have trustworthy self-regulation techniques as well as reasonably consistent levels of self-esteem and wellbeing. On the other side, those who struggle to sustain healthy sentiments of grandiosity, idealization, and connectivity seem to be suffering from illnesses of the self and have strong, archaic selfobject needs or who actively try to ignore and reject these needs.

1.4. Psychological Needs

Whether physiological or psychological, a fundamental need is described as a state that prompts behavior in a person and contributes to health and well-being when addressed. If unmet, results in sickness and pathology (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Sheldon and Niemiec (2006) assert that there is disagreement among researchers who have studied the idea of psychological needs as to whether needs vary in importance depending on the individual or whether internal motives come from needs that drive people to seek out rewards in the environment.

Other possibilities include whether it is external requirements that compel people to behave, whether needs are genetically inherited or acquired throughout the course of an individual's growth, and if the quantity of wants is restricted or numerous. From this point forward, psychological needs will be taken into account in the context of different theoretical perspectives. According to Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory, a person's needs are varied, with the satisfaction of needs falling into a hierarchy of needs that include physiological needs, safety needs, love, and belonging needs, esteem and status needs, and the need for self-actualization. It is also emphasized that it is crucial to satisfy the underlying needs to meet the higher-order needs and achieve self-actualization (Maslow, 2013). William Glasser's perspective on needs is another theory. The framework of the Theory of Choice and Reality Approach in this technique addresses the five fundamental demands of survival, power, love, amusement, and freedom (Glasser, 1998). It is also assumed that these needs are present at birth and are unaffected by cultural factors. Self-determination theory is one of the most

acknowledged methods for addressing people's psychological needs within this framework.

1.4.1. Self-determination Theory

Self-determination theory is a psychological and motivational philosophy that stresses the significance of creating and altering internal resources in personality development and self-regulation with conventional scientific procedures. In this context, the theory focuses on analyzing how people naturally evolve, as well as the psychological requirements that serve as the foundation for self-motivation and personality integrity, as well as the circumstances that support these processes (Ryan and Deci, 2000). The theory investigates the nature of the individuals' favorable development patterns within this framework. It also looks at the causes and barriers to this development as well as its effects. The idea contends that people effort to participate in worthwhile activities as a development-oriented organization and that people fundamentally have the ability for self-development and self-assertion. To generate connections and relationships among social groupings and to create meaningful coherence (Ryan and Deci, 2000). The key topics that are extensively covered in self-determination theory are internal motivation, the need for fulfillment, and aims in life. Accordingly, self-determination theory mentions four different sorts of motives. The first of them is intrinsic motivation, which is defined as having an interest in something for oneself and experiencing pleasure and satisfaction from it. The second type of motivation, extrinsic, involves concentrating on achieving particular objectives to receive reinforcements and rewards as well as stay out of trouble. This type of motivation falls into two categories: self-motivation based on self-determination and self-motivation not based on self-determination. The first of them speaks about engaging in activity out of personal inclination. The second is the sensation of pressure that an individual feels to exert themselves or to be under pressure from outside forces to carry out any task.

Nonmotivation, which is defined as the absence of either internal or external motivation, is exhibited by people who think they have no control over their conduct. Individuals in this circumstance, which imitates learned helplessness, refrain from acting as a result of rewards from inside or outside of themselves (Kowal and Fortier, 1999). Therefore, it can be said that internal motivation is the foundation of self-determination and is connected to intrinsic motivation, which enables people to engage

in any activity since doing so would satisfy their interests rather than their desire to be met externally. It's even claimed that rewards or reinforcements received from outside sources have a negative effect on one's own drive.

According to the self-determination theory, needs are internal psychological nutrients required for psychological growth, integration, and well-being. They are viewed from a more psychological perspective. It is thought that meeting people's psychological needs raises well-being while avoiding needs reduces it, similar to how a plant grows and develops when watered and withers when care is neglected (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Accordingly, it is claimed in the context of several research that persons have three distinct psychological needs, all of which are innate, essential, and universal. Individuals must have their fundamental needs of competence, autonomy, and relatedness addressed in order to maintain their sense of completeness, wellbeing, and "education" over the course of their lives. The three basic psychological needs have been validated in both Eastern and Western cultures. (Deci et al., 2001).

The need for autonomy from basic psychological needs; is the requirement for an individual to behave in accordance with his or her own sentiments and wishes, to participate in actions that are compatible with those choices, and to freely regulate those behaviors (Andersen, Chen, and Carter, 2000). By meeting their desire for autonomy, people who take responsibility for their own choices, accept the results of their choices, and feel in control of their own behavior contribute to their subjective well-being (Andersen et al., 2000). Relatedness is described as the desire to engage in meaningful relationships with others, to feel connected to the social environment, to belong, and to develop interpersonal ties (Reis et al., 2000; Sheldon and Hilpert, 2012). Competence is the requirement to have a good impact on the environment and to deal with it effectively and efficiently. It is the culmination of a person's education, interactions with their surroundings, and environmental adaption. While it is assumed that people with their competence needs met can deal with issues by relying on their own knowledge and skills in new situations, people with unmet competence needs use their knowledge and skills ineffectively and are unable to deal with the situation (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci and Ryan, 2000). Relatedness involves the sensation of closeness and connecting with others. People need to engage in shared activities, feel as though they have a meaningful role in the lives of others, be understood and valued by others, and have friends with whom they can connect in order to satiate their need for

relatedness. This helps people avoid being isolated from others due to introverted and insecure sentiments (Reis et al., 2000; Ryan and Deci, 2008).

It is stated that individuals' especially autonomy and competence need satisfaction increases intrinsic motivation and this is closely related to individuals' well-being. Accordingly, it is expected that the person who is given autonomy support and has a high sense of efficacy will have a strong internal motivation, which will help the person to be more in charge of his life. It is declared that the need for relatedness is also an important resource in maintaining intrinsic motivation, but this need does not influence intrinsic motivation as much as autonomy and competence (Deci and Ryan, 2000).

Meeting the three fundamental needs is crucial to self-determination theory. Accordingly, meeting one of the needs of individuals and neglecting or preventing the other will negatively affect their well-being. On the other hand, as in the attitudes of parents who want their children to give up their autonomy to meet their relational needs, the fact that meeting one need is conditional on giving up another need creates a ground that may cause alienation or pathology (Ryan and Deci, 2000). Studying whether their basic needs are met has various implications for different groups. Accordingly, it will be useful for practitioners to know whether these needs are met or blocked, to understand the motivation that is the source of change, and to recognize the sources of participation, success, and well-being against alienation (Kowal and Fortier, 1999).

1.5. The relationship between codependency, attachment, selfobject needs and psychological needs

According to Kohut and Wolf (1978), a lack of narcissistic resources at the core of self-development may drive a person to look for those resources elsewhere. A strong, coherent self—the foundation of one's identity and character—can be formed when a newborn or young kid has enough favorable selfobject encounters during their development. According to Kohutian theory, a stable and cohesive relationship between a caregiver and a newborn result in a stable and cohesive structure of the self. Early interactions of poor quality, where empathic engagement is uncertain, result in ego structures with poor quality. Kohut saw narcissism as a stage in which there is no longer a distinction between the subject and the self, or as a "merger" with the features of the other. To develop a strong sense of self and learn how to calm themselves when they are anxious, the child must first blend with these internal objects. Early

connection deficiencies lead to a weak ego structure, which in turn defines weak or damaged interactions with others. Knowing about codependency leads one to believe that this fear may drive a person to engage in codependent conduct to feel stable, helpful, and worthy. The typical characteristic properties of codependent people and people who did not develop healthy narcissism or whose self-integrity could not be fully established had common parts.

Kohut's model of the development of the self and attachment theory have theoretical similarities (Banai et al., 2005; Marmarosh and Mann, 2014), and there is empirical evidence that selfobject needs and attachment orientations are related (Banai et al., 2005; Marmarosh and Mann, 2014; Lopez et al., 2013). Both theories stress that a child's capacity to develop a healthy sense of self and relationships with others depends on how responsive early caregivers are to their needs. The methods in which people handle their unfulfilled narcissistic demands might be similar to how anxious and avoidant attachment behaviors occur, reflecting various facets of a narcissistic personality such as grandiose and vulnerable. Also, hunger for mirroring and hunger for twinship were significantly related to low self-esteem and psychological well-being that mainly related to codependency (Banai et al., 2005).

Kohut (1971, 1977) stated that people who are disappointed in one of their early mirroring or idealization needs may over-invest in the other dimension in order to maintain their self-integrity, and in this way, they can engage in efforts to compensate for their narcissistic needs. That is, if individuals have been exposed to more challenging experiences in their early life (such as having a physically present but emotionally unresponsive mother or unexpected loss of a father), they may become dependent on these archaic selfobject responses and therefore constantly need the responses of others. This, in addition to laying the groundwork for codependency, can produce a personality formation in which basic psychological needs are not satisfied and hunger is observed from the perspective of self-determination. These again draws a profile that is diametrically opposed to the state of "well-being" felt when basic psychological needs are met. The desire for autonomy from one's fundamental psychological needs; the conviction that one's own actions are the result of conscious decision-making (Kowal and Fortier, 1999); or the conviction that one's actions are independent of outside control or coercion (Ingledeu, Markland and Sheppard, 2004). Relatedness is also known as the urge, to feel connected to and at home among other people (Ryan and Deci, 2000) or the perception that one has fulfilling and sustaining

social interactions (Ingledeu, Markland and Sheppard, 2004). According to Kowal and Fortier (1999), Ryan and Deci (2000), competence is the belief that one can deal with their environment appropriately and successfully. People may expect their partners to fulfill these needs in situations where they are not satisfied, or they unconsciously may fall into difficult patterns by engaging in unhealthy behaviors.

In summary, the risk factors for the onset and maintenance of codependency include the first relationship with the object, attachment types, parenting approaches, and family experiences (Lancer, 2016). In the light of these, the extent to which attachment styles and basic needs are interrelated was investigated. Although these needs come from different theoretical perspectives, they have shown a relationship with each other.

1.6. The Aim and Hypotheses of the Present Study

1.6.1. Aim of the Study

In light of the information summarised above, in the literature, a quite number of studies looked at how attachment styles affected the level of co-dependency of individuals. It is known that attachment styles are formed in early life with primary parents and effective in adult relationships. Relationship dependency or co-dependency is a pathological relationship dynamic in which one partner gives excessive priority to the other, makes too many sacrifices, isolates himself from his social life, and behaves only towards the partner, and the other partner remains in this receptive position. This type of relationship damages the codependent person first, and then another partner, and can be the basis for related psychological disorders. And because both partners are in the cycle, it is difficult to notice and insidious.

Psychological needs and self-object needs could be both related to codependency and attachment styles. Satisfaction or frustration of certain psychological needs can be effective in shaping attachment styles. According to this study, individuals with greater satisfaction of relatedness, autonomy, and competence needs appear to have more secure attachments (La Guardia, et al., 2000). According to Hartmann (2009), for the development of healthy narcissism, secure attachment experiences are necessary. Moreover, this is also valid for reliable and appropriate self-object experiences in early childhood, which assist the development of a secure attachment pattern in sensitive caregivers. Likewise, according to Pistole (1995), narcissistic vulnerability is strongly correlated with insecure attachment that results in the avoidance of intimacy. The avoidance of selfobject needs is similar to the idea of avoidance and deactivation of

attachment needs as a defensive reaction to traumatic interactions with significant others (Banai, 2005). Thus, these concepts are related, but there is not much study on this relationship. At the same time, no study has been found in which the concept of codependency is included in this relationality. Codependency was not directly explored in terms of self-object needs, but when codependency-related general personality characteristics are considered, it is similar to the attributes where self-object needs are not addressed and personality integrity is not formed. Given that no research was found on the relationship between attachment, codependency, self-object needs, and psychological needs this study aims to fill such gap. To our knowledge, this is the first study to work on these four variables together.

1.6.2. Hypotheses of the Study

Correlation Hypotheses

A significant relationship is expected between codependency, attachment styles, selfobject needs and psychological needs.

Main Hypotheses

H1: Self-object needs are expected to mediate the relationship between anxious attachment and codependency.

H2: Psychological needs satisfaction is expected to mediate the relationship between anxious attachment and codependency.

H3: Psychological needs dissatisfaction is expected to mediate the relationship between anxious attachment and codependency.

CHAPTER 2: METHOD

2.1. Sample

A total of 219 people voluntarily participated in the study via Google Forms. There were no extreme cases that required to be removed, according to the normality test and outlier detection process. Therefore, the sample included in the analysis consisted of 219 individuals. 163 (74.4%) of these individuals were women, 54 (24.7%) of them were men and 2 (0.9%) of them were non-binary. Participants aged 18 to 67 were included and the mean age for total participants was 28.36. The mean age for women participants is 28.96 and for men participants is 26.56.

2.2. Instruments

In this study, a Demographic Information Form and four measurement tools were used. The Spann-Fischer Codependency Scale (see Appendix E), used to measure the codependency of individuals in relationships. Three-Dimensional Attachment Style Scale (see Appendix D), assessing the attachment style of participants that are avoidant, secure and anxious-ambivalent attachment styles. Selfobject Needs Inventory (see Appendix F), to measure the orientation of an individual toward selfobject needs. Balanced Measure of Psychological Needs (see Appendix G), assessing the satisfaction level of psychological needs of individuals.

2.2.1. Demographic Information Form

After receiving informed consent from participants, the following information was obtained in the Demographic Information Form (See Appendix C) that to collect the demographic information of the participants. These are gender (male, female, other, prefer not to say), age, education level (primary education, high school, bachelor's degree, master's degree, Ph.D.), profession, the city they live in, marital status (single, married, in a relationship, divorced) and whether there is a psychiatric diagnosis and drug use of participants.

2.2.2. The Spann-Fischer Codependency Scale (SFCDS)

The Spann-Fischer Codependency Scale was developed by Fischer et al. (1991) to measure the codependency level of individuals in their relationships. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of the scale was identified as .77. The scale was developed assuming

that the definitions made in the literature provide the characteristic features appropriately. These characteristic features are frequently found in the literature, such as over-focus on others (obsessive behaviors, excessive caring, need for approval), difficulty in expressing emotions (emotion suppression, lack of trust, and lack of communication), low self-esteem and a focus on a purpose in relationships with others (need for control, denial, and immutability) (Fischer, Spann and Crawford, 1991).

The scale includes 16 items (e.g., “I usually feel guilty when I do something nice for myself.”) with a six-point Likert type (1: I totally disagree, 6: I totally agree) and has one dimension. The lowest possible score is 16, and the highest score is 96. High scores indicate a high level of codependency. According to the average scores obtained from this scale, 52.6 points are considered as medium scores, 67.2 points as high scores, and 37.3 points as low scores. 2 items in the scale are reverse coded (i5 and i7). The Spann-Fischer Codependency scale adapted to Turkish version by Tanhan and Mukba (2014). Internal consistency coefficient calculated for the whole scale is $\alpha = .65$. The effect of each item on the total internal reliability coefficient, in other words, after each item was removed from the scale, the internal consistency coefficient calculated for the scale varied between .62 and .68. Thus, each item in the scale makes a positive contribution to the internal consistency coefficient of the scale (Tanhan and Mukba, 2014).

2.2.3. Three-Dimensional Attachment Style Scale

Erzen (2016) created the Three-Dimensional Attachment Style Scale to assess participants' attachment patterns with their caregivers. Attachment theory was introduced by Bowlby (1969) and later devised with observational field studies with infants (Ainsworth, 1989). Her experimental work explaining the concept of attachment within the framework of a model encouraged many researchers to deal with the subject and created a new and open field for research. After Ainsworth, the first model development work to emerge belongs to Hazan and Shaver (1987). A comprehensive study was conducted in the 14-82 age range. This study contributed to the field in terms of revealing that attachment styles are a lifelong process within the framework of the Ainsworth model (Hazan and Shaver, 1994). This scale aimed to develop an alternative measurement tool with validity and reliability analyses that could be used to measure attachment styles. As a result of the analysis, it was observed that the items were collected under three dimensions consistently, and when their

contents were examined, it was observed that the model consisted of items compatible with the structure that Ainsworth (1978) had determined experimentally.

The scale investigates three dimensions of attachment styles: avoidant, secure and anxious-ambivalent. The babies that develop trust are the ones who have a secure attachment pattern. They can become more competent and approach people with empathy if they learn to trust (Mallon, 2008). According to studies, the narratives that babies who have secure attachments create in their pretend play contain a clear, supportive message (Cassidy, 1988). Children with anxious and ambivalent attachment are known to not admire physical closeness (Bell and Ainsworth, 1972). According to studies, ambivalent and anxious children tend to protest when they are separated from the person they are attached to; these protests don't even result in reunion (Stayton and Ainsworth, 1973). Children who exhibit an avoidant attachment style complain when they are separated from the person to whom they are bonded. This defensive position of protest serves to both control the child's anger as well as maintain the children at a healthy distance from the parent (Ainsworth, 1979).

This scale consists of 18 items with five- point Likert type (1: I absolutely disagree, 5: I absolutely agree). 5 items from the scale for secure attachment (e.g., "I can understand the sadness of others."), 6 items for anxious-ambivalent attachment (e.g., "I worry that if I get too intimate with someone, there might be trouble.") and 7 items for avoidant attachment (e.g., "I don't think others are as valuable as I am."). The Cronbach Alpha internal consistency coefficient of the scale was determined as .80 for the avoidant attachment style, .69 for the secure attachment style and .71 for the anxious-ambivalent attachment style in the subscales. Since the secure attachment style sub-dimension of the scale measures positive and the other two sub-dimensions measure negative features, it is not possible to look at the total internal consistency coefficient of the scale.

2.2.4. Selfobject Needs Inventory (SONI)

Selfobject Needs Inventory was developed by Banai and colleagues (2005) that based on Heinz Kohut's (1971; 1977; 1984) theory of selfobject needs. According to Kohut (1984), during growth, the self evolves in connection to others (selfobjects) that are experienced as a part of the subject itself. He stated that optimal responses of selfobjects are needed to achieve a healthy self. The scale was generated to understand

how much people feel the need to approach or avoid their selfobject responses. The scale consists of 38 items with 7-point Likert type scale.

According to the factor analysis findings of the original form of the scale, it has a total of five subscales. The sub-dimensions of the need to approach the selfobject are the need to approach mirroring, the need to approach idealization, and the need to approach twinship. The sub-dimensions of the selfobject avoidance need are the need to avoid mirroring and the need to avoid idealization/twinship. The need to approach mirroring consists of 6 items (e.g. "I cannot do my job well enough when I get too little attention."), the need to approach idealization consists of 7 items (e.g., "I am attracted to successful people."), the need for twinship consists of 8 items (e.g. "I feel better when me and a loved one feel similar feelings towards others."). The need to avoid mirroring from 6 items (e.g. "When I do something, I don't need the approval of others."), the need to avoid idealization and twinship consists of 11 items (e.g. "It's hard for me to be proud of the groups I belong to." and "I'm tired of people who think like me and look a lot like me. The Cronbach alpha internal consistency coefficients of the subscales of the scale are between .79 and .91. (Banai et al., 2005).

The scale was adjusted for the Turkish version by Yurdesen and Gencoz (2018). When the factor structure of the scale is analyzed, it is seen that the approach to mirroring (to be noticed, valued, approved), idealization (to take as an example the people with whom we will form our ideals of life, to feel like a part of them) and twinship (wanting to be together with people who feel like us) are evaluated independently of each other in the original form of the scale. The needs for approach were combined under one dimension in the Turkish form of the scale. Other dimensions show parallelism with the original. Lastly, the Turkish scale was created with 3 dimensions: "approach toward mirroring, idealization/twinship", "avoidance from idealization/twinship" and "avoidance from mirroring". The Cronbach alpha coefficients of the factors were found to be .84, .79, and .65 respectively.

2.2.5. Balanced Measure of Psychological Needs Scale (BMPN)

Balanced Measure of Psychological Needs Scale was developed by Sheldon and Hilpert (2012). Theoretically based on the self-determination theory. According to the self-determination theory, numerous elements influence people's motivation, social interaction, and personal development. In this context, the self-determination approach concurrently examines the nature of positive development tendencies of individuals,

and the factors that contribute to and hinder this development tendency. Based on this theory, three basic psychological needs have been identified. The need for autonomy from the basic psychological needs; feeling that the individual is the source of his own behavior and making a choice (Kowal and Fortier, 1999) or the individual's feeling that he/she determines his/her behavior without being controlled or forced (Ingledeu, Markland and Sheppard, 2004); relationship; the desire to be connected and to feel like a member of a community (Ryan and Deci, 2000) or the individual's feeling of having satisfying and supportive social relationships (Ingledeu, Markland and Sheppard, 2004); Competence refers to individuals' perceptions of coping with the surroundings suitably and successfully (Ingledeu, Markland and Sheppard, 2004; Kowal and Fortier, 1999; Ryan and Deci, 2000). According to several additional research, psychological health and well-being are correlated with fundamental psychological needs (Buunk and Nauta, 2000; Cihangir-Cankaya, 2005; Deci et al., 2001; La Guardia et al., 2000; Reis et al., 2000; Ryan and Deci, 2000) and that not meeting these needs increases the risk of pathology and causes more disturbance (Ryan and Deci 2000; Sheldon and Bettencourt, 2002).

BMPN is a 5-point Likert-type measurement tool consisting of 18 items that measure individuals' psychological needs in terms of satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The scale may be used for several models. In the scale's initial version, many models were put to the test, and the researchers were shown various possibilities. In this situation, 9 items on the scale receive positive results, whereas 9 things receive negative scores. The scale may be utilized as a six-dimensional framework that assesses these demands at the level of satisfaction and frustration as well as a three-dimensional structure that measures the satisfaction of relationship, competence, and autonomy. In this context, three positive and three negative items measure relationship satisfaction; three positive and three negative items measure competence satisfaction; three positive and three negative items measure autonomy satisfaction. Researchers can reverse-code the negative items and obtain a three-dimensional structure consisting of relationality, autonomy, and competence. Also, they can calculate the positive items as satisfaction and the negative items as dissatisfaction. It obtains a six-factor structure consisting of the dimensions of satisfaction and dissatisfaction of autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Accordingly, 9 items of the scale measure need satisfaction and 9 items measure need dissatisfaction.

In the original study of the scale, the 3-dimensional relatedness, competence, and autonomy models' internal consistency values have been identified to be .78, .79, and .78, respectively. Reliability values for the 6-dimensional relatedness satisfaction and dissatisfaction, competence satisfaction and dissatisfaction, autonomy satisfaction and dissatisfaction model were obtained as .71, .85, .71, .70, .69 and .70, respectively. The scale adapted to Turkish version by Kardas, Yalcin (2018). The number of items, sub-dimensions and scoring method of the scale are the same as the original. The internal consistency values for the 3-dimensional relatedness, competence and autonomy model were found to be .70, .71 and .74, respectively. For the 6-dimensional relatedness satisfaction and dissatisfaction, competence satisfaction and dissatisfaction, autonomy satisfaction and dissatisfaction model were obtained as .73, .68, .70, .63, .65 and .72, respectively.

2.3. Procedure

Data collection has started after receiving approval from the ethics committee of the Izmir University of Economics (see Appendix A). Data is gathered online using Google Forms. The link was reached to participants through instant messaging and through online social media channels (WhatsApp, Facebook, and Instagram). In the first page, each participant was given instructions about the study. Then, each participant was asked for informed consent to attend in the study. The information gave about they could leave the study any time they wanted, and participation was voluntary. The names of the participants were not collected, they just signed in with their e-mails. As a result, the confidentiality of the subjects was assured. The test took approximately twenty minutes.

2.4. Statistical Analysis

The data from the study were analyzed using PROCESS 3.5 by Andrew Hayes (Hayes, 2013) and the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 for Windows. First, the data was reviewed to see if any values were missing. The missing element of a value was not found. Then the variables were checked for normality. The skewness and kurtosis scores of the data distribution were evaluated. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) state that the values of skewness and kurtosis for a normal distribution should fall between +1.50 and -1.50. The skewness and kurtosis values of all scales fell within this range.

Analyses started with descriptive statistics. Then the association between subscales of scales was investigated using Pearson Correlation Analysis. In order to determine if selfobject needs and psychological needs have a mediating role in the link between attachment and codependency, a mediation analysis was carried out using PROCESS version 3.5 (Hayes, 2013).



CHAPTER 3: RESULTS

Under this section, first, the frequency distribution of participants will be given, and descriptive statistics will follow. Later, the effect of gender and marital status on codependency will be discussed. Then correlation analyses will be given. Lastly, main mediation analyses will be reported.

3.1. Descriptive Features of Samples

Table 1 displays the frequency and percentage values for the demographic information of the participants.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of the Participants.

Variable	Levels	Frequency	%
Gender	Women	163	74.4
	Men	54	24.07
	Nonbinary	2	0.9
Education Level	Elementary School	9	4.1
	High School	70	32
	University	111	50.7
	Graduated	29	13.2
Marital Status	Single	108	49.3
	Married	51	23.3
	Divorced	4	1.8
	In relationship	56	25.6

3.2. Correlation Analysis of Study Variables

Pearson Correlation analysis conducted for testing hypothesis about Attachment Style Scale, Spann-Fischer Codependency Scale, Selfobject Needs Inventory and Balanced Measure of Psychological Needs Scale is shewed in the Table 2.

According to the results presented in Table 2, there is a statistically significant correlation between secure attachment and all sub-scales of psychological need satisfaction and frustration. Satisfaction of relatedness need has a significant correlation with attachment secure at a positive and moderate level, $r = .44, p = .00$. As the relatedness need increases, attachment secure increases as well. A positive and moderate correlation has also been found between the satisfaction of competence need and secure attachment, $r = .36, p = .00$, showing that the more satisfaction of competence the more secure attachment. Also, between secure attachment and satisfaction of autonomy, there is a positive correlation $r = .36, p = .00$. For dissatisfaction of these needs, all of them negatively correlated with secure attachment style. Dissatisfaction of relatedness, $r = -.34, p = .00$; competence, $r = -.31, p = .00$ and autonomy, $r = -.18, p = .01$. This means more the secure attachment the less the satisfaction of needs.

On the other hand, for the correlation between anxious attachment and both satisfaction and dissatisfaction of needs are significant. A negative correlation has been found between the satisfaction of competence need and anxious attachment, $r = -.41, p = .000$, showing that the more anxious attachment the less satisfaction of relatedness. Also, for satisfaction of competence, $r = -.26, p = .000$ and for autonomy $r = -.271, p = .000$ so the more the anxious attachment, the less satisfaction of these needs. Further, a positive moderate correlation has also been found between the dissatisfaction of relatedness need and anxious attachment, $r = .41, p = .000$. Anxious attachment is positively correlated with dissatisfaction of competence, $r = .31, p = .000$ so when anxious attachment higher, the dissatisfaction of competence need is higher. Also, there is a positive correlation between anxious attachment and autonomy need $r = .24, p = .000$. Lastly, for the significant correlation between avoidant attachment and satisfaction and dissatisfaction of needs, only satisfaction and dissatisfaction of relatedness needs are correlated. For the satisfaction of relatedness, $r = -.34, p = .000$, and for the dissatisfaction of relatedness $r = .25, p = .000$.

Moreover, there is a significant correlation between attachment styles and subscales of selfobject needs. There is a positive and moderate correlation between avoidance of idealization/ twinship and attachment avoidant, $r = .41, p = .000$. Also, a positive significant relationship has been found between the avoidance of mirroring and attachment avoidance, $r = .28, p = .000$. As the avoidant attachment increases, avoidance of idealization/ twinship and avoidance of mirroring of the participants

increases. Then, a positive correlation has been found between the anxious attachment and hunger for selfobject needs, $r = .19, p = .01$ and avoidance of idealization/twinship, $r = .29, p = .000$. As anxious attachment of participants increases, both hunger for the selfobject needs and avoidance of idealization/ twinship increases. For the securely attached participants, only avoidance of idealization/ twinship was significantly and negatively correlated, $r = -.26, p = .000$



Table 2. The Relationship Between Attachment Styles, Codependency, Selfobject Needs, and Psychological Needs with their Subscales.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Secure A.	1												
2 Anxious A.	-.31***	1											
3 Avoidant A.	-.24***	.34***	1										
4 Codependency	-.21***	.43***	.07	1									
5 Hunger for S.O	-.09	.19**	-.02	.41***	1								
6 Avo. of Idealization	-.26***	.29***	.41***	.22***	.06	1							
7 Avo. of Mirroring	.09	-.02	.28***	-.19**	-.35***	.17*	1						
8 Autonomy	.36***	-.27***	-.06	-.43***	-.23***	-.32***	.25***	1					
9 Competence	.36***	-.26***	-.05	-.34***	-.19**	-.24***	.30***	.47***	1				
10 Relatedness	.44***	-.41***	-.34***	-.28***	.06	-.53***	-.02	.39***	.37***	1			
11 Aunomy Dis.	-.18**	.24***	.09	.43***	.24***	.24***	-.13	-.84***	-.34***	-.31***	1		
12 Competence Dis.	-.31***	.31***	.08	.43***	.27***	.27***	-.28***	-.48***	-.87***	-.35***	.41***	1	
13 Relatedness Dis.	-.34***	.41***	.25***	.38***	.11	.45***	-.03	-.43***	-.36***	-.80***	.45***	.45***	1

*** $p \leq .001$, ** $p \leq .01$, * $p \leq .05$; N = 219

3.3. Mediation Analyses

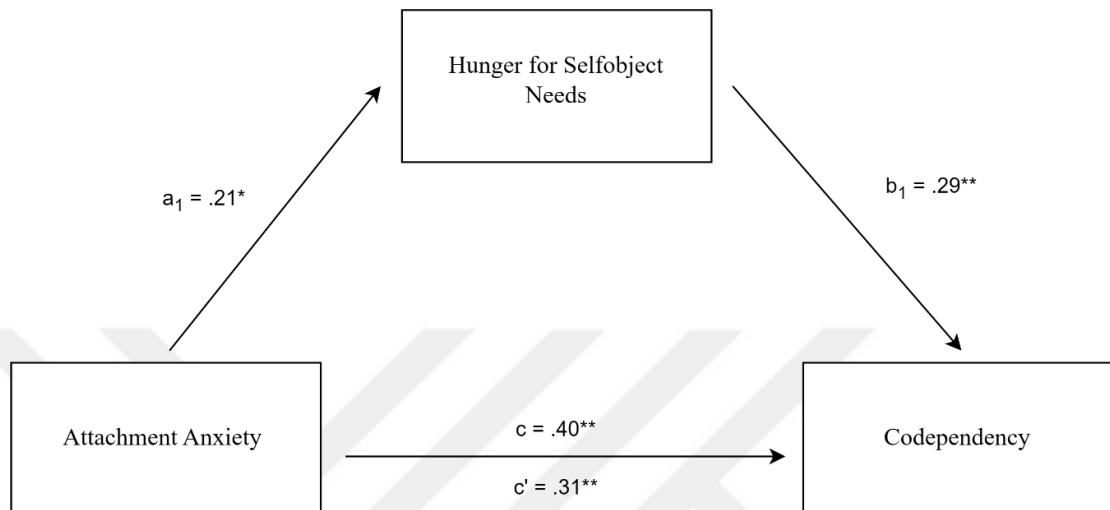
In all mediation analyses of this study PROCESS version 3.5 by Hayes was used (Hayes, 2013). In all models, anxious attachment style was included as an independent variable. The model also included codependency as a dependent variable to test all hypotheses. For hypothesis 1, self-object needs were included as mediators, for hypothesis 2, satisfaction of psychological needs was included as mediators and for hypothesis 3, dissatisfaction of psychological needs was included as mediators. The effect of the mediators in two different models was examined in a parallel mediation analysis. As suggested by Andrew Hayes, 5000 bootstrap samples and 95% confidence intervals were used.

3.3.1. The Mediating Role of Selfobject Needs on the Relationship between Anxious Attachment and Codependency

A mediation analysis was performed to investigate the mediating role of self-object needs on the relationship between anxious attachment and codependency. The mediators were approach orientation toward mirroring, idealization/twinship (hunger for selfobjects), avoidance of idealization/ twinship and avoidance of mirroring. However, the model did not include avoidance of idealization/ twinship and avoidance of mirroring as a mediator because they did not satisfy the necessary conditions. The regression analysis between anxious attachment and avoidance of mirroring was not significant, $F(1,217) = .078, p = .78$. Therefore, there was no ground for meditation. The regression analysis between anxious attachment and avoidance of idealization/ twinship was significant, $b = .40, t = 4.44, p < .001$ but between avoidance of idealization/ twinship and codependency was not, $b = .21, p > .05$. So, there was no ground for meditation.

According to the analysis of the model, the model significantly predicted and explained 13% of the variance in codependency. In detail, anxious attachment significantly predicted hunger for selfobjects in a_1 path, ($b = .21, t = 2.77, p < .01$). On the other hand, (b_1 path) hunger for selfobjects, $b = .29, t = 5.97, p < .001$ significantly predicted codependency. The total effect of anxious attachment on codependency (c path) was significant, $b = .40, t = 6.94, p < .001$. Moreover, the direct effect of anxious attachment on codependency (c' path) was also significant, $b = .31, t = 5.52, p < .001$.

However, the results indicated significant indirect effects of (a_1b_1 path) hunger for selfobjects for selfobjects, $b = .05$, 95% CI = [.011, .104]. Therefore, we can conclude that hunger for selfobjects partially mediated the relationship between anxious attachment on codependency.



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

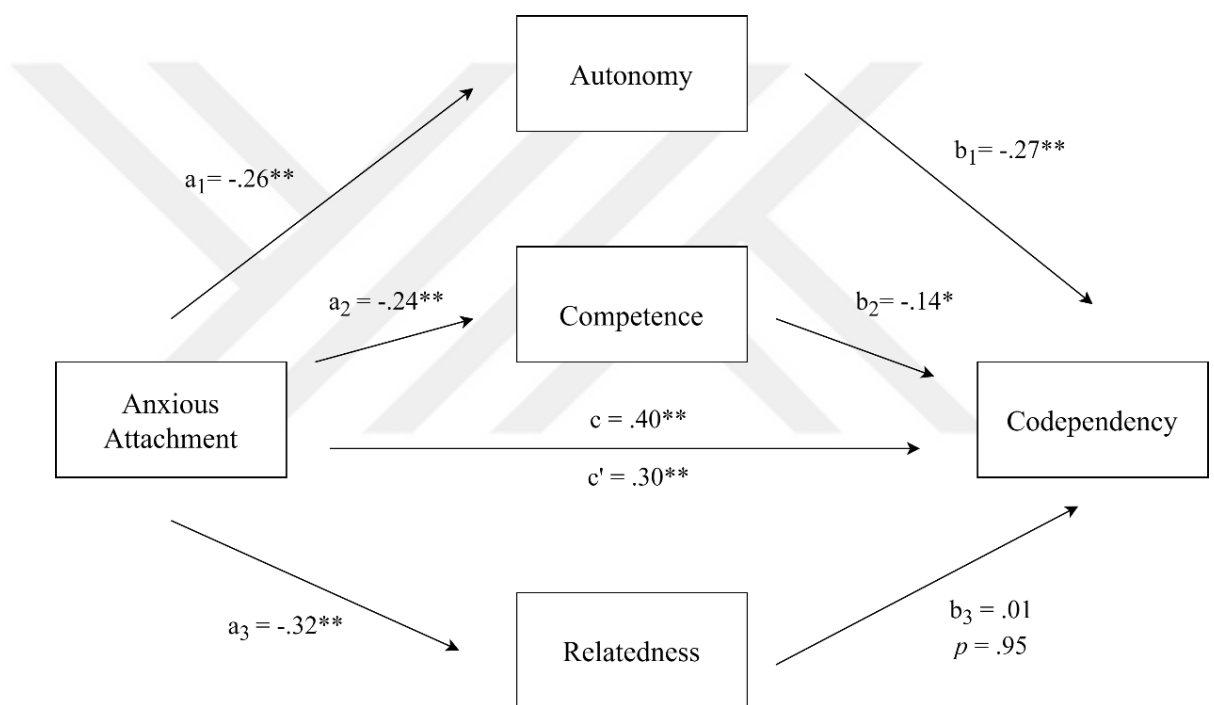
Figure 1. A Mediation Analysis Model for Selfobject Needs on the Relationship between Anxious Attachment and Codependency

3.3.2. The Mediating Role of Psychological Needs Satisfaction on the Relationship between Anxious Attachment and Codependency

A parallel mediation analysis was conducted to look at the mediating role of psychological needs on the relationship between anxious attachment and codependency. The mediators were relatedness, competence, and autonomy.

According to the analysis of the model, the model significantly predicted and explained 22,8% of the variance in codependency. In detail, anxious attachment significantly predicted autonomy need in a_1 path, $b = -.27$, $t = -4.17$, $p < .001$. Anxious attachment significantly predicted (a_2 path) competence need, $b = -.24$, $t = -3.99$, $p < .001$. On the other hand, (b_1 path) autonomy need, $b = -.27$, $t = -4.21$, $p < .001$ and (b_2 path) competence, $b = -.14$, $t = -1.98$, $p = .05$, significantly predicted codependency. The total effect of anxious attachment on codependency (c path) was significant, $b = .40$, $t = 6.94$, $p < .001$. Moreover, the direct effect of anxious attachment on codependency (c' path) was also significant, $b = .30$, $t = 5.26$, $p < .001$. Therefore, we

can conclude that autonomy partially mediated the relationship between anxious attachment on codependency. The results indicated significant partial indirect effects of (a_1b_1 path) autonomy, $b = .07$, 95% CI = [.031, .119] and (a_2b_2 path) competence $b = .03$, 95% CI = [.001, .071] on the relationship between anxious attachment and codependency. In a_3 path, the regression analysis between the anxious attachment and relatedness need was significant $b = -.32$, $p < .001$. However, in b_3 path, satisfaction of relatedness need was not significantly predicting codependency $b = .01$, $p = .95$. Therefore, relatedness satisfaction was not mediate the relationship between anxious attachment and codependency.



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

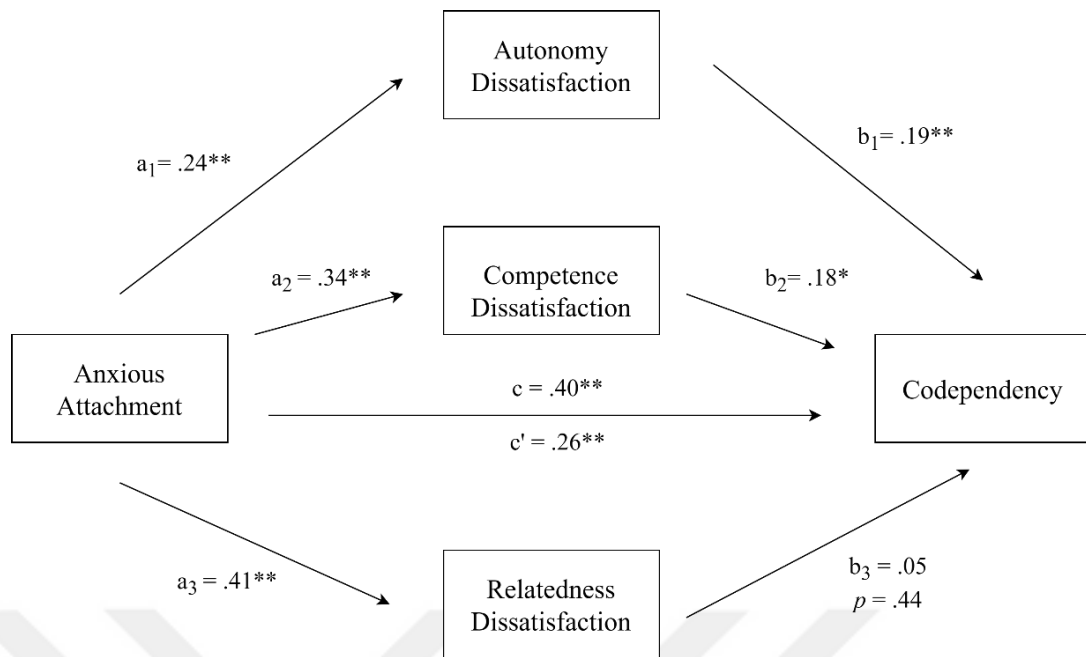
Figure 2. Parallel Mediation Analysis Model for Psychological Needs on the Relationship between Anxious Attachment and Codependency

3.3.3. *The Mediating Role of Psychological Needs Dissatisfaction on the Relationship between Anxious Attachment and Codependency*

A parallel mediation analysis was performed to investigate the mediating role of psychological needs satisfaction on the relationship between anxious attachment and

codependency. The mediators were relatedness dissatisfaction, competence dissatisfaction, and autonomy dissatisfaction.

According to the analysis of the model, the model significantly predicted and explained 7,32% of the variance in codependency. In detail, anxious attachment significantly predicted (a_1 path) competence dissatisfaction, $b = .34$, $t = 4.73$, $p < .001$. Anxious attachment significantly predicted (a_2 path) autonomy dissatisfaction, $b = .30$, $t = 3.62$, $p < .001$. On the other hand, (b_1 path) competence dissatisfaction, $b = .19$, $t = 3.65$, $p < .001$, and (b_2 path) autonomy dissatisfaction, $b = .20$, $t = 4.35$, $p < .001$ significantly predicted codependency. The total effect of anxious attachment on codependency (c path) was significant, $b = .40$, $t = 6.94$, $p < .001$. Moreover, the direct effect of anxious attachment on codependency (c' path) was also significant, $b = .27$, $t = 4.97$, $p < .001$. Therefore, we can conclude that competence dissatisfaction and autonomy dissatisfaction subscales of psychological needs partially mediated the relationship between anxious attachment on codependency. The results indicated significant indirect effects of (a_1b_1 path) competence dissatisfaction, $b = .07$, 95% CI = [.024, .124], (a_2b_2 path) autonomy dissatisfaction, $b = .06$, 95% CI = [.023, .117] on the relationship between anxious attachment on codependency. In a_3 path, the regression analysis between the anxious attachment and dissatisfaction of relatedness need was significant $b = .41$, $p < .001$. However, in b_3 path, dissatisfaction of relatedness need was not significantly predicting codependency $b = .05$, $p = .44$. Therefore, relatedness satisfaction was not mediate the relationship between anxious attachment and codependency. Therefore, relatedness dissatisfaction was not mediate the relationship between anxious attachment and codependency.



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

Figure 3. Parallel Mediation Analysis Model for Dissatisfaction of Psychological Needs on the Relationship between Anxious Attachment and Codependency

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION

Our study was designed to examine the mediating effect of selfobject needs and psychological needs on the relationship between attachment style and codependency. Discussions of the findings will be offered under this section. The explanation of how variables correlate will be summarized. Then, the primary analysis—the study of the mediation—will be covered. The study's limitations, ideas for more research, and clinical implications will be presented after the talks.

4.1. The Interpretation of Correlation Hypotheses

Our results signified a positive correlation between attachment secure and satisfaction of psychological needs. Also, our results indicated a negative correlation between attachment secure and dissatisfaction of psychological needs. As secure attachment increases so does satisfaction of psychological needs and the opposite with dissatisfaction of them. According to studies on the three fundamental psychological needs and attachment styles, people with secure attachment styles reported feeling more satisfied with their basic needs than people with avoidant and anxious attachment styles (La Guardia et al., 2000; Leak and Cooney, 2001; Patrick et al., 2007). Therefore, we can say that frustration of need is more common in people with insecure attachments. La Guardia et al. (2000) were among the first to discover that those with a stable attachment style had higher levels of well-being because their interpersonal ties with their parents and friends satisfied their fundamental psychological needs. In a later study, Leak and Cooney (2001) discovered that the fulfillment of the need for autonomy within the romantic relationship moderated the link between secure attachment and well-being.

On the other hand, in our results, there was a negative significant correlation between anxious attachment and satisfaction of psychological needs and a positive correlation between dissatisfaction of them. For avoidant attachment, only relatedness needs were found significantly correlated. According to studies, the three fundamental needs may not be met as a result of insecure attachment patterns, which may result in dysfunction at the individual, interpersonal, and social environment levels (Ainsworth et al., 1978; Ryan and Deci, 2002). Another study found a statistically significant correlation between the satisfaction of basic psychological needs and anxious and avoidant attachment. Because they have been taught that these requirements are a big part of

what makes them unlovable, people with high levels of attachment anxiety tend to have a negative mental model of themselves and are more likely to repress or not be aware of their basic psychological needs. In contrast, those with high levels of attachment avoidance are more likely to have negative opinions of other people and have discovered that taking care of one's basic psychological needs is not necessarily a terrible thing. Additionally, these people have a propensity to think that no other person can meet their needs (Wei et al., 2005).

Our results specified a significant correlation between attachment styles and selfobject needs. There was a positive significant correlation between avoidant attachment and avoidance of selfobject needs as expected. There was a negative significant correlation between secure attachment and avoidance of idealization/twinship. Also, for anxious attachment, there was a positive correlation between hunger for selfobject needs and avoidance of idealization/ twinship. Unexpectedly, it was positively correlated with both avoidance and hunger of needs. These are both overlapping and diverging results between the results of this study and the literature. For the results of this study, there are both overlapping and diverging results compared to the literature. In the study (Banai, Mikulincer and Shaver, 2005), the degree of self-object need hunger is directly linked to anxious attachment and sensitivity to rejection. Also, the degree of avoidance of these needs is linked to avoidant attachment and apprehension about intimacy. In another study (Lopez et al., 2013) conducted on 142 university students on the relationship between selfobject need and attachment, it was shown that hunger for mirroring and idealization and twinship avoidance attitudes predict anxious attachment, while only idealization and twinship avoidance attitudes predict avoidant attachment.

According to research (Marmarosh and Mann, 2014) on 82 psychotherapy patients between the ages of 19 and 60 found that approach mirroring and approach twinship had a significantly positive relationship with attachment anxiety but no significant relationship with attachment avoidance in terms of attachment orientation. However, attachment anxiety and avoidance were both significantly positively correlated with hunger of selfobject needs. There was no discernible correlation between approach mirroring and attachment orientation. Another investigation discovered a somewhat positive association between approach mirroring and attachment anxiety as well as a moderately positive correlation between avoidance idealization/twinship and

attachment avoidance. There was no correlation between any other selfobject needs and attachment orientations.

4.2. The Interpretation of the Mediation Analyses

A parallel mediation analysis was conducted to see whether selfobject needs and psychological needs mediate the relationship between attachment anxiety and codependency. According to a study, people with an anxious attachment style share traits with codependent people. As a result, codependency may be more likely to develop in those with anxious attachment styles (Duman, 2020). The attachment theory supposes that anxiously attached people have developed a negative representation model of an unworthy self. Further, they show limited ability for internal reassurance and self-locus of control (Wei et al., 2005). Consistent with that, anxious attachment was used as an independent variable for mediation analyses. Selfobject needs and psychological needs were entered into the model with subscales.

4.2.1. The Mediating Role of Selfobject Needs on the Relationship between Anxious Attachment and Codependency

It was hypothesized that selfobject needs would mediate the relationship between anxious attachment and codependency. In this manner, subscales of selfobject needs were used: hunger for selfobject needs, avoidance of idealization/twinship and avoidance of mirroring. Findings revealed that hunger for selfobject needs mediated the relationship between codependency and attachment anxiety. However, avoidance of idealization/twinship and avoidance of mirroring did not mediate the relationship between codependency and attachment anxiety. When the effect was examined, the partial mediation effect was found in the indirect effect of attachment anxiety on codependency. Kohut (1984) hypothesized that hunger for or avoidance of selfobject provisions is associated with disorders of the self. Hunger for needs rather than avoidance may indirectly affect the development of codependency for anxiously attached individuals. In the words of Kohut (1971), "the psyche continues to cling to a vaguely delimited image of absolute perfection" (p. 65). In other words, the individual still has a persistent, archaic "hunger" for selfobject experiences, and this is reflected in the way they behave, which is marked by a constant effort to satisfy their unfulfilled selfobject requirements. Such that codependent people create this pathology, that they cannot identify themselves without the presence of the other, feel

inadequate and therefore cannot separate from them, reminds us of hunger for these self-object needs. Hunger for unfulfilled self-object needs represents the response of anxiously attached people, who hyperactivate their attachment reactions in an effort to increase the amount of affection and support they receive from others—things that were not properly or consistently supplied for them as children. The inhibition of attachment needs and the avoidance of self-object needs, on the other hand, are both protective responses to traumatic encounters with close relationships (Fraley and Shaver, 2000).

4.2.2. The Mediating Role of Satisfaction of Psychological Needs on the Relationship between Anxious Attachment and Codependency

In another hypothesis, satisfaction of psychological needs would mediate the relationship between anxious attachment and codependency. Thus, satisfaction of relatedness, competence and autonomy were added for mediators. Study findings showed that, satisfaction of competence and autonomy mediated the relationship between codependency and attachment anxiety. Codependency, according to Cermak (1986), is a behavioral addiction characterized by boundary distortions, entangled connections, and an excessive sense of duty to satisfy the demands of others while denying one's own needs. At the same time, low self-esteem, which appears as an attitude of contempt for one's self-worth, has brought with it the tendency of individuals to have excessive empathy apart from their actions such as neglecting themselves to gain social approval and acceptance and doing more than expected. When people with these characteristics are considered, it is seen that their basic psychological needs are not met or are met to a small extent, and there is no self-ground where these needs can be seen and noticed. On the other hand, in many articles, there is a positive relationship between codependency and anxious/ambivalent and avoidant attachment styles, and a negative relationship between codependency and secure attachment style (Springer et al., 1998; Bagheri, 2005). Findings in the present study revealed that all of the indirect effects in the model were significant. Thus, some of the basic psychological needs (competence and autonomy) were found to be substantial mediators in the relationship between attachment anxiety and codependency.

When relatedness is satisfied, people feel loved and cared for, and the exact opposite is when unsatisfied. Codependent people, on the other hand, may feel them immoderately. One day, while they feel loved, they may believe that their partner no

longer loves them at the slightest behavior. This subject is fragile for them, as they deeply believe they are unlovable. Even though they have a partner, a relationship, and a group of friends, the fact that they don't reflect their true selves always makes them feel that these relationships are on insecure basis. At the same time, behaviors that may seem unhealthy may be interpreted as care and love for them. For these reasons, relatedness in the model predicted codependency neither positively nor negatively.

4.2.3. The Mediating Role of Dissatisfaction of Psychological Needs on the Relationship between Anxious Attachment and Codependency

Lastly, it was hypothesized that the relationship between anxious attachment and codependency was mediated by dissatisfaction of psychological needs. As mediators, dissatisfaction of relatedness, competence and autonomy were used. To our results, dissatisfaction of competence and autonomy mediated the relationship between codependency and attachment anxiety. People with high levels of codependency ignore their genuine identities, wants, and feelings and instead form shame-based ideas about who they are, what they need, and whether they are deserving of love. Because of the abuse, neglect, and excessive control they experience at home as well as the lack of respect for their thoughts and individuality, they express their unresolved rage to themselves (Ancel, 2017). Individuals with an insecure attachment style may show features such as focusing on the needs of others and making excessive sacrifices for them in order to hold on to their relationships. Considering these features, the way of establishing relationships of individuals with insecure attachment style and their codependent personality traits are consistent with each other. Children who grow up in dysfunctional families are accustomed to being the same as each other and their parents, not exhibiting individual differences, and delaying their own needs for the satisfaction of their elders (Neuman, 2009). Even though children who grow up in such family environments are physically separated from their families, they do not experience emotional differentiation and cannot learn to be individuals (Neuman, 2009). Children who have lost their self-worth in their families can only feel valuable in their adulthood by dedicating themselves to the satisfaction of others. These dysfunctional families can cause children to develop an insecure attachment style, not be an individual and develop a codependency with an extremely altruistic attitude. In addition, the basic needs of children who grow up in these conditions "naturally" remain unsatisfied. It is declared that the need for relatedness is also an important

resource in maintaining intrinsic motivation, but this need does not influence intrinsic motivation as much as autonomy and competence (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Maybe feeling loved and cared for are feelings that could be short-termly satisfaction so extrinsic motivation. And codependency is mostly related to concepts of identity, self, and personality. These affect radically the motivation of people. Therefore codependency could be interpreted that more related to intrinsic motivation and relatedness could be connected to more extrinsic motivation. Because of this difference, relatedness may not have predicted codependency (Sheldon and Hilpert, 2012; Aksu, 2022)

4.3. Limitations, and Future Suggestions of the Study

There are some limitations in the study. In the research, there were more women than men, and the sample size was small. It would be more useful to conduct future research with more people and to have equality between the genders. Also, age range of participants are wide and the needs of individuals in different ages could have different needs and different satisfaction ways. Thus, future research can be written with a focus on developmental periods. All the data for this study were gathered using self-report questionnaires and internet resources. Online surveys make it impossible to collect data in a controlled setting. As a result, distraction may have an impact on participants. Self-report scores also help participants develop a sense of self. In other words, people could reply in an attempt to seem good. In particular, for self-object inventories, the collection of scales and the questions are rather lengthy. Participants may become bored because of this. Future research may benefit from shorter and more useful inventories. In addition, for assessing the psychological needs of participants, instead of using scale in this thesis Sheldon and Hilpert (2012), the questionnaire by Deci and Ryan, 2000; Gagné, 2003 could be used.

At the same time, it could be asked whether there is an addicted mother or father in the households where people grew up. Or if they have a partner right now, is it someone with an addiction? When these are added next time, it will be a more detailed examination. Also, parental attitudes and codependency status can be measured instead of attachment styles. A more comprehensive study can be created with parental attitudes that can be measured in more detail. Most importantly, as the concepts were investigated, deficiencies were observed in the basic formation of the self in codependent persons. More enlightening information can be obtained when researched

together with theories on the self. The important differences and deficiencies in the formation of the personality of the person can be observed and its relationship with the codependency can be examined. The level of codependency of cross-cultural differentiation is also useful for further research. It is predicted that it can be seen much more in collectivist societies than in individualists. Especially in patriarchal societies where the expectation of obedience from women is high.



CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

The aim of this study was to examine the effect of selfobject needs and psychological needs on the relationship between attachment styles and codependency. For this purpose, subscales of mediators were used: hunger for selfobject needs, avoidance of idealization/twinship and avoidance of mirroring for selfobject needs and autonomy, competence, and relatedness for basic psychological needs. To the best of our knowledge, this research was the first investigation of these all. In conclusion, anxious attachment was found to be an attachment style most associated with codependency in this study and the literature. Also, the study revealed that hunger for selfobject needs had a significant mediating effect on the relationship between attachment anxiety and codependency. Furthermore, satisfaction and dissatisfaction of psychological needs also played a significant mediating role on the relationship between attachment anxiety and codependency. Despite satisfaction and dissatisfaction of relatedness did not mediate the relationship between attachment anxiety and codependency, autonomy and competence had a mediating effect with all satisfaction and dissatisfaction dimensions on them. Overall, the results of the current study contribute to the literature and improve our knowledge of the relationship between these concepts.

5.1. Clinical Implications

This study pointed out the significance of psychological needs in codependency, a type of dependence. For codependent people in the therapy room, studies for understanding these needs and meeting them will lead to improvement in the client. These needs are the selfobject needs that Kohut mentioned, namely mirroring, idealization and twinship, which must be met primarily from the mother. And at the same time, it is important that the needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness based on the theory of self-determination are seen and tried to be met within the sessions.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX-A

SAYI : B.30.2.İEÜ.0.05.05-020-275

28.03.2023

KONU : Etik Kurul Kararı hk.

Sayın Prof. Dr. Falih KÖKSAL ve Pelin ALPSOY

“The Mediation Role of Psychological Needs and Selfobject Needs in the Relationship Between Attachment Styles and Codependency in Relationships” başlıklı projenizin etik uygunluğu konusundaki başvurunuz sonuçlanmıştır.

Etik Kurulumuz 28.03.2023 tarihinde sizin başvurunuzun da içinde bulunduğu bir gündemle toplanmış ve Etik Kurul üyeleri projeleri incelemiştir.

Sonuçta 28.03.2023 tarihinde **“The Mediation Role of Psychological Needs and Selfobject Needs in the Relationship Between Attachment Styles and Codependency in Relationships”** konulu projenizin etik açıdan uygun olduğuna oy birliğiyle karar verilmiştir.

Gereği için bilgilerinize sunarım.

Saygılarımla,

Prof. Dr. Murat Bengisu

Etik Kurul Başkanı

APPENDIX-B

PARTICIPATION INFORMATION AND CONSENT FORM/ KATILIMCI BİLGİLENDİRME VE ONAM FORMU

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu çalışma, İzmir Ekonomi Üniversitesi bünyesinde, Klinik Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans programı kapsamında, Prof. Dr. Falih Köksal danışmanlığında Pelin Alpsoy tarafından yürütülmektedir.

Çalışma kapsamında, 18 yaş üstü katılımcıların bağlanma stilleri ile ilişki bağımlılığı arasındaki ilişkide, psikolojik ihtiyaçların ve kendiliknesnesi ihtiyaçlarının aracı rolünün araştırılması amaçlanmaktadır.

Araştırmaya katılmayı kabul ederseniz, bu aşamada sizden yaklaşık 15 dakikanızı alacak anketimizi doldurmanız istenecektir. Soruların doğru ya da yanlış cevapları yoktur. Bundan dolayı soruları kendiniz yanıtlamanız ve size en doğru gelen yanıtları tercih etmeniz araştırmanın doğruluğu ve güvenilirliği açısından önemlidir.

Çalışmaya katılmanız tamamen kendi isteğinize bağlıdır. Katılımı reddetme ya da çalışma sürecinde herhangi bir zaman diliminde devam etmeme hakkına sahipsiniz.

Araştırma ile ilgili daha fazla bilgi sahibi olmak isterseniz, araştırmacıyla e-posta adresi üzerinden iletişime geçebilirsiniz.

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

-evet

-hayır

APPENDIX-C

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SHEET/ KİŞİSEL BİLGİ FORMU

Yaş:_____.

Cinsiyet:_____.

Yaşadığınız yer:_____.

Mesleğiniz:_____.

Eğitim Durumunuz (en son mezun olduğunuz okulu düşünerek):

- İlkokul
- Ortaokul
- Lise
- Lisans
- Yüksek Lisans
- Doktora

Medeni Durum: ()Bekar ()İlişkisi var ()Evli ()Dul ()Boşanmış ()Diğer

Psikiyatrik bir tanınız var mı?

- Evet
- Hayır

Cevabınız EVETSE tanıyı ve ne kadardır devam ettiğini lütfen ay olarak belirtiniz: -----

Daha önce psikiyatrik tedavi aldınız mı?

- Evet
- Hayır

Cevabınız EVETSE ne için olduğunu ve tedavi süresini ay olarak belirtiniz: -----

APPENDIX-D

THREE-DIMENSIONAL ATTACHMENT STYLE SCALE/ÜÇ BOYUTLU BAĞLANMA STİLLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ

Aşağıda sizinle ilgili ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen her bir maddeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve sizi en iyi tanımlayan seçeneği işaretleyiniz. Doğru ya da yanlış cevap yoktur. Sizden beklenen içtenlikle cevap vererek bilimsel bir çalışmaya yardımcı olmanız. Lütfen bütün sorularla ilgili görüşlerinizi ifade ediniz. Katkılarınız için teşekkürler.

1= Kesinlikle katılmıyorum 2= Katılmıyorum 3=Kısmen katılıyorum 4=Katılıyorum 5=Kesinlikle

Karşımdaki insanlar benim kadar değerli değiller.	1	2	3	4	5
Birisiyle çok fazla samimi olduğumda sorun çıkabileceğinden kaygılanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Karar alırken kimseyi önemsemem.	1	2	3	4	5
Sorunu olan birisini gördüğümde kendimi onun yerine koyabiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
Başkalarının benim kadar değerli olduklarını düşünmüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
İnsanlardan ne kadar uzak durursam o kadar az üzülürüm.	1	2	3	4	5
Ebeveynimle (anne, baba veya benim bakımımı üstlenen bir başkası) iyi anlaşıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
İnsanlardan uzak duruyorum çünkü bana acı çektirebilirler.	1	2	3	4	5
Bir sorun varsa bunun kaynağı genelde karşımdakilerin sorunlu olmasıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
.Kendimi mutlu bir insan olarak tanımlıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
.Duygusal ilişki yaşadığım kişinin beni gerçekten sevmediğini düşünerek kaygılanıyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
.Yalnızca kendime değer veririm.	1	2	3	4	5
.Başkalarının üzüntülerini anlayabiliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
.Duygusal ilişkilerden uzak duruyorum çünkü terk edilmek istemiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
.İnsanların görüşleri benim için önemsizdir.	1	2	3	4	5
.Ebeveynlerime (anne, baba veya benim bakımımı üstlenen bir başkası) genelde kırıcı sözler söylemem.	1	2	3	4	5
.İnsanlardan ne kadar uzak durursam o kadar mutlu olurum.	1	2	3	4	5
.Başkaları çok da umurumda değildir.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX-E
SPANN-FISCHER İLİŞKİ BAĞIMLILIĞI ÖLÇEĞİ

“Lütfen bu ifadeleri okuduktan sonra kendinizi değerlendiriniz ve sizin için en uygun seçeneğin karşısına çarpı (x) işareti koyunuz”. Lütfen her ifadeye tek yanıt veriniz ve BOŞ bırakmayınız. “

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç					Çok
uygun					uygun
değil					

“1) Benim için karar vermek zordur.

1 2 3 4 5 6

2) Benim için hayır demek zordur.

1 2 3 4 5 6

3) Benim için zarif biçimde yapılan iltifatları kabul etmek zordur.

1 2 3 4 5 6

4) Bazen odaklanmam gereken sorunlar olmadığında, kendimi adeta sıkın ya da boş hissederim.

1 2 3 4 5 6

5) Kendileri için yapabilecekleri şeylerde, başkaları için genellikle bir şey yapmam.

1 2 3 4 5 6

6) Kendim için güzel bir şey yaptığımda genellikle kendimi suçlu hissederim.

1 2 3 4 5 6

7) Çok fazla kaygılanmam.

1 2 3 4 5 6

8) Hayatımdaki insanlar, yaptıkları şeyleri değiştirdiklerinde, kendi kendime bir şeylerin daha iyi olacağını söylerim.

1 2 3 4 5 6

9) İlişkide bulduğularımın her zaman yanlarında bulunurum ancak onlar nadiren benim yanımda bulunurlar.

1 2 3 4 5 6

10) Bazen diğer ilişki ve sorumlulukları ihmal edecek kadar sadece bir kişiye odaklanırım.

1 2 3 4 5 6

11) Bana acı veren ilişkiler kuran biri gibiyim.

1 2 3 4 5 6

12) Genellikle, başkalarının (içimdeki) gerçek beni görmelerine izin vermem.

1 2 3 4 5 6

13) Biri beni üzdüğünde uzun zaman içimde tutarım, ancak bir süre sonra patlarım.

1 2 3 4 5 6

14) Çatışmalardan kaçınmak için genellikle her yolu denerim.

1 2 3 4 5 6

15) Sık sık, ürkütücü ya da kötü bir şeyler olacağına dair içimde bir his olur.

1 2 3 4 5 6

16) Sıklıkla başkalarının gereksinimlerini kendiminkilerin önüne koyarım.”

1 2 3 4 5 6

APPENDIX-F

SELFOBJECT NEEDS INVENTORY/KENDİLİKNESNESİ İHTİYAÇLARI ENVANTERİ

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri sizin için en uygun şekilde işaretleyiniz.

(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
	Hiç		Kararsızım			
	Tamamen					
	katılmıyorum					
	katılıyorum					

1. Başarılarım yeterince takdir edilmediğinde incinirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Benimle aynı durumdaki insanların çevresinde olmak benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Bir problemim olduğunda deneyimli insanlardan bile öğrenilmem benim için zordur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Başarılı insanların ilişkileri benimde başarılı hissetmemi sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Diğer insanların övgülerine ihtiyacım yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Benimle benzer problemleri olan insanlarla bir arada olmamı istemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Başarıya ulaştığımda takdir edilmediğinde hayal kırıklığına uğrarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Değerlerimi, fikirlerimi ve aktivitelerimi paylaşacağım insanlar ararım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Saygı duyduğum insanların bile yönlendirmelerini kabul etmeyi zor bulurum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Ünlü insanlara özenirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Çok az dikkat çektiğim durumlarda işimi	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

yeterince iyi yapamam.							
12. Belirli bir yaşam tarzını paylaşan bir grubun parçası olduğum bilmek bana kendimi iyi hissettirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Daha deneyimli insanlardan yardım almak zorunda kalmak bana kendimikötü hissettirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Bir arkadaşım la aynı durumda olduğumu hissetmek benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Bir şey yaptığımda diğerlerinin onayına ihtiyaç hissetmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Bana benzer insanların layakını ilişki kurmak beni rahatsız eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Başarılı insanlardan etkilenirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Başarılarımla övünmeye ihtiyaç hissetmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Uzmanların yanında kendim daha iyi hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. Bana çok benzeyen insanlarla arkadaş olmayı tercih etmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ben ve bir yakınım başkalarına karşı benzer duygular hissettiğimizde kendimi daha iyi hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Benimle benzer fikirleri paylaşan bir grubun parçası olmak benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Başkalarının benim hakkımda düşündüklerini pek önemsemem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Başarılı olduğum biliyorum, dolayısıyla başkalarının benim hakkımdaki fikirlerine ihtiyaç hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Benim gibi düşünen ve bana çok benzeyen insanlardan sıkıldım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bana örnek olacak kişilerin çevresinde olmak benim için önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Çevremde benimkilere benzer problemlerle baş etmeye çalışsan kişiler olduğunda kendimi daha güçlü hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Bana çok benzeyen insanlardan oluşan bir gruba ait olmak benim için zordur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Başarılı hissetmek için başkalarının güvence ve onayına ihtiyaç hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. Endişeli ya da stresli olduğumda uzmanlardan öneri almak fazla yardımcı olmaz.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. Hayran olduğum insanların çevresinde olmaya çalışırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
nançları benimkilere çok benzeyen arkadaşlara sahip olmak bana özgüven kazandırır.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. Başkalarından bolca desteğe ihtiyaç hissedirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Ait olduğum gruplarla gurur duymak benim için zordur.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. Çoğu zaman büyüklerim/üstlerim tarafından yeterince takdir edilmediğimi düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36. Benim için, üst düzey, "şışaalı" sosyal gruplara ait olmak önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37. Başkalarından destek almaya ve cesaretlendirilmeye ihtiyaç hissetmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38. Yaşam tarzı benimkine çok benzeyen insanların oluşturduğu bir gruba ait olmayı tercih etmem.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

APPENDIX-G

THE BALANCED MEASURE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL NEEDS SCALE/PSİKOLOJİK İHTİYAÇ DOYUMUNDA DENGE ÖLÇEĞİ

		KESİNLİKLE KATILMIYORUM	KATILMIYORUM	KARARSIZIM	KATILYORUM	KESİNLİKLE KATILYORUM
1	Beni önemseyen ve benim önemseyemediğim insanlarla aramda bir bağ olduğunu hissedirim.					
2	Benim için önemli olan insanlara karşı kendimi yakın ve ilişkili hissedirim.					
3	Genelde zamanımı geçirdiğim insanlara karşı, güçlü bir yakınlık hissedirim.					
4	Önem verdiğim insanlar tarafından takdir edilmediğimi hissedirim.					
5	Genel olarak kendimi yalnız hissedirim.					
6	Genelde iyi anlaştığım insanlarla anlaşmazlık veya çatışmalar yaşarım.					
7	Zor şeyleri bile iyi yaparım.					
8	Aldığım zor görevleri veya projeleri başarıyla tamamlarım.					
9	Zorlayıcı engellerin üstesinden gelirim.					
10	Kendimi yetersiz hissettiren aptalca şeyler yaparım.					
11	Genellikle başarısızlıklar yaşarım veya bir şeyleri iyi yapamam.					
12	İyi olmam gereken şeyleri yaparken zorlanırım.					
13	Tercihlerim "gerçek benliğimi" yansıtır.					
14	Bir şeyleri kendi istediğim gibi yapmakta özgürüm.					
15	Gerçekten ilgimi çeken şeyleri yaparım.					
16	Bana sürekli ne yapmam gerektiğini söyleyen insanlar var.					
17	İsteğimin aksine bazı şeyleri yapmak zorunda kalırım.					
18	Kurtulmak istediğim halde, üzerimde kurtulamadığım birçok baskı var.					