Validation of the Turkish version of the Parental Burnout Assessment (PBA)

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Abstract

Parental Burnout (PB) is an exhaustion syndrome resulting from exposure to overwhelming parenting stress. The current gold-standard instrument, namely, Parental Burnout Assessment (PBA) was used in the International Investigation of Parental Burnout (IIPB), a 40-country study of the prevalence of PB around the world. The IIPB study has stimulated worldwide interest, but efforts are still needed to validate the PBA in different cultures. This study is the first on PB in a collectivist, predominantly Islamic country. It aims to examine the psychometric properties of the Turkish translation of the PBA. The PBA-Turkish was administered to 452 Turkish parents (60% mothers). The results showed that the PBA is a relevant construct in Turkish culture. We replicated the original four-factor structure of the PBA and tested a second-order factor structure through confirmatory factor analyses. The firstand second-order factor models fit the data well. The Emotional Distancing subscale, however, demonstrated lower reliability than the other subscales. We then attained measurement invariance across genders in a set of nested models with gradually increasing parameter constraints. Finally, non-working and single parents reported higher PB, pointing to the possible role of relationships and support as protective factors for Turkish parents.

KEYWORDS

children, exhaustion, parents, psychometric, test, translation, Turkey

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INTRODUCTION

Parenthood is associated in many cultures with joy and fulfillment. Bringing forth life and contributing to a child's development reflect a strong need for generativity in adulthood (Erikson, 1950). Yet parenting is a complex and stressful activity (Abidin, 1990; Crnic & Low, 2002; Deater-Deckard, 2014). Several concepts and research topics, such as parental competence (Johnston & Mash, 1989), parental expertise (Balling & McCubbin, 2001), parental self-efficacy (Coleman & Karraker, 1998), and caregiving helplessness (George & Solomon, 2011) have highlighted parental difficulties and challenges.

Contemporary parenting also involves specific issues, such as unshared parenting responsibilities with a co-partner (Ehrenberg, Gearing-Small, Hunter, & Small, 2001), looking after elderly parents (Hämäläinen & Tanskanen, 2019), and work-life imbalance (Hilbrecht, Shaw, Johnson, & Andrey, 2008), which are sources of parental stress. In the absence of relevant compensating resources, these factors can lead to Parental Burnout (PB), a condition characterized by intense exhaustion related to parenting, emotional distancing from one's children, a loss of pleasure and efficacy in one's parental role, and a contrast between previous and current parental selves (Mikolajczak & Roskam, 2018; Mikolajczak, Gross, & Roskam, 2019). In addition to these family issues, cultural factors may also contribute to parental stress and to the way that exhaustion in parenting is experienced. Nonetheless, how PB reveals in different cultures has not vet been documented. In this respect, Turkey is an interesting setting because of the singular complexity of its parenting culture.

1 L PARENTING IN TURKEY

The requirement for parents to nurture and protect their children is universal, but there are also many parenting standards and values that vary across cultures (Bornstein, 2013). Culture defines how people should parent to promote their children's best interests and mental health, including, for example, how to communicate emotions toward children (Harkness & Super, 2002). As to cultural specificities, autonomy and self-reliance are promoted in individualistic cultures, whereas parenting in collectivist cultures is mostly authoritarian, valuing obedience and conformity (Harkness & Super, 2006).

Turkey is generally considered to be a collectivist culture (Hofstede, 2012; Hofstede et al., 2010). In addition, patriotic tendencies and great respect for authority (Kagitcibasi, 1970; 2007), profound conservatism (Göksel, 2013), gender inequality (Forum, 2018), and Islamic religious authoritarianism and nationalism (Hortacsu & Cem-Ersoy, 2005) also define Turkish culture. In the last three decades, the common beliefs that males should be the head of the family and women should be obedient have remained unchanged (Göksel, 2013). Further, 70% of the population (including 69% of women) agrees with the idea that mothers' employment outside the home is harmful to children (Esmer, 2012). In line with these considerations, female labor participation has fallen over the last 50 years due to the dearth of childcare services, the unequal division of household labor, the low educational level of women, and conservatism (e.g., social norms and religion) (Göksel, 2013). Indeed, more than 50% of the Turkish population would like to return to traditional social norms (e.g., the "good old days"), and more than 80% claim to be religious (Göksel, 2013). In line with these statistics, women are expected to be obedient wives and mothers. Despite significant urbanization in the last few decades in Turkey (65% of the population lives in cities) (Kagitcibasi & Ataca, 2005), urban, educated working mothers are a minority. Still, Turkish culture should not be considered as a homogeneous whole.

The Turkish Value of Children (VOC) study offered a nuanced, three-decade portrait of family change in Turkey (Kagitcibasi & Ataca, 2005). The theoretical model informing

the VOC study assumes that healthy self-development is the result of a combination of both autonomous and related selves (Kagitcibasi, 1996). The self-development model is organized around two dimensions: (1) the degree of interpersonal distance, represented by the poles of separateness and relatedness, and (2) agency, represented by the poles of autonomy and heteronomy (Kagitcibasi, 1996, 2005, 2007). Based on this model, the VOC study elaborated on the family pattern in Turkey by examining how the values attributed to children, whether economic (e.g., security for parents in old age), psychological (e.g., joy and pride for parents), or social (e.g., social acceptance), changed from one generation to another.

With socioeconomic developments, especially increasing educational attainment, children's economic value has decreased while their psychological value has increased. This evolution had also led to a decrease in fertility (e.g., the actual, desired, and ideal number of children) and three co-occurring prototypical family patterns in Turkey. The first family pattern concerns *familial interdependence* (in both economic and psychological realms) shaped by collectivist parenting culture and intergenerational relatedness. It is common in less developed and rural areas. In contrast, the *independence pattern* typically observed in individualistic Western culture—can be found in Turkish urban settings. The last pattern is *psychological interdependence* (e.g., emotional closeness between generations), and it combines (intergenerational) interdependence (e.g., relatedness) in the emotional realm with independence (e.g., separateness) in the material realm. This pattern is most prevalent among urban, educated Turkish parents (Kagitcibasi, 2007; Kagitcibasi & Ataca, 2005).

As we know, different family patterns are associated with specific child-rearing and socialization goals (Citlak, Leyendecker, Schölmerich, Driessen, & Harwood, 2008; Rao, McHale, & Pearson, 2003). Parenting experiences (Karataş, Levpušček, & Komidar, 2019) and norms (Demir, 2020), as well as psychological well-being (Özdemir & Sağkal, 2018) also impact parent-child relationships. In the traditional interdependent pattern, compliance is valued, and child autonomy is not desired because children are expected to display family loyalty and to take care of their relatives. In contrast, in the independent pattern, child autonomy is the priority. Parents display a child-centered child-rearing approach, as is the case with most Western parents (Daly, 2007) and some urbanized Turkish parents. Parents adopting this pattern sometimes experience difficulties in setting limits for children (Alagoz, 2009; Cakir, 2019). In the emotional interdependence pattern, autonomy is valued alongside relatedness. However, although autonomy is valued and loyalty is no longer considered necessary, firm parental control (not permissive child-rearing) remains because separation is not appreciated (Kagitcibasi, 2007; Kagitcibasi & Ataca, 2005). With the presence of all three patterns in significant proportions through the population, parenting culture in Turkey thus presents a singular complexity, making it of particular interest to PB research.

2 | PARENTAL BURNOUT

PB encompasses four symptoms (Roskam, Brianda, & Mikolajczak, 2018). The first is overwhelming *emotional exhaustion related to one's parental role*, which is characterized by the experience of extreme tiredness in parenting routines and such an emotionally drained state that even thinking about parental duties is associated with feeling on edge. The second symptom is *emotional distancing from one's children*. As a result of exhaustion, parents become less involved with their children and demonstrate less warmth and sensitivity. Their interactions are restricted to mundane daily responsibilities (e.g., feeding the

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children, dropping them off at school). As a third symptom, parents experience *loss of pleasure and feeling fed up* in the parenting role. Finally, the fourth symptom consists of a *contrast* between the parent as he/she was before burning out and the parent he/she has become.

PB is conceptualized as a unique, context-specific syndrome, not just as a correlate, an extension or part of either job burnout in a professional context or depression (Mikolajczak, Gross, Stinglhamber, Norberg, & Roskam, 2020). Besides differences in the nature of the syndromes, PB also has specific consequences compared to job burnout and depression. It uniquely predicts parental satisfaction, suicidal ideations, and neglect and violence toward children (Mikolajczak et al., 2019; Mikolajczak, Brianda, Avalosse, & Roskam, 2018). In line with these important findings in the West, the challenges of parenting stress have been widely explored in different countries including Turkey (Akkok, Aşkak, & Karancı, 1992; Arikan, Kumru, Korkut, & Ilhan, 2019; Cüre, Üstündağ-Budak, & Arikan, 2019).

Parental stress research has grown in interest among Turkish researchers since the early 1990s (Akkok et al., 1992; Kaymak Özmen & Özmen, 2012; Çekiç & Hamamci, 2018; Çekiç, Akbaş, & Hamamci, 2015; Kaytez, Durualp, & Kadan, 2015), especially for parents of children with special needs (Akman, 2006; Çengelci, 2009; Duygun & Sezgin 2003; Elçi, 2004; Gokcen, Coskun, & Kutuk, 2018; Karadavut ve Uneri, 2011; Nergiz, 2013). Turning to PB, Ardıç and Olcay (2019) adapted the Parents Burnout Scale initially developed by Kaner (2007) to the specific context of parents of children with Autism Spectrum Disorder. And preliminary findings in early childhood demonstrated a positive association between Turkish mothers' PB and children's externalizing behavior problems (Cüre et al., 2019). Still, the need for further research remains to shed light on the role of PB in the caregiving experience within the general population. Exploring how PB arises in parents and impacts families requires a valid and reliable instrument.

3 | ASSESSMENT OF PB

In 1989, Pelsma paved the way for the measurement of PB by suggesting that the Maslach Burnout Inventory (MBI) (Maslach, Jackson, & Leiter, 1986) might be a good starting point in building a reliable measure. His work remained largely unnoticed for nearly two decades. Then, between 2007 and 2014, PB was revisited by Norberg to draw attention to parents' difficulties while looking after children with severe or chronic diseases (Lindhal-Norberg, 2007, 2010; Lindhal-Norberg, Mellgren, Winiarski, & Forinder, 2014). She and her colleagues administered the Shirom–Melamed Burnout Questionnaire (SMBQ) (Melamed, Kushnir, & Shirom, 1992), a 14-item questionnaire including 10 context-free items (e.g., *I feel fed up; I feel physically drained; My thinking process is slow*) and four job-related items (e.g., *I feel I am not capable of investing emotionally in co-workers and customers*). Although these studies provided preliminary support for the concept of PB, skeptics could argue that having an ill child simply made parents more vulnerable to *job* burnout.

In order to address burnout in the context of parenting and differentiate it from job/work-related burnout, Roskam, Raes, and Mikolajczak adapted the items of the MBI (Maslach et al., 1986) for parents. The subscales of Exhaustion in One's Parental Role and Loss of Parental Efficacy and Accomplishment were both validated, but the Depersonalization subscale did not work. Further investigation conducted with focus groups indicated that exhausted parents' experience would be better represented by Emotional Distancing. That resulted in the Parental Burnout Inventory (PBI; Roskam, Raes, & Mikolajczak, 2017), a 22-item questionnaire encompassing three subscales—namely, Exhaustion

in One's Parental Role, Emotional Distancing from One's Children, and Loss of Parental Efficacy and Accomplishment.

Because a deductive approach was used in the development of the PBI, the authors went a step further in the conceptualization of PB by taking an inductive approach based solely on the experience of burned-out parents (Roskam et al., 2018). Testimonies were collected, and a phenomenological analysis (IPA) was conducted by an independent research team (Hubert & Aujoulat, 2018). The analysis yielded 50 new items. Exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses produced the Parental Burnout Assessment (PBA), a 23-item questionnaire encompassing four dimensions—namely, Emotional Exhaustion, Contrast with Previous Parental Self, Feelings of Being Fed Up, and Emotional Distancing. Until recently, the PBA had only been tested in English- and French-speaking countries and mostly in individualistic cultures (Roskam et al., 2018; Roskam et al., 2017). Whether the four-factor structure of the PBA can be replicated in other contexts, such as collectivist, non-Western cultures has still to be explored.

4 | THE CURRENT STUDY

We aimed to validate the Turkish version of the PBA (see the Appendix for the Turkish version). Based on previous research, a four-factor structure was expected, encompassing Emotional Exhaustion, Contrast with Previous Parental Self, Feelings of Being Fed Up, and Emotional Distancing. Driven by the theoretical conceptualization of Parental Burnout and previous PBA validation studies (e.g., Aunola, Sorkkila, & Tolvanen, 2020), we expected that a second-order factor model yielding total Parental Burnout as a latent construct would also fit the data. In line with previous findings (Roskam & Mikolajczak, 2020), we expected measurement invariance across genders. We also expected low correlations between PB and sociodemographic characteristics, in particular, family types (e.g., two parent, single parent, step-family), working status (i.e., having [or not] a paid professional activity), educational level, and number of children (Lebert-Charron, Dorard, Boujut, & Wendland, 2018; Mikolajczak, Raes, Avalosse, & Roskam, 2018; Sorkkila & Aunola, 2020). Based on recent findings, we hypothesized higher PB among mothers in comparison to fathers (Roskam & Mikolajczak, 2020). The current validation study aims to provide a basis for future investigations in parenting research in Turkey and other collectivist cultures. The measurement of PB should also provide clinicians with an effective instrument to assess Turkish parents' burnout symptoms.

5 | METHOD

5.1 | Sample

Data were collected from a sample of 452 Turkish parents from various regions in two Turkish metropoles—Ankara (e.g., Çankaya, Yenimahale) and Istanbul (e.g., Çekmeköy, Beşiktaş), of whom 99.1% were born in Turkey: 182 fathers (40.3%) and 270 mothers (59.7%). Predominantly, parents were not couples. The participants' ages ranged from 21 to 64 ($M_{Age} = 36.77$; $SD_{Age} = 6.51$). Eighty-six percent of participants were raising their child(ren) with a partner who was the other biological parent (two-parent family), 6.4% were single parents, 6.7% were in a multigenerational family, 0.4% were in a step-family, and less than 1% did not report the information. The number of successfully completed school years from the age of 6 was 13.66 on average ($SD_{EducationalLevel} = 3.55$).

Eleven percent of parents had a secondary school diploma or less, 25.6% had a high school education, 47% were university graduates, and 16.3% had a postgraduate degree. Seventy-five percent of the parents had a paid professional activity. On average, 1.15 (SD_{Number} of women in the household taking care of children on a daily basis = 0.52) women and 1.00 man (SD_{Number} of men in the household taking care of children on a daily basis = 0.42) were living in the household caring for the children on a daily basis. Seventy-three percent of the parents lived in an average neighborhood, while the remaining participants either lived in a relatively disadvantaged neighborhood (4.6%) or a relatively prosperous neighborhood (22.3%). The parents spent between 1 and 24 hrs per day with their child(ren) ($M_{Hours} = 6.63$, $SD_{Hours} = 3.80$). Overall, the participants had from 1 to 5 children (either biological or living in their household). The age of the youngest child ranged from 0 to 30 years ($M_{Age} = 7.53$; $SD_{Age} = 5.92$), and that of the oldest from 0 to 17 years ($M_{Age} = 4.41$; $SD_{Age} = 3.64$).

5.2 | Procedure

The current study was conducted as part of the International Investigation of Parental Burnout (IIPB), a consortium of researchers from 40 countries around the world led by Isabelle Roskam and Moïra Mikolajczak at UCLouvain in Belgium. The PBA's translation was conducted by a clinical psychologist and a counselor, and back-translation was performed by another counselor co-author. Later, the translated scale was double checked by a developmental psychologist. The Istanbul Bahcesehir University Research and Publication Ethical Standards Board approved the study protocol. Parents were eligible to participate in the study only if they had (at least) one child still living at home. The informed consent they signed allowed participants to withdraw at any stage without having to justify their reason for doing so. They were also assured that data would remain anonymous. Data collection was based on convenience sampling, and recruitment was performed in the two biggest cities in Turkey—Istanbul and Ankara—by providing a paper-pencil version of the survey to parents in selected schools between April and June 2018. Parents in Ankara were recruited mainly from eight public preschools after permission was obtained from local authorities; parents from Istanbul were recruited via adverts and with the help of undergraduate psychology students. The response rate was 63%, and the attrition rate was 5%.

5.3 | Measures

5.3.1 | Socio-demographics

Participants were asked about their age, gender, number of children, nationality, marital status (e.g., single, cohabiting, married, divorced, widowed), type of family (e.g., single-parent, living with the father/mother of the children, step-family), number of women and men in the household taking care of children on a daily basis, level of education, whether or not the parents had a paid professional activity, number of hours spent with the children on a daily basis, and neighborhood (e.g., disadvantaged, average, prosperous).

5.3.2 | Parental Burnout

A 23-item, self-reported PBA (Roskam et al., 2018) was used, consisting of four subscales: Emotional Exhaustion (9 items; e.g., *I feel completely run down by my role as a parent*), Con-

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TABLE 1

EX FU CO ED EX2 I have the sense that I'm really worn out as a parent .86 EX4 When I get up in the morning and have to face another day .74 with my child(ren), I feel exhausted before I've even started EX5 I find it exhausting just thinking of everything I have to do .81 for my child(ren) EX7 My role as a parent uses up all my resources .79 I feel completely run down by my role as a parent EX1 .83 EX3 I'm so tired out by my role as a parent that sleeping doesn't .62 seem like enough EX9 I'm in survival mode in my role as a parent .62 EX6 I have zero energy for looking after my child(ren) .75 EX8 I have the impression that I'm looking after my child(ren) .73 on autopilot FU1 .83 I can't stand my role as father/mother any more FU3 I feel like I can't take any more as a parent .81 FU2 I can't take being a parent any more .93 FU4 I feel like I can't cope as a parent .73 FU5 I don't enjoy being with my child(ren) .52 ED1 I do what I'm supposed to do for my child(ren), but nothing .60 more ED2 Outside the usual routines (lifts in the car. bedtime. meals), .80 I'm no longer able to make an effort for my child(ren) ED3 I'm no longer able to show my child(ren) how much I love .64 them CO4 I'm no longer proud of myself as a parent .73 CO3 I'm ashamed of the parent that I've become .87 CO₂ I tell myself that I'm no longer the parent I used to be .79 I have the impression that I'm not myself anymore when CO5 .78 I'm interacting with my child(ren) CO1 I don't think I'm the good father/mother that I used to be to .77 my child(ren) CO6 I feel as though I've lost my direction as a dad/mum .87 Note. Factor loadings >|.40| are in bold.

Standardized regression weights from CFA in Turkish sample

Abbreviations: EX, Emotional Exhaustion; FU, Feelings of Being Fed Up; CO, Contrast with Previous Parental Self; ED, Emotional

Distancing.

trast with Previous Parental Self (6 items; e.g., *I'm no longer proud of myself as a parent*), Feelings of Being Fed Up (5 items; e.g., *I can't stand my role as father/mother anymore*), and Emotional Distancing (3 items; e.g., *I do what I'm supposed to do for my child(ren), but nothing more*). Items are rated on 7-point Likert scales: never (0), a few times a year or less (1), once a month or less (2), a few times a month (3), once a week (4), a few times a week (5), every day (6). In the initial validation study conducted with French- and English-speaking parents, Cronbach's alphas were .93, .93, .90, and .81 for the four subscales and .96 for the global score (e.g., the sum score of all PBA items) (Roskam et al., 2018).

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5.4 | Data Analyses

We first performed a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) to examine to what extent the Turkish data fit with the initial measurement model (Roskam et al., 2018), involving four interrelated factors of Emotional Exhaustion (9 items), Contrast (6 items), Feelings of Being Fed Up (5 items), and Emotional Distancing (3 items). We also tested whether the data would fit with a second-order factor model as revealed in other countries (e.g., Finland; Aunola et al., 2020) which is theoretically relevant. Preliminary analyses showed non-normal distribution, that is, values of skewness and kurtosis varied from 1.01 to 7.71 and from 7.71 to 69.59, respectively. The estimation method of Diagonally Weighted Least Squares (DWLS) with asymptotic covariance and polychoric correlation matrices was used. We referred to several goodness-of-fit indices to determine the acceptability of the models: Satorra-Bentler scaled Chi-square statistics (S-B₂2; Satorra & Bentler, 1994), the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), the standardized root mean square residual (SRMR), the comparative fit index (CFI), and the Goodness-of-Fit-Index (GFI). For CFI and GFI, values close to .90 or greater are acceptable to good. RMSEA and SRMR should preferably be less than or equal to .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999). We conducted these analyses in the LISREL software (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2012).

For measurement invariance, we implemented a set of nested models with gradually increasing parameters and constraints using a stepwise multiple group confirmatory factor analysis (MG-CFA). In the first step, we tested the Parental Burnout model for configural invariance as the basic level of measurement invariance. In the second step, we assessed item factor loadings in a metric invariance model. In the third step, we tested scalar invariance with the intercepts set as equal across groups. Finally, we verified the invariance of measurement errors for a model in which all error variances were constrained to be equal across groups. Measurement invariance is supported when the decrease in CFI is .01 or less (Δ CFI $\geq -.01$) (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

We tested the internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) of the four scales (based on the initial factor structure, Roskam et al. (2018)) and the total score of the PBA with the Turkish data, first on the pooled sample and then separately for mothers and fathers.

Finally, regarding the relation between the PBA and other variables, we computed correlations between the PBA and the mean scores of the ordinal/continuous variables (i.e., age, educational level, number of children, number of women and men in the household, neighborhood, and number of hours spent with children). We also computed one-way ANOVA to test the mean differences for categorical variables (i.e., gender, having a paid professional activity, and family type).

6 | RESULTS

6.1 | Confirmatory factor analysis

The standardized regression weights from the CFA in the Turkish sample are presented in Table 1. All the estimated factor loadings found in the CFA were significant at p < .001. Standardized factor loadings ranged between 0.52 and 0.93. Correlations between the four latent factors were .92 (Emotional Exhaustion–Contrast with Previous Parental Self), .95 (Emotional Exhaustion–Feelings of Being Fed Up), .94 (Emotional Exhaustion–Emotional Distancing), .92 (Contrast with Previous Parental Self–Feelings of Being Fed Up), .89 (Contrast with Previous Parental Self–Emotional Distancing), and .84 (Feelings of Being Fed Up–Emotional Distancing). Regarding fit indices, S-B $\chi^2((224) = 575.76$ was significant at .001

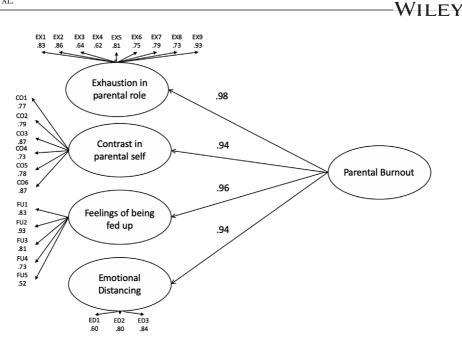


FIGURE 1 Results of the confirmatory factor analysis for the second-order factor model of the PBA

level, indicating that there was some discrepancy between the hypothesized model and the data. As the SEM is a large-sample technique, it is not uncommon to obtain a statistically significant chi-square test. Other fit measures demonstrated a good fit to the data with CFI = .99, GFI = .99, RMSEA = .06; 90% CI, [.05, .07], and SRMR = .07. Likewise, considering the high correlations between the four factors and the theoretical conceptualization of Parental Burnout, we tested a second-order model with the four factors as first-order factors and "Parental burnout" as second-order factor. The results of the second-order model are presented in Figure 1. Similarly to the previous model, this higher-order model showed a good fit to the data with S-B $\chi^2(226) = 3498.67$ (p < .001), CFI = .99, GFI = .99, RMSEA = .06; 90% CI, [.05, .07], and SRMR = .07. These results confirmed the validity of both the first-and second-order factor internal structure of the Turkish version of the PBA.

6.2 | Measurement invariance of the second-order factor parental burnout model across genders

In order to test measurement invariance across genders, we tested the second-order factor model for fathers and mothers using a stepwise multigroup CFA analysis. In the first step, the baseline or configural invariance model was used. As shown in Table 2, an adequate model fit indicated the same number and pattern of dimensions hold across genders. In the second step, this first model was contrasted with a model with constrained factor loadings to evaluate metric invariance. A CFI difference of .000 provided support for metric invariance across genders. In the third step, the intercepts were constrained to be equal across groups, and scalar invariance was tested by comparing the model fit of the metric invariance model with a constrained intercept model. The CFI difference with the preceding models was less than .001 providing support for scalar invariance. In the final model, we constrained errors to be equal across groups. Again, the CFI difference indicated that the levels of measurement error in item responses were equivalent across genders.

gender							
	S-B χ2	df	RMSEA	SRMR	GFI	CFI	ΔCFI
Configural	735.39	444	.06 [.05, .06]	.07	.98	.99	
Metric	739.93	452	.05 [.05, .06]	.08	.98	.99	.00
Scalar	783.18	475	.05 [.05, .06]	.08	.98	.99	.00
Error	753.66	498	.05 [.04, .06]	.08	.98	.99	.00

 TABLE 2
 Goodness-of-fit indices of measurement invariance of the PBA second-order factor model across gender

Abbreviations: RMSEA, root mean square error of approximation; GFI, goodness-of-fit index; CFI, comparative fit index; S-B χ^2 , Satorra–Bentler chi-squared; df, degrees of freedom; Δ CFI, change in comparative fit index.

PBA EX CO FU ED Age .04 .00 .03 .10* .03 Educational level .00 -.02.02 .06 -.04Number of children -.06-.05-.04-.04-.02Number of women -.01-.03-.04.01 .04 -.01Number of men -.01-.06.02 .04 Hours spent with children .01 .05 -.02-.01.00 Neighborhood -.01-.07.03 .10* -.07

TABLE 3 Correlations between the PBA and sociodemographic variables

Note. * p < .05.

Abbreviations: PBA, total score of the PBA; EX, Emotional Exhaustion; CO, Contrast with Previous Parental Self; FU, Feelings of Being Fed Up; ED, Emotional Distancing.

6.3 | Internal consistency

Cronbach's alphas computed for the Turkish parents were good for two subscales with α = .84 (.83 for fathers and .84 for mothers) for Emotional Exhaustion, and α = .77 (.73 for fathers and .80 for mothers) for Contrast with Previous Parental Self. For the Feelings of Being Fed Up subscale, Cronbach's alpha was .51 (.44 for fathers and .55 for mothers) and improved by removing two items (α = .77 when *I don't enjoy being with my child(ren)* and *I feel like I can't cope as a parent* were removed). The Cronbach's alpha value for the Emotional Distancing subscale was .50 (.50 for fathers and .51 for mothers) and could not be improved by removing any item. Reliability for the total score of the PBA was high, α = .90 (.89 for fathers and .91 for mothers).

6.4 | Relations with other variables

The bivariate relations between PB and sociodemographic variables are low. Correlation coefficients are displayed in Table 3. As expected, the coefficient correlations between PB and the sociodemographic characteristics of the participants are low. We also compared the mean level of PB according to gender. Contrary to what was expected, we did not find significant differences between mothers and fathers, either in the total score, F(1, 450) = 0.60, p = .437, $\eta^2 = .001$, or in the four subscales—F(1, 450) = 0.03, p = .858, $\eta^2 < .001$, for Emotional Exhaustion, F(1, 450) = 2.13, p = .145, $\eta^2 = .005$, for Contrast with Previous Parental Self, F(1, 450) = 1.07, p = .300, $\eta^2 = .002$, for Feelings of Being Fed Up, and F(1, 450) = 0.28, p = .596, $\eta^2 = .001$, for Emotional Distancing. Concerning the three most frequent types of family (two-parent, single-parent, step-family), we found significant differences for the total score, F(2, 437) = 7.17, p < .001, $\eta^2 = .032$, for Emotional Exhaustion, F(2, 437)

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	Gender		Family type		Having a paid professional activity			
	Mothers (<i>N</i> = 226)	Fathers (<i>N</i> = 222)	Two-parent family (N=380)	Single- parent family (N=45)	Step-family (N=13)	Yes (N=301)	No (N=144)	
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)	
EX	8.25 (9.85)	7.19 (8.60)	7.16 (8.51)	12.35 (12.20)	5.84 (6.39)	6.71 (7.74)	9.43 (10.98)	
CO	3.93 (7.09)	3.12 (5.45)	3.19 (5.47)	5.44 (9.08)	4.16 (9.85)	3.03 (5.34)	4.33 (7.47)	
FU	2.08 (5.14)	1.55 (4.07)	1.45 (3.76)	4.69 (8.15)	.23 (.60)	1.53 (3.95)	2.24 (5.43)	
ED	2.54 (3.79)	2.28 (3.45)	2.24 (3.30)	3.38 (4.77)	2.46 (3.97)	2.04 (3.11)	3.04 (4.22)	
Total Score	16.80 (23.09)	14.15 (18.64)	14.04 (18.19)	25.86 (31.77)	12.69 (16.34)	13.31 (16.95)	19.05 (25.50)	

TABLE 4 Descriptive statistics of PBA subscales and global score according to gender, family type, and having a paid professional activity

Abbreviations: EX, Emotional Exhaustion; CO, Contrast with Previous Parental Self; FU, Feelings of Being Fed Up; ED, Emotional Distancing.

= 7.12, p < .001, $\eta^2 = .032$, for Feelings of Being Fed Up, F(2, 437) = 11.82, p < .001, $\eta^2 = .052$. In all cases, PB was higher in single-parent families compared to two-parent families and stepfamilies. Parents with a paid professional activity displayed lower levels of PB, F(1, 444) = 9.25, p < .01, $\eta^2 = .020$. They were less emotionally exhausted, F(1, 444) = 10.75, p < .01, $\eta^2 = .024$, reported less contrast with their previous parental self, F(1, 444) = 5.00, p < .05, $\eta^2 = .011$, and were less distant from their children, F(1, 444) = 3.85, p < .05, $\eta^2 = .009$. Descriptive statistics are given in Table 4.

7 | DISCUSSION

The present study suggests that the PBA can be considered as a valid and reliable measure for Turkish parents. The results replicate the initial factor structure with its four dimensions. They also provide support to the second-order factor model encompassing the four first-order factors and a second-order factor, for example, Parental Burnout. And strong measurement invariance across genders was achieved. The reliability of the total score and of two subscales (Emotional Exhaustion and Contrast with Previous Parental Self) were found to be high. For the subscale of Feelings of Being Fed Up, the reliability score was good when two items were removed. For the fourth dimension, Emotional Distancing, reliability was low. Because Cronbach's alpha is influenced by the number of items in a scale, the low coefficient may be due to the presence of only three items in the Emotional Distancing subscale. Besides, it is also arguable that the cultural context of parenting may have affected the results. In Turkish culture, parents have a sacred place due to Islamic teaching (e.g., the Prophet's frequently repeated words: *Heaven lies beneath mothers' feet*). Participants may, therefore, be unwilling to report emotional distancing due to the traditional understanding of this sacred role. Also, Turkish parents displaying collectivist characteristics and valuing relatedness (Kagitcibasi & Ataca, 2005) may find it difficult to associate distancing characteristics in burnout. Since closeness (e.g., connectedness/relatedness) is highly valued, emotional distancing (e.g., not being connected, not being close) may strongly contradict their parenting goals, more so than is the case in individualistic cultures. Although caregiving sensitivity does not characterize all Turkish mothers (Aran, Iplikçi, Salman Engin, & Sümer, 2020), our results suggest that reporting emotional distancing or a sense of disconnection from one's children is strongly regarded as unacceptable in Turkish parenting culture. This would also explain why the reliability of the Feelings of Being Fed Up subscale was improved when the item *I don't enjoy being with my child(ren)* was removed.

Another argument also supports the main conclusion that the PBA is a valid and reliable measure for Turkish parents. As shown in a previous study on the antecedents of PB (Mikolajczak et al., 2018), the bivariate relations between PB and sociodemographic variables are low. However, no gender-related differences were found, contrary to previous research (Roskam & Mikolajczak, 2020). It appears that for Turkish parents, the term "parental burnout" is even more appropriate than "maternal burnout." When we compared the level of burnout across family types, we found a significant difference in the total score as well as in the Emotional Exhaustion and Contrast with Previous Parental Self subscales. PB was higher in single-parent families than in the two other family types. Our findings are consistent with previous literature on PB, parental stress, and partner support. Lebert-Charron and colleagues (2018) also reported that PB was higher among single mothers. The provision of help to mothers whenever they need it positively influences their perception of social support and reduces stress. Further, the socioeconomic status and parenting stress levels of Turkish mothers were both found to be associated with perceived social support (Arikan et al., 2019). Zellars and Perrewé (2001) also demonstrated that problem-solving skills were stronger in those mothers who reported that their partner was a source of social support. Sharing child-rearing responsibility, getting social support from a partner, and spending time on leisure activities can be protective factors vis-à-vis PB (Duygun & Sezgin, 2003; Lindström, Aman, & Lindhal-Norberg, 2011).

As shown in a previous study (Mikolajczak et al., 2018), parents with a paid professional activity displayed lower levels of PB. This finding replicates previously published results (Lebert-Charron et al., 2018; Sorkkila & Aunola, 2020). Similarly, Çengelci (2009) demonstrated that in Turkey, being employed prevented mothers of disabled children from experiencing emotional burnout. On the contrary, unemployed mothers caring for their disabled children all day long experienced higher emotional burnout and reported greater loss of motivation compared to working mothers. These results are consistent with the finding of Guéritault (2004) that housewives are more likely to experience burnout than working mothers. Being employed gives mothers opportunities to pursue various life goals and a time-out from their demanding caregiving activities. Employment can also provide a social support network and financial security. Like employees experiencing job burnout, who consider the family sphere as a safe haven, burned-out parents may view the workplace as an opportunity to get away from the overwhelming emotions and demands of parenting (Roskam et al., 2017).

It is also important to note that PB not only concerns those parents undergoing specific challenges, such as caring for children with disabilities but that parents in ordinary situations may also experience exhaustion in their parental role (Roskam et al., 2017). Based on 39 studies published between 2000 and 2018, Sánchez-Rodríguez, Perier, Callahan, and Séjourné (2019) reported that parents either with typical or atypical children were at risk of burning out. However, their experience of burning out can differ in some emotional dimensions. Parents of sick or disabled children are more likely to receive acknowledgment for their difficulties while meeting the needs of their children, whereas parents of normally developing children blame themselves for burning out when their offspring are doing well. In the study by Hubert and Aujoulat (2018), mothers displayed self-blame behaviors by attributing that to their personality, identity as a mother, and an explanation for their exhaustion. The current study contributes to this line of research, which acknowledges the

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relevance of PB in a collectivist culture for both clinical and research issues in community samples.

7.1 | Limitations and recommendations for future research

There are some limitations and recommendations for future research. Appropriate sampling was adopted utilizing volunteering parents and schools agreeing to participate in the study and with the help of volunteering university students. Hence, the results need to be replicated in larger, representative samples. As the positive correlations between parents' age and neighborhood and the Feelings of Being Fed Up subscale indicate, particular sample stratification can be critical in order to clarify the role of the PBA dimensions in Turkey. Therefore, to map PB comprehensively in Turkey, certain factors—such as the child's developmental phase (e.g., infancy, preschool, childhood and adolescence), socioeconomic levels, and differences across regions—should be considered.

Also, this preliminary validation study needs to be improved, especially by testing both the predictive power of the PBA. Neglect and violence toward children as well as escape and suicidal ideations are shown to be specific consequences of PB (Mikolajczak et al., 2018; Mikolajczak et al., 2019). A next step in the validation process should be to test the prospective prediction of these specific consequences (and any other consequence that might be relevant for Turkish parents) using the PBA.

When both contemporary changes and cultural differences are considered, PB likely has various sources in Turkey, which should be explored more fully in future studies. In doing so, PBA could facilitate the design of new intervention programs and public awareness campaigns around new social policies in Turkey. The PBA validation study thus lays the ground for future research and policy work to achieve these important goals.

CONFLICTS OF INTEREST

GA, MUB, EA, MM, and IR declare that they have no conflict of interest. MM and IR have now founded a Training Institute for Parental Burnout, which delivers training on parental burnout to professionals. The institute did not participate in the funding of this study, nor did it influence the process, the results, or their interpretation in any manner.

DECLARATIONS

Ethical approval: Ethical approval was obtained from the ethics committee of Istanbul Bahcesehir University (Approval No: 20021704-604.01.01-125 Date: 18.01.2018). The procedures used in this study adhere to the tenets of the Declaration of Helsinki.

Consent to participate: Written informed consent was obtained from the participants.

Consent to publish: All participants knew the results would appear in academic publications.

Contribution of authors: IR and MM provided the questionnaires and the methodology. GA, MUB and EA completed the translation procedure and the data collection. IR computed the statistical analyses. GA, MUB, EA, and IR wrote the manuscript.

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APPENDIX

TABLE A1 Parental Burnout Assessment (PBA) Turkish

sevinç ka anne-bal görünse anne-bal hissetme Aşağıdak bitkinlik derecele Doğru ve bir duyg Eğer bu o sıklıkta h "Her gün	r, anne-babaları için önemli bir memnuniyet ve aynağıdır. Aynı zamanda, çocuk sahibi olmak bazı balar için yıpratıcı olabilir. (Bu çelişkili gibi de, hem çocuğunuzu sevmeniz hem de de balık rolünüzden ötürü kendinizi bitkin eniz mümkündür.) ci anket, anne-baba olarak yaşayabileceğiniz bu hissiyle ilgilidir. İfadelerin yanında yer alan ndirilmiş yanıtlardan size en yakın olanı seçiniz. eya yanlış cevap yoktur. Eğer daha önce hiç böyle u hissetmediyseniz, "Hiçbir zaman" şıkkını seçin. duyguyu daha önce hissettiyseniz, bunu ne hissettiğinizi "Yılda birkaç kez" seçeneğinden ı" seçeneğine kadar, sizi en iyi tanımlayacak şaretleyiniz.	Hiçbir zaman	Ylda birkaç kez	Ayda bir veya daha az	Ayda birkaç kez	Haftada bir	Haftada birkaç kez	Hergün
EX3	Anne-babalık rolümden (anne-baba olmaktan) o kadar çok yoruldum ki uyku bana asla yetmiyor.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
CO6	Anne-baba olarak yolumu kaybetmiş gibi hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
EX1	Anne-babalık rolüm (anne-baba olmak) beni tamamen bitiriyor.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
EX6	Çocuğuma/çocuklarıma bakmaya hiç enerjim yok.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
CO1	Çocuğuma/çocuklarıma eskiden olduğum gibi, iyi bir anne-baba olmadığımı düşünüyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
FU1	Anne-babalık rolüme (anne-baba olmaya) tahammül edemiyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
FU3	Anne-baba olarak daha fazla dayanamazmışım gibi geliyor.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
EX8	Bazen çocuğuma/çocuklarıma bakarken otomatiğe bağladığımı düşünüyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
EX2	Anne-baba olarak tamamen tükenmiş gibi hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
EX4	Çocuğumla/çocuklarımla geçirmek zorunda olduğum bir güne uyandıysam, daha gün başlamadan kendimi tükenmiş hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

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TABLE	A 1 (Continued)							
Çocuklar, anne-babaları için önemli bir memnuniyet ve sevinç kaynağıdır. Aynı zamanda, çocuk sahibi olmak bazı anne-babalar için yıpratıcı olabilir. (Bu çelişkili gibi görünse de, hem çocuğunuzu sevmeniz hem de de anne-babalık rolünüzden ötürü kendinizi bitkin hissetmeniz mümkündür.) Aşağıdaki anket, anne-baba olarak yaşayabileceğiniz bu bitkinlik hissiyle ilgilidir. İfadelerin yanında yer alan derecelendirilmiş yanıtlardan size en yakın olanı seçiniz. Doğru veya yanlış cevap yoktur. Eğer daha önce hiç böyle bir duygu hissetmediyseniz, "Hiçbir zaman" şıkkını seçin. Eğer bu duyguyu daha önce hissettiyseniz, bunu ne sıklıkta hissettiğinizi "Yılda birkaç kez" seçeneğinden "Her gün" seçeneğine kadar, sizi en iyi tanımlayacak şekilde işaretleyiniz.			Ylda birkaç kez	Ayda bir veya daha az	Ayda birkaç kez	Haftada bir	Haftada birkaç kez	Hergün
FU5	Çocuğumla/çocuklarımla birlikte zaman geçirmekten zevk almıyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
FU4	Anne-baba olarak kendimi işlerle baş edemez gibi (baş edemeyecek gibi) hissediyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
CO2	Kendi kendime eskiden olduğum gibi bir anne-baba olamadığımı söylüyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
ED1	Çocuğum/çocuklarım için gerekli olanlar neyse sadece onları yapıyorum, daha fazlasını değil.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
EX7	Anne-baba (ebeveyn) olmak sahip olduğum tüm kaynaklarımı tüketiyor.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
FU2	Anne-baba olmayı daha fazla kaldıramıyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
CO3	Anne-baba olarak geldiğim şu halden utanıyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
CO4	Anne-baba olarak kendimle artık gurur duymuyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
CO5	Çocuğumla/çocuklarımla birlikteyken ben, ben gibi değilim.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
ED3	Artık çocuğuma/çocuklarıma, onları ne kadar sevdiğimi gösteremiyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
EX5	Çocuğum/çocuklarım için yapmam gerekenleri düşünmek bile beni tüketiyor.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
ED2	Her zaman yaptığım rutin işler (çocuğumu/çocuklarımı bir yerden bir yere götürmek, uykuya yatırmak, yemek hazırlamak) dışında, artık çocuğumla/çocuklarımla ekstra bir şey yapamaya güç bulamıyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
EX9	Anne-baba olarak sadece yapılması şart olan işleri yapıyorum.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Abbrevaitions: EX, Emotional Exhaustion; CO, Contrast with Previous Parental Self; FU, Feelings of Being Fed Up; ED, Emotional Distancing.