

Mother's Attachment Style as a Predictor for
Aggressive Behavior in Children

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in
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by

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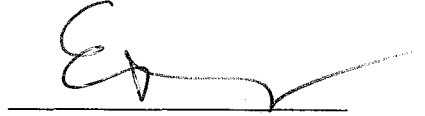
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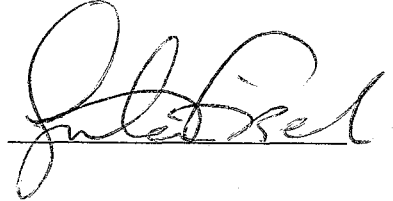
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ABSTRACT

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The aim of the present study was to examine the relationship between mothers' attachment style and aggressive behavior manifested by their children. The second goal of this study was to examine the links between children's perception of maternal acceptance-rejection and their aggressive behavior. Participants were 180 4th and 5th grade students and their mothers. Students were administered the Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire-Child Form to measure their perception of parental acceptance and rejection, and Aggression/Hostility subscale of the Personality Assessment Questionnaire to measure self-reported aggression/hostility. Adult Attachment Scale was sent to mothers to be filled out to measure their attachment styles. Finally, for those students whose mothers filled out and returned the Adult Attachment Scale, class teachers filled out the Aggression subscale of the Child Behavior Checklist-Teacher's Report Form to measure the aggressive behavior manifested by participant students. It was found that boys perceived their mothers as more rejecting, less warm, more aggressive and more neglecting. Furthermore, children's self-reported aggression/hostility was found to be related to their perception of maternal rejection and aggression/hostility. Finally, maternal avoidant attachment style was found to be related to girls' aggressive behavior.

ÖZET

Çocuklarda Görülen Saldırgan Davranışların Belirleyicisi Olarak Annelerin Bağlılık Türü

Yasemin Sohtorik

Bu çalışmanın amacı annelerin bağlılık türleri ile çocuklarında görülen saldırgan davranışlar arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Çalışmanın ikinci amacı annelerin kabul ve reddetme davranışlarının çocuk tarafından algılanması ile gösterdikleri saldırgan davranışlar arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Çalışmaya 180 tane 4 ve 5. sınıf ilköğretim öğrencisi ve anneleri katılmıştır. Annelerin kabul ve reddetme davranışlarının çocuk tarafından algılanmasını ölçmek amacıyla öğrencilere Aile Kabul ve Reddetme Ölçeği Çocuk Formu (Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire-Child Form) (PARQ) ile saldırganlık/düşmanlık ölçmek için Kişilik Değerlendirme Ölçeği (Personality Assessment Questionnaire) (PAQ) Saldırganlık/Düşmanlık alt testi verilmiştir. Annelerin bağlılık türünü ölçmek amacıyla Yetişkin Bağlılık Ölçeği (Adult Attachment Scale) (AAS) doldurulması için annelere gönderilmiştir. Annesi AAS doldurup gönderen çocuklar için sınıf öğretmenlerinin Çocuk Davranışlarını Değerlendirme Ölçeği-Öğretmen Bilgi Formu (Child Behavior Checklist-Teacher's Report Form) (CBCL-TRF) Saldırganlık alt testini doldurmaları istenmiştir. Erkek çocukların annelerini daha fazla reddedici, daha az sıcak, daha fazla agresif ve daha fazla ihmalkar algıladıkları bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, çocukların bildirdiği saldırganlık/düşmanlık ile annelerini reddedici ve saldırgan/düşmanca olarak algılamaları arasında bir ilişki bulunmuştur. Son olarak, annelerin sakıncalı bağlılık türü ile kız çocukların saldırgan davranışları arasında bir ilişki bulunmuştur.

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MOTHERS' ATTACHMENT STYLE
AS A PREDICTOR FOR
AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR IN
CHILDREN

INTRODUCTION

Recently, a growing number of researchers have begun to explore how children's attachment relationships with caretakers predict their behavior problems. Attachment theory, first developed by Bowlby (1977, 1988), describes and explains how infants become emotionally attached to their primary caregivers and emotionally distressed when separated from them. The theory was grounded in evolutionary principles. The propensity to make strong affectional bonds to particular others is seen to be a basic component of human nature (Bowlby, 1977; 1988). Bowlby argued that specific behavioral and emotional reactions associated with separation might reflect the operation of an innate attachment system designed to protect infants from danger by keeping them close to their primary caregivers. By maintaining close proximity with their caregivers, infants would be more likely to survive, to reproduce and to pass attachment propensities on to future generations. Another basic component of human nature is the urge to explore the environment, a behavior which is antithetical to attachment behavior. When the mother figure is known to be accessible and responsive when needed, the child feels secure enough to explore the environment. This is what is called the use of the mother as a "secure base" from which to explore the world and to return when frightened.

Although the tendency to seek proximity seems to be universal in infants, its development and elaboration over time is sensitive to environmental conditions, especially relationships between the infant and his or her primary caregiver. Researchers have examined different patterns of attachment behavior that develop between infants and their caregivers. Using the Strange Situation paradigm, Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, and Wall (1978; cited in Ainsworth, 1985) identified three primary

attachment styles: 1) “secure” which is characteristic of infants who successfully use their caregiver as a secure base when distressed, 2) “avoidant” which is characteristic of infants who avoid the caregiver and exhibit signs of detachment when distressed, and 3) “ambivalent” which is characteristic of infants who intermix attachment behaviors with overt expressions of protest and anger toward the primary caregiver when distressed.¹ In the Ainsworth’s Strange Situation, secure infants were ready to explore when the mother was present, but less so when she was absent and sought to be close to the mother in the reunion episode. Avoidant infants tended to maintain exploration across all episodes, were not upset by separations from the mother and avoided her in the reunion episode. Ambivalent infants were intensely upset by the separations and ambivalent to the mother in the reunion, both wanting to be close to her and at the same time being angry with her.

According to attachment theory, through continued interaction, a child develops internal working models containing beliefs and expectations about whether the caregiver is someone who is caring and responsive, and also whether the self is worthy of care and attention. These working models are then carried into new relationships where they guide expectations, perceptions and behavior. The mental models are thought to become stable and trait like over time (Simpson, Rholes, & Nelligan, 1992). Bowlby argued that the nature of early relationships becomes a model about oneself and others that influences social competence and well-being throughout life. He proposed that at least in families where caregiving arrangements continue to be stable, the pattern of attachment between child and mother, once established, tends to

¹ The “anxious/ambivalent” style has been called “ambivalent”, “resistant” or “anxious”, interchangeably. In the present study the term “ambivalent” will be used throughout to label this attachment style.

persist (Bowlby, 1988). In sum, early relationships are presumed to have a long-term impact on subsequent relationships by affecting the nature and development of these mental models.

Bowlby (1988) suggested that the style which any one individual develops is profoundly influenced by the way his or her parents treated him or her. The “secure” pattern is found to be promoted by a parent being readily available, sensitive to her child's signals, and lovingly responsive when he or she seeks protection, comfort and/or assistance. The “ambivalent” pattern is promoted by a parent being available and helpful on some occasions but not on others, by separations, and later, especially by threats of abandonment used as a means of control. The “avoidant” pattern is the result of the individual's parent constantly rebuffing them when approached for comfort or protection.

Investigating the continuity of attachment related behaviors, several recent studies have suggested that three attachment styles similar to those discovered by Ainsworth et al. (1978) also may characterize adults (Collins & Read, 1990; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Crowell & Feldman, 1988). For instance, Hazan and Shaver (1987) looked at the relative frequency of the three attachment styles in adulthood, and found similar proportions of categories as those reported in American studies of infant-mother attachment. They developed a single-item, self-report measure of attachment style designed to identify the three attachment styles according to descriptions provided by Ainsworth et al. (1978): securely, avoidantly and anxiously attached (see Appendix D). Later, several researchers (Collins & Read, 1990; Simpson, 1990; Simpson, Rholes, & Nelligan, 1992) have used a Likert-type version of Hazan and Shaver's (1987) measure of the three attachment styles to classify adult attachment (Adult Attachment Scale, AAS; See Appendix E). They found that people who

possess a secure attachment style tend to develop mental models of themselves as being valued and worthy of others' concern, support and affection, and of significant others as being accessible, reliable, trustworthy and well-intentioned. Those who have an avoidant style perceive themselves as being aloof, emotionally distant and skeptical, and significant others as being unreliable or overly eager to make longterm commitments to relationships. Finally, those who manifest an ambivalent style tend to develop mental models of themselves as being misunderstood, lacking in confidence and underappreciated, and of significant others as being undependable and either unwilling or unable to pledge themselves to committed, long term relationships.

Interviews also are employed to assess adults' current mental representations of their childhood attachment experiences. The Adult Attachment Interview (AAI) (George, Kaplan, & Main, 1985; cited in Main, 1996) was developed to assess adults' internal working models with respect to attachment relationships. AAI is a structured interview focusing largely upon an individual's early attachment experiences and their effects and influences. Attachment classifications are made on the basis of how participants evaluate the effects of childhood experiences on their current functioning rather than their description of these experiences (Main, 1996). Individuals who maintain coherent and collaborative discourse during description and evaluation of attachment related experiences, whether these experiences are described as favorable or unfavorable, are classified as secure-autonomous (secure). Individuals who exhibit normalizing, positive descriptions of parents that are unsupported or contradicted by specific memories are classified as dismissing (avoidant). These individuals report that negative experiences have had no effect on their lives. Their transcripts are short, often with insistence on lack of memory. Individuals who are preoccupied with experiences, seeming angry, confused and passive, or fearful and overwhelmed are classified as

preoccupied (ambivalent). Their transcripts are long, and some responses are irrelevant. Finally, Main (1996) identified a fourth subtype comprised of individuals who show a striking lapse in the monitoring of reasoning during discussion of loss or abuse (e.g., may speak of dead person as if still alive); these individuals who fall silent, or use eulogistic speech, are classified as unresolved/disorganized. Although researchers use AAI to measure parents' current mental representations of childhood attachment experiences, in the present study the AAS was chosen to classify mothers' attachment styles, presupposing that both methods are measuring the same dimensions.

From the argument on the cross-age continuity of attachment style, it can be proposed that a person's sensitivity and responsiveness to his or her own infant's needs is affected by his or her attachment history. Several investigators demonstrated an association between parents' internal representations of attachment, the quality of their interaction with their children and the security of their children's attachment (Matas, Alain, & Sroufe, 1978; Crowell & Feldman, 1988; Das Eidan, Teti, & Corns, 1995). For instance, Matas et al. (1978) found that mothers of securely attached infants were more sensitive and responsive to the child's signals when the infant was 2 years old. They indicated that the quality of attachment strongly predicted later aspects of behavior including more autonomous functioning. Furthermore, Crowell et al. (1988), using the AAI, showed that mothers' internal models of relationships (attachment classification) were associated with their behavior toward their children. Mothers classified as secure were supportive and helpful in assisting their children. Similarly, Das Eidan et al. (1995) found that maternal working models as measured by the AAI were related to maternal sensitivity during mother-child interactions, and suggested that maternal working models of attachment influence parenting. Furthermore, maternal working models of attachment were related to child attachment style. They

found a match between maternal and child attachment classifications in 73% of the cases such that mothers with secure working models had children who were more securely attached compared to mothers with insecure working models. Steele, Steele and Fonagy (1996) also provided evidence for continuity in the nature and quality of parent-child relationships across generations. Benoit and Parker (1994) found that internal working models of attachment tended to be perpetuated across generations. Ricks (1985) investigated the link between childhood attachment and later parental behavior. She indicated that the quality of a mother's caregiving behavior was strongly related to her memories of childhood relationships, and that the quality of early attachments influenced later adult-adult as well as parental relations.

Several other researchers tried to find a link between adults' working models of their early attachment histories, their behavior as parents, and their children's behavior problems. Cowan, Cowan, Cohn, and Pearson (1996) proposed a correlation between attachment categories in parents as measured by AAI and children's externalizing versus internalizing behavior as rated by teachers. Externalization was defined as an excess of aggression and exploitation, including antisocial behavior, hostility, negative engagement, and hyperactivity, while internalization was defined as an excess in negative emotion with inhibition and avoidance, including introversion, tension and depression. Although a significant relationship was not found between parental attachment style and offspring behavior, they suggested that parents' internal representations of attachment can function as a risk factor for the development of children's behavior problems through "parenting quality". On the other hand, Rothbaum and Weisz (1994) demonstrated that the quality of parental caregiving was associated with externalizing behavior of the child including aggressive, hostile, and noncompliant behavior. They found that caregiving variables such as approval (an

attempt to highlight desirable behaviors or characteristics of the child through positive responses), guidance (constructive assistance and supervision), motivational strategies (reliance on positive than negative incentives), synchrony (parental behavior that is congruent with the child's preceding behavior) and absence of coercive control (attempts to influence the child by using force, physical manipulation, or harsh or repetitive commands) were negatively associated with child externalizing behavior. They concluded that these caregiving variables are aspects of a larger construct that they call acceptance-responsiveness. Additionally, van Ijzendoorn and Bakermans-Kranenburg (1996) found that for boys, at 12 months of age, maternal unresponsiveness and two types of disruptive infant behavior (persistence and noncompliance), were all predictive of aggression at 24 months, which in turn was associated with externalizing behavior problems at 36 months. In contrast, for girls, maternal education and child noncompliance at 18 months of age were related to noncompliance at 24 months, which in turn was associated with both externalizing and internalizing behavior problems at 36 months. Furthermore, DeKlyen (1996) found a significant relationship between the clinical status of the child and maternal attachment style measured by the AAI. However, once child attachment was taken into account, maternal attachment style did not substantially add to the prediction of clinical status. He suggested that maternal attachment style may influence the development of behavior problems by shaping mother-child interactions.

Finally, several other studies tried to find a link between the quality of infant attachment and behavior problems with mixed results. Bates, Maslin, and Frankel (1985), using mother ratings on the Behar Preschool Behavior Questionnaire, did not find a relationship between attachment classification and problem behaviors during preschool. Similarly, examining the same sample using the Child Behavior Checklist

(CBCL), Bates and Bayles (1988) found that attachment security at 13 months did not predict mothers' reports of behavior problems in their 5 and 6-year-olds. Furthermore, Fagot and Kavanagh (1990) found that parents of children classified as secure reported approximately the same number of behavior problems, as measured by CBCL, in their offspring as did parents of children classified as insecure (avoidant and ambivalent). They suggested that great caution needs to be taken when making clinical predictions concerning future problems from attachment classifications. On the other hand, Ericson, Sroufe, and Egeland (1985) found a strong relationship between quality of attachment and behavior problems as rated by teachers in a high-risk preschool sample. Avoidant children were described by their teachers as hostile, impulsive, giving up easily and withdrawn. Ambivalent children lacked confidence and assertiveness and tended to be incompetent in interactions with peers. Lewis, Feiring, McGuffog, and Jaskir (1984), used a modified version of the Ainsworth Strange Situation involving only one separation and no stranger, with a middle-class sample of children at 12 months of age. Mothers ratings of their children on the CBCL revealed a differential effect of the quality of attachment on later psychopathology for males and females. For males, attachment classification at one year was significantly related to later psychopathology; insecurely attached males showed more psychopathology than securely attached males. No relationship between attachment and later psychopathology was observed for females. They concluded that infants are not made invulnerable by secure attachments nor they are made vulnerable to later psychopathology by insecure attachments. In sum, although there is contradictory evidence, all these studies indicate that both maternal and child attachment styles are related to children's behavior problems through parent-child interaction.

The quality of parenting has important consequences on the behavior and personality development of children. One dimension of parenting, warmth, has received special attention in the last several decades. Rohner (1975; 1980) developed a theory of parental acceptance-rejection to explain the impact of parental warmth upon behavioral, cognitive, and emotional development in children and upon personality functioning of adults. Parental acceptance-rejection may be viewed from two perspectives: as subjectively experienced by the child, and as externally measured by an outside observer (Rohner, 1980). For instance, behavior observations measured within a family might reveal a significant amount of parental aggression, but the child may not perceive the anger as being directed at him, and, therefore, may not feel rejected. Thus, parental acceptance-rejection theory proposes that parental rejection has its most consistent and predictable effects on children primarily if the child perceives the parent's behavior as being rejecting (Rohner, 1980). Consequently, in this study the child's perception of acceptance-rejection will be considered here, not the parent's subjective report of acceptance-rejection..

Parental acceptance and rejection are two opposite poles of the parental warmth dimension. All humans can be placed somewhere on this dimension, because all humans as a child experienced more or less warmth or rejection. Accepting parents are defined as parents who show their love or affection toward children either physically or verbally, whereas rejecting parents are defined as those who withdraw their warmth, affection, and love from their children. In addition to the absence of warmth and affection, called parental coldness, parental rejection is manifested in three other ways: hostility and aggression; indifference and/or neglect; and undifferentiated rejection. Hostility and indifference are internal states within the parents. Hostility refers to feelings of anger, resentment or enmity toward the child. Indifference is

defined as a lack of caring, interest, or concern about the child. On the other hand aggression and neglect are observable directly, and they are the behavioral manifestations of feelings of hostility and indifference, respectively. Aggression refers to any behavior which is intended to either physically or psychologically hurt someone. Neglect is the physical or emotional unavailability to the child or unresponsiveness to the child's needs. When the child feel that his/her parents do not love him/her or care about him/her, but there is not any objective sign of coldness, aggression or neglect. This form of rejection is called undifferentiated rejection.

Parental acceptance-rejection theory proposes that perceived parental acceptance-rejection has consistent effects on the behavioral and personality dispositions of children. The theory predicts that in comparison to accepted children, rejected (or emotionally abused) children tend to be more hostile, aggressive and passive aggressive or to have problems with management of hostility and aggression, to be dependent, to have an impaired sense of self-esteem and self-adequacy, to be emotionally unstable and emotionally unresponsive and to have a negative world view (Rohner, 1975; 1980; 1994). Furthermore, rejected children become resentful or angry at their parents and fear more rejection; this may result in defensive independence or emotional withdrawal from the parents. It is proposed that behind this defensive independence is often an unrecognized longing to reestablish a warm, nurturing relationship with parents. Rohner, Rohner, and Roll (1980) in a cross-cultural study of children's behavioral dispositions as measured by the Personality Assessment Questionnaire (PAQ) found that perceived parental rejection accounted for 46% of the variance among American, and 41% of the variance among Mexican children's reported behavioral dispositions. Several other researchers administering the PARQ also found positive relationships between perceived parental rejection and behavioral

and personality dispositions among high school students in Pakistan (Haque, 1987), and among college students in Egypt (Salama, 1987). With the exception of the relation between dependency and perceived acceptance, Rohner (1980) found that all personality variables (emotional unresponsiveness, aggression, negative world view, negative self-adequacy, dependency, emotional instability and negative self-esteem), as measured by PAQ, were significantly correlated with both perceived parental rejection and perceived parental acceptance.

In conclusion children who perceive their mothers as rejecting are more likely than children who perceive their mothers as accepting, to be children who develop avoidant and ambivalent attachment bonds in early childhood. Bowlby (1977) proposes that insecure individuals have been exposed to parenting patterns which include one or both parents being persistently unresponsive to their care eliciting behavior (e.g., crying and calling) and/or actively humiliating and rejecting. He also suggests that those people labeled as psychotic and/or hysterical have histories of prolonged deprivation of maternal care during early years of life, usually combined with later rejection and/or threats of rejection by their parents. Furthermore, he suggested that the avoidant attachment pattern is the result of the individual's mother constantly rejecting them when they approach her for comfort or protection. If rejection persists, this pattern leads to a variety of personality disorders, from compulsive self-sufficient individuals to persistently delinquent ones. Similarly, Ainsworth (1985) suggested that mothers of securely attached infants are more accessible and more positively responsive to them than the mothers of insecurely attached infants. Mothers of securely attached infants are sensitively responsive to infant crying and to other signs of need for close bodily contact. They are less rejecting, interfering and/or ignoring than the mothers of the other infants. Mothers of insecurely attached babies are

generally less sensitively responsive to infant signals; they delay responding to crying and lack affectionate and careful behavior when holding the baby. Mothers of the avoidant babies are the most rejecting. Tracy and Ainsworth (1981) demonstrated that mothers of avoidantly attached babies are less likely to show close bodily contact toward their baby. When they showed affectionate behavior, this was usually through kissing. Mothers of ambivalent babies were not rejecting, but tend to be interfering or ignoring (Ainsworth, 1985). They were inconsistent in their responding. Rosen and Rothbaum (1993) demonstrated that mothers of securely attached children were more responsive to their children's needs, as measured by the Parental Acceptance Coding Scheme, than were mothers of insecurely attached children.

In sum, these data suggest links between parents' working models of their early attachment histories, their behavior as parents, and their children's behavior problems. One aim of the present study was to examine the relationship between mothers' attachment style and aggressive behavior manifested by their children. A second aim was to determine the impact of the children's perception of the maternal acceptance or rejection upon their aggressive behavior. The focus was on aggressive behavior because it is the most common index of children's behavioral disturbances.

In this study, the following hypotheses were tested:

- 1) Mothers who were perceived as more rejecting would be more likely to have children who manifested more aggressive behavior problems than mothers who were perceived as more accepting.
- 2) Mothers who had higher scores on the avoidant and ambivalent attachment subscales would be more likely to have children who manifested more aggressive

behavior problems than mothers who had higher scores on the secure attachment subscale.

- 3) Mothers with a secure attachment style would be perceived as significantly less rejecting than those with avoidant and ambivalent attachment styles, ambivalent mothers would be perceived as significantly less rejecting than mothers with an avoidant attachment style.

METHOD

Participants

Participants were 180 4th and 5th grade elementary school students, recruited from four different elementary schools in Istanbul, and their mothers. The schools represented middle or middle-high socio-economic class. The participants (85 females and 95 males) ranged in age from 9 to 12 years ($M=10.5$, $SD=0.56$). Fifty four percent of the participants were firstborn, 40% second born, 5% third born and only one was fourth born.

The mean age for mothers was 38.6 years ($SD=4.55$). Eighty five percent of the mothers were married or living together with their husbands, 14 % were divorced and 1% were widowed. Among those married women, 4 mothers were in a second marriage and the participant children were from the first marriage. Two students had stepmothers. Because they were the primary caregivers since age 4, they were included in the sample. Mothers' average education was 12.5 years ($SD=3.06$), with 88% having a high school degree or more. The distribution of education level for the mothers is shown in Figure 1. The primary and secondary education levels were combined since there were very few mothers with primary education level.

The distribution of mothers in terms of the number of children they have is shown in Figure 2. Thirty four percent of the mothers had one child, 58% had two, 7% had three and only one mother had 5 children.

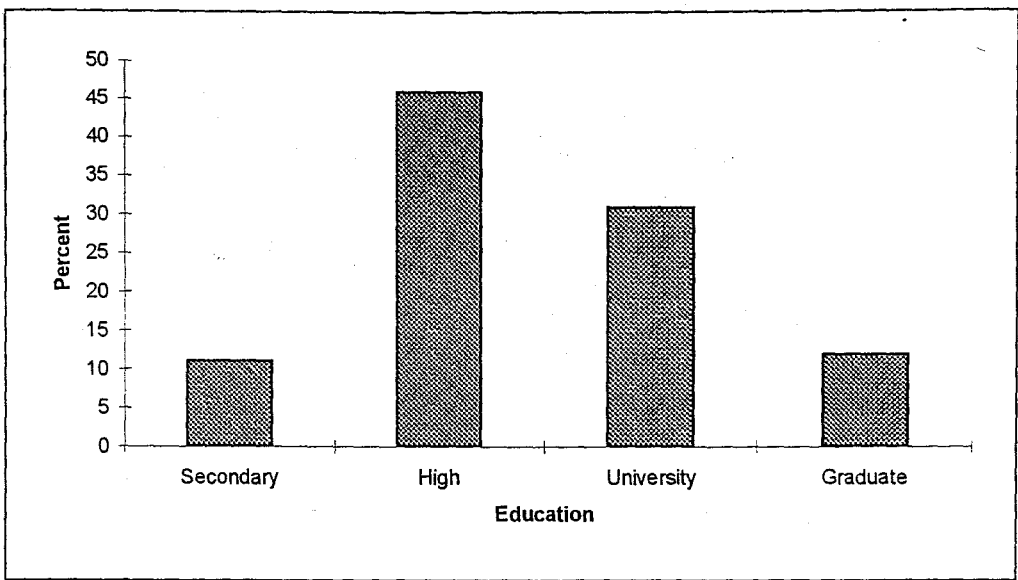


Figure 1: Distribution of mothers in terms of education level.

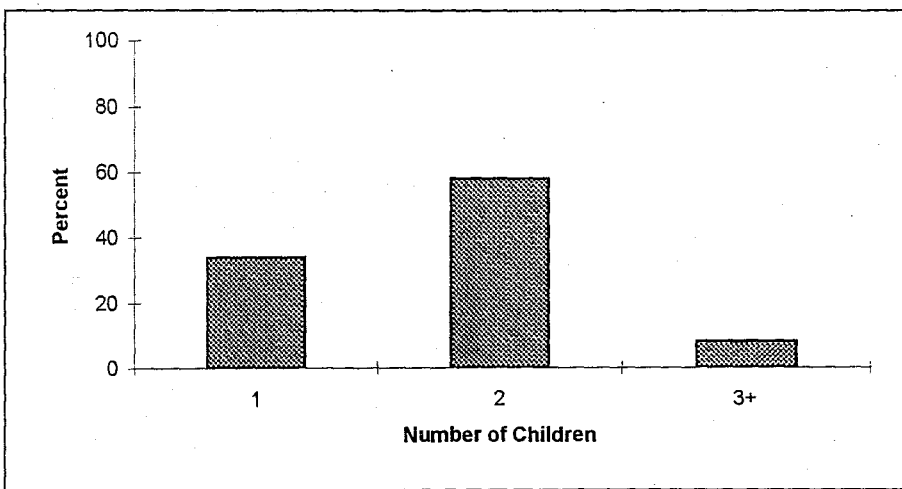


Figure 2: Distribution of mothers in terms of number of children they have.

In the sample, fifty two percent of the mothers were not working, while 48% were working part-time or full-time. The distribution of mothers' occupational status is shown in Figure 3. Forty three percent of the mothers were housewives, 18% were business administrators or managers, 10% were civil servants, 7% were professionals,

7% were retired, 6% were self-employed and 9% were belonging to other categories such as artists, tradesmen, workers etc.

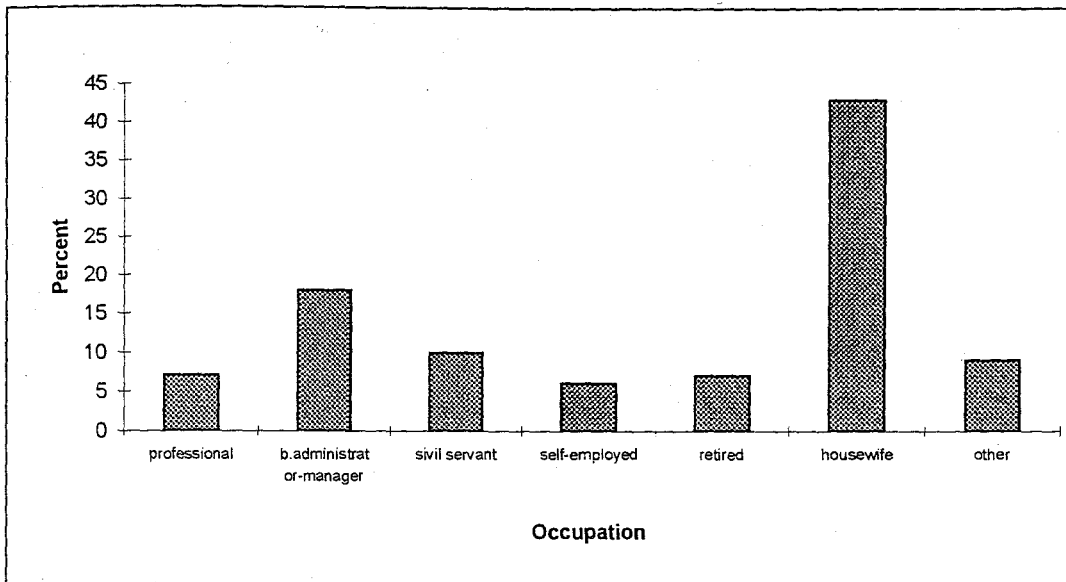


Figure 3: Distribution of mothers in terms of occupational status.

Instruments

The Child Behavior Checklist-Teacher's Report Form (CBCL-TRF):

Originally developed by Achenbach and Edelbrock in 1986 (Achenbach, 1991; cited in Erol & Simsek, 1997), the CBCL-TRF is a behavioral assessment instrument designed to obtain teachers' reports of children's (ages 5-18) problem behavior, school performance and adaptive functioning. The CBCL-TRF includes demographic questions, questions about school performance and adaptive behavioral functioning. It also includes 112 behavior problem items rated on a 3-point scale from 0 (not true) to 2 (very true or often true). The behavior problem items consist of the following subscales: Anxious, Social Withdrawal, Unpopular, Self-destructive, Obsessive-

Compulsive, Inattentive, Nervous-Overactive and Aggressive. The CBCL-TRF provides scores for Total Problems, Internalizing Problems, Externalizing Problems and the eight subscales.

The CBCL-TRF was first translated into Turkish by Akkök, Askar and Sucuoğlu (1988; cited in Erol & Simsek, 1997). Standardization studies were carried out on a sample of boys age 7 to 12 years (Akkök et al, 1988) and girls at same ages (Akkök et al., 1988; Akkök & Askar, 1989; cited in Erol & Simsek, 1997). The 1991 version of the form was reviewed, and the Turkish version was revised in accordance with the original form. Then the form was examined by a Turkish linguist and some of the expressions were corrected. This final form was administered to 20 teachers. For reliability, the final form was administered to the teachers of 49 students twice with an interval of 15 days. Test-retest coefficients for the Total Problems was found to be .88. Internal consistency was assessed through Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients which was found to be .84 for the Total Problems. The Aggression subscale of the CBCL-TRF consisting of 38 items, was used in the present study in order to measure the aggressive behavior problems manifested by children (see Appendix A). Aggression score was computed by summing the item scores.

Parental Acceptance-Rejection Questionnaire (PARQ-Child): The PARQ is a self-report instrument designed to measure individuals' perceptions of parental acceptance and rejection (Rohner, Saavedra, & Granum, 1978; cited in Rohner, 1980). The instrument consists of four scales: 1) perceived parental warmth/affection (20 items), 2) perceived parental aggression/hostility (15 items), 3) perceived parental neglect/indifference (15 items), and 4) perceived parental undifferentiated rejection (10 items). Items are responded to on a 4 point scale ranging from almost always true (4) to almost never true (1). Before developing a total score for the scale, all items in the

“warmth” and seven items in the “neglect/indifference” subscales must be reverse scored so that higher scores reflect increasing perception of rejection.

The validity and reliability of the original scale were assessed on a sample of 220 fourth and fifth grade children. The internal consistency was assessed through Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient which was found to range from .72 to .90. The translation of the PARQ into Turkish was undertaken by Polat (1988) using a back translation technique. Alpha Coefficients of the PARQ subscales were found to range from .76 to .89. The Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient of the total scale was found to be .80. The reliability and validity studies of the Turkish form of the PARQ were carried out by Erdem (1990). The reliability, test-retest coefficient over an interval of two to three weeks, was .70 for the total scale. Test-retest reliabilities for the subscales were .64 for the Warmth subscale, .62 for the Aggression/Hostility subscale, .64 for the Neglect/Indifference subscale, and .48 for the Undifferentiated Rejection subscale. Internal consistency, assessed through Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient, was .95 for the total scale and ranged between .78 and .89 for the subscales. Item correlation ranged between .34 and .67 except for items 28 and 58. These two items had low item total correlations and thus deletion was recommended.

Validity studies of the PARQ revealed that children who score higher on PARQ score significantly higher on the Trait Anxiety Scale, Children’s Attributional Style Questionnaire, Parental Attitude Research Instrument (PARI) F3 (rejection of homemaking role), PARI F4 (marital conflict) and PARI F5 (strict discipline) than those who score lower. Furthermore, children who scored higher on the PARQ were found to score significantly lower on the Piers Harris Children’s Self Concept Scale, PARI F2 (democracy) and Academic Achievement. Factor analysis yielded the same two factors found in the original study (Rohner, 1980). Factor 1 contained items from

the warmth subscale and half of the indifference/neglect subscale. Factor 2 contained items from the aggression/hostility and undifferentiated rejection subscales (see Appendix B).

Coldness (warmth/affection scale reverse scored), aggression/hostility, neglect/indifference and undifferentiated rejection scale scores were computed by summing the item scores in each scale (see Appendix B for reverse scoring). The total rejection score was computed by summing the aforementioned four scale scores.

Personality Assessment Questionnaire (PAQ-Child): The PAQ is a self-report questionnaire measuring the way children (ages 7-12) perceive their own personality/behavioral dispositions. The PAQ has seven subscales each with 6 items. The subscales measure aggression/hostility, dependency, negative self-esteem, negative self-adequacy, emotional unresponsiveness, emotional instability and negative world view. Items are scored on a 4 point Likert scale with “almost always true” assigned a score of 4 and “almost never true” assigned a score of 1. Some items on the questionnaire were keyed in the opposite direction in order to avoid response bias; these items, therefore are reversed. In the present study only the Aggression/Hostility Subscale was used. None of the items in this scale require reverse scoring. Self-reported aggression/hostility score was computed by summing the item scores.

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was used as a measure of reliability which was found to range from .46 to .74. All scales with the exception of the Emotional Unresponsiveness which was not validated, were found to be significantly related to their validation scales at the $p < .001$ level with the exception of the Negative Self-Adequacy scale which correlated with its validation scale at the $p < .05$ level. Factor analysis yielded 6 factors accounting for 52.1% for the variance. The first factor may be labeled Self-Evaluation. The second factor is uninterpretable. The third factor

represented Dependency, the fourth factor Hostility and Aggression, the fifth factor Emotional Instability and the sixth factor Negative World View. The reliability alpha of the Turkish version of the PAQ scales ranged from .44 to .66 (Polat, 1988) (see Appendix C).

Adult Attachment Scale (AAS): The Likert-type version of Hazan and Shaver's (1987) measure of the three attachment styles will be used to classify adult attachment. Hazan and Shaver (1987) translated the three infant attachment styles into terms appropriate for adult relationships. They created three vignettes (see Appendix D), each characterizing one attachment category, and asked subjects to choose the one description that best characterized themselves. These vignettes then were decomposed into individual sentences by Collins and Read (1990). The AAS (see Appendix E) has 18 items which are responded to on a 5 point scale, ranging from not at all characteristic (1) to very characteristic (5). Factor analysis revealed three factors labeled as Depend, Anxiety, and Close. Depend is a measure of how one trusts others and depends on them. Anxiety is felt anxiety in relationships, such as fear of being abandoned and not being loved. Close represents the extent of feeling comfortable with closeness and intimacy. There was a moderate relation between the Close and Depend factors ($r=.38$) and weak relations between Anxiety and Close ($r=-.08$) and Anxiety and Depend ($r=-.24$). Test-retest correlations for these three factors were .68, .71, and .52, respectively. The AAS was translated to Turkish by Alp (1998) (see Appendix F). Item 11 was discarded on the Turkish version, so the scale consists of a total of 17 items which are responded to on a 4-point scale from 1 (not at all characteristic) to 4 (very characteristic).

Internal consistency was used as a measure of reliability. All items in each subscale, with the exception of one item (item 11) in the ambivalent subscale,

significantly correlated with the score on that subscale, but for the most part failed to correlate or negatively correlated with the items on the other two subscales.

Alp (1998) also reported evidence for the validity of the AAS. Specifically, it was found that (1) ability scores measured by a general ability test did not predict the AAS subscale scores, (2) secure scores were negatively related to anxiety scores which were measured by Four Systems Anxiety Questionnaire, and (3) avoidant and ambivalent scores correlated positively with anxiety scores.

All three subscales of the AAS were used in the present investigation: 1) secure (6 items), 2) avoidant (6 items) and 3) ambivalent (5 items). Attachment scores were computed by summing the item scores in each scale and three scores were assigned to each participant.

Procedure

Official permission was obtained before administering the instruments. Following this, directors of the elementary schools were visited, and the purpose and procedures of the project were explained. With the approval of the class teachers, the PARQ and the Agression/Hostility subscale of the PAQ were administered to the students during their class-time. These instruments were administered to a total of 298 fourth and fifth graders by the investigator. The total time for filling out the forms ranged from 20 to 40 minutes. At the same time a form covering the demographic questions and the AAS was given to the students, in an envelope with a letter explaining the purpose of the study, to be filled out by their mothers. Neither mothers nor students were asked to write their names; instead a coding system was used to identify mother-child pairs. For those 180 students whose mothers filled out and returned the forms, class-teachers

were asked to fill out the CBCL-TRF. A total of 11 class-teachers filled out the CBCL-TRF for a total of 126 participants.

RESULTS

The means and standard deviations of the scores on the CBCL-TRF, PARQ, PAQ and AAS were computed as a function of sex (see Table 1). A one way analysis of variance was applied to the data. The analyses indicated significant sex differences for total rejection scores ($F(1, 179)=9.14, p<.001$); coldness ($F(1, 179)=8.96, p<.001$), aggression/hostility ($F(1, 179)=5.99, p<.02$), neglect/indifference ($F(1, 179)= 6.49, p<.01$) scores on the PARQ; and secure attachment scores ($F(1, 178)=4.55, p<.03$) on the AAS. Mean total rejection scores were significantly higher for boys than for girls. Boys also scored significantly higher on the coldness, aggression/hostility, and neglect/indifference subscales on the PARQ than girls. Additionally, mothers of daughters scored significantly higher on the secure attachment subscale on the AAS than mothers of sons. Furthermore, sex difference for teacher reported aggression

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for all Dependent and Independent Variables

Instrument/Subscale	Number		Mean		SD		F values
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	
PARQ							
Total rejection	95	85	85.2	78.1	18.74	11.41	$F(1,179)=9.14 **$
Coldness	95	85	28.2	25.3	7.59	4.59	$F(1,179)=8.96 **$
Aggression/hostility	95	85	21.2	19.1	7.05	4.21	$F(1,179)=5.99 *$
Neglect/indifference	95	85	20.5	18.9	4.44	3.42	$F(1,179)=6.49 **$
Undifferentiated Rejection	95	85	15.3	14.7	3.77	3.20	$F(1,179)=1.25$
AAS							
Secure attachment	95	84	15.6	16.6	3.40	2.96	$F(1,178)=4.55 *$
Avoidant attachment	94	84	11.9	12.2	2.79	3.13	$F(1,177)=0.27$
Ambivalent attachment	95	85	6.8	6.9	1.80	2.09	$F(1,179)=0.42$
CBCL-TRF							
Aggression	69	57	10.6	6.9	13.14	9.99	$F(1,125)=3.01 !$
PAQ							
Self-reported aggression/hostility	93	84	11.0	10.5	3.36	3.48	$F(1,176)=1.08$

* $p<.05$ ** $p<.01$! $p<.10$.

Note: Because CBCL-TRFs are available for 126 children and all other measures are available for 180 children and mothers, values of degrees of freedom are not same in all analysis.

scores approached significance ($F(1, 125)=3.01, p<.09$). Mean teacher reported aggression scores were higher for boys than for girls. There was no significant effect of mothers' educational level for any of the variables. Because there were sex differences for some of the variables, all analyses were conducted for boys and girls separately.

To test the relation between teacher reported aggression scores and self-reported aggression/hostility scores Pearson product-moment correlation was computed. The correlation coefficient was not significant. Because there was not a correlation between teacher reported aggression and self-reported aggression/hostility scores, the analyses were repeated with respect to each measure.

The *first hypothesis* that children's perception of maternal acceptance-rejection would relate to their aggressive behavior was tested by means of regression analyses. Simple regressions were computed to test the effect of total rejection scores on teacher reported aggression separately for girls and boys. The regression coefficients were not significant for either sex. Then the total rejection scores were broken down into the component subscale scores and stepwise regressions were computed with coldness, aggression/hostility, neglect/indifference and undifferentiated rejection scores to predict teacher reported aggression separately for girls and boys. For girls, aggression/hostility scores accounted for 9% of the variance in teacher reported aggression scores ($F(1, 55)=5.53, p<.02$). The results are presented in Table 2. For boys, the resulting regression coefficients were not significant.

The analyses were repeated with self-reported aggression/hostility scores. Simple regressions were computed by using the total rejection scores to predict self-reported aggression/hostility scores for girls and boys separately. For girls, the total

Table 2

Stepwise Regression of Teacher Reported Aggression on Aggression/Hostility for Girls

Independent variable	Multiple R	R ²	F	df	p
Aggression/Hostility	.30	.09	5.53	1, 55	0.02

rejection scores accounted for 28% of the variance in self-reported aggression/hostility ($F(1, 82)=31.99, p<.001$) (see Table 3). For boys, the total rejection scores accounted for 16% of the variance in self-reported aggression/hostility ($F(1, 91)=17.27, p<.001$) (see Table 3). Then, stepwise regressions were computed by using coldness, aggression/hostility, neglect/indifference and undifferentiated rejection scores to predict self-reported aggression for girls and boys separately. For girls, aggression/hostility scores accounted for 28% of the variance in self-reported aggression/hostility ($F(1, 81)=32.11, p<.001$). With neglect/indifference entered, the equation accounted for 32% of the variance in self-reported aggression/hostility ($F(2, 81)=19.09, p<.001$). For boys, aggression/hostility scores accounted for 23% of the variance in self-reported aggression/hostility ($F(1, 91)=27.69, p<.001$). Other variables did not add significant variance to the equation. These results are presented in Table 3.

In summary, girls' perception of maternal aggression/hostility accounted for variance in their aggressive behavior reported by their teachers. Additionally, children's perception of maternal rejection and aggression/hostility accounted for variance in their self-reported aggression/hostility. Furthermore, girls' perception of maternal neglect/indifference accounted for variance in their self-reported aggression/hostility.

The *second hypothesis* that mothers' attachment style would relate to their children's aggressive behavior was tested by means of regression analysis. Stepwise

regressions were computed using mothers' secure, avoidant and ambivalent attachment scores to predict teacher reported aggression scores for girls and boys separately. For either sex, none of the regression coefficients reached significance.

Table 3
Simple and Stepwise Regressions of Self-reported Aggression/Hostility on Total Rejection, Aggression/Hostility and Neglect/Indifference.

Independent variables	Multiple R	R ²	F	df
Girls				
Total Rejection	.52	.28	31.99 *	1, 82
Aggression/Hostility	.53	.28	32.11 *	1, 82
Neglect/Indifference	.56	.32	19.09 *	2, 81
Boys				
Total Rejection	.40	.16	17.27 *	1, 91
Aggression/Hostility	.48	.23	27.69 *	1, 91

* p<.001.

Each attachment score was then categorized into two high and low groups, according to the following criteria: those mothers whose scores were equal to or greater than the median were classified into the high secure, avoidant and ambivalent attachment groups, whereas those whose scores were less than the median were classified into the low secure, avoidant and ambivalent attachment groups. Medians were calculated for girls (median secure=17, median avoidant=12 and median ambivalent=6) and boys (median secure=16, median avoidant=11 and median ambivalent=7) separately, and these served as cut off scores for high and low groups. The means and standard deviations of the teacher reported aggression scores were calculated as a function of group (see Table 4). One way analysis of variance was applied to the data. For girls, it was found that mean teacher reported aggression

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations of Children's Teacher Reported Aggression Scores as a Function of Mothers' High and Low Standing on Attachment Subscales.

		Secure		Avoidant		Ambivalent	
		High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Girls	Mean	6.1 (31)	8.2 (25)	9.7 (28)	4.1 (29)	7.9 (39)	4.8 (18)
	SD	11.26	8.35	12.03	6.6	10.61	8.39
Boys	Mean	10.8 (38)	10.2 (31)	11.0 (45)	9.9 (23)	10.3 (33)	10.8 (30)
	SD	12.46	14.12	14.16	11.45	13.60	12.89

scores were significantly higher for the high avoidant attachment group than for the low avoidant attachment group ($F(1, 56)=4.74, p<.03$).

The analyses were repeated with self-reported aggression/hostility scores. Stepwise regressions were computed by using mothers' secure, avoidant and ambivalent attachment scores to predict self-reported aggression/hostility scores, separately for girls and boys. None of the regression coefficients reached statistical significance for either sex. Furthermore, means and standard deviations of the self-reported aggression/hostility scores were calculated as function of group for boys and girls separately. One way analysis of variance yielded no significant effect of group for either sex. In summary, highly avoidant mothers had daughters who manifested aggressive behavior as reported by their teachers.

The *third hypothesis* that children's perception of maternal acceptance-rejection would relate to their mothers' attachment style was tested by means of Pearson product-moment correlations relating secure, avoidant, ambivalent attachment scores and total rejection scores. The correlation coefficients were not significant.

DISCUSSION

The results indicate that boys perceived their mothers to be significantly more rejecting, less warm, more aggressive and more neglecting as compared to girls. It is interesting to note that these results are different from those of Turkish children's perception of their mothers found in Polat's (1988) study. Polat (1988) found no sex difference in perceived maternal acceptance and rejection among Turkish children. Similarly, American studies indicate no sex difference in children's perception of their mothers. Rohner (1980) in an American sample, found no sex differences in children's perception of maternal warmth. Furthermore, Rohner, Rohner and Roll (1980) found that sex was weakly related to total rejection scores among American children. On the other hand, Haque (1987) found that Pakistani boys perceived their mothers to be significantly less warm and more rejecting than girls.

These different results from different studies can be explained by cultural context and differential perception of parental control by children. Polat (1988) argues that in countries where permissive parental control is prevalent, strict control is perceived as rejection by children and adolescents. She further argues that parental discipline is not perceived as rejection in the cultural context where strict parental discipline is prevalent and thus perceived as normal by the children. Consistently, she found that children did not associate parental warmth and parental control in her study. Furthermore, she found that although boys received more physical punishment than girls, they did not perceive themselves to be more rejected than girls. Thus, she concluded that physical punishment did not affect the children's perception of parental acceptance and rejection. She explained this by the social comparison process that in a community where most boys are punished physically, the child does not perceive

himself as the only person receiving physical punishment thus may not experience this as painful.

On the other hand, Haque (1987) argues that Pakistani mothers from both middle and working class use power assertion techniques to regulate their sons' behavior and to ensure compliance, and this is perceived as rejection. He argues that mothers in Pakistan demand respect, obedience and faithfulness from their sons and daughters. Girls usually submit societal norms and are often obedient, whereas boys are often disobedient. Boys who are seen as "old-age security value" receive more coercive measures by their mothers when they are disobedient, and therefore they perceive less warmth and more rejection compared to girls.

Turkish mothers from both middle and working class generally demand respect and obedience from their children and use coercive measures to punish misbehavior. It is not surprising that Polat (1988) did not find sex differences in the children's perception of parental acceptance-rejection in a sample in which 50% of the children belonged to lower social class where strict parental discipline is perceived as normal. In the present study, however, families were from the middle and high-socio-economic groups where children are becoming more independent and self-reliant. In this context mothers' use of power assertion techniques might be perceived as rejection, especially by boys who compared to girls are more disobedient and thus receive more punishment. Excess disobedience in boys may reflect a developmental sequence in which boys and their mothers reciprocally escalate coercion. That is, mothers' use of coercive measures to punish disobedience in their sons results in more disobedience or other coercive behaviors and this leads mothers to use coercive measures more, thus producing a coercive cycle (Patterson, 1976). This process might lead boys to perceive their mothers as less warm and more rejecting. In sum, it can be concluded that the

social context has an important effect on the perception of parental acceptance-rejection.

In the present study, the first hypothesis was partially supported. Self-reported aggression/hostility, but not teacher reported aggression, was found to be related to children's perception of parental rejection for both sexes. It seems that for girls twenty eight percent of the variation in self-reported aggression/hostility can be accounted for by perceived rejection. Similarly, for boys sixteen percent of the variation in self-reported aggression/hostility is accounted for by their rejection scores. These results suggest that children's self-reported aggression/hostility varies significantly with their perception of parental rejection. Consistently, Rohner and Rohner (1980) argue that the rejected child is likely to become hostile, aggressive or passive-aggressive especially if rejection takes the form of parental hostility. They argue that under these conditions the child is provided with an aggressive model to imitate.

There are several points to consider when interpreting the lack of association between teacher reported aggressive behavior and children's perception of parental rejection found in this study. First of all, it may be that children in Turkey do not exhibit aggressive behavior at school. The Turkish school system is very structured and teachers are authoritarian. In that kind of a hierarchical system children may inhibit their aggressive behavior at least in the presence of their teachers. The finding that there was not a correlation between teacher-reported and self-reported aggression scores also confirms the notion that children suppress their real dispositions in the school setting. Second, the sample was not drawn from the kind of population that generates overt childhood behavior problems. It included middle and upper-middle class families in which children might have fewer behavior problems. The middle class children have more educated mothers and fathers, and they grow up in a permissive

type of social environment. The sample did not involve families from a lower socioeconomic background where life circumstances are less stable and high degree of life stress is present. Dodge, Pettit, and Bates (1994) found a relation between low socioeconomic status and behavior problems. They found that the risk of behavior problems and the mean behavior problem score on the CBCL-TRF increased linearly as the socioeconomic status decreased. These factors might have led to lack of variance and lack of high scores in the teacher reported aggression scores. Third, it might be argued that the sample was not a random sample in that only those mothers willing to participate were involved in the study. From those two hundred ninety eight mothers who were sent the Adult Attachment Scales, one hundred eighty mothers sent back the scales and teacher reported aggression scores were available only for one hundred twenty six children. This means that there was more than 50% subject loss. It can be speculated that mothers of highly aggressive children may have not participated in the study.

However, these last two considerations do not explain the relation between self-reported aggression/hostility and children's perception of parental rejection. It is important to note that the aggression subscale of the CBCL-TRF and aggression/hostility subscale of the PAQ are measuring different things. The former measures the aggression that manifests itself in behavior, the latter measures aggression in terms of behavioral dispositions. The finding that there was not a relation between teacher reported and self-reported aggression scores is in line with this situation. Another explanation of this lack of association between teacher reported aggression scores and self-reported aggression/hostility scores might be that teachers' perception is influenced by factors that are not related to the children's actual behavior. These factors might be teachers' unwillingness to report problem behaviors

in their own class, classroom dynamics, children's social class, the school environment, etc. In effect, contextual variables might be strong enough to override actual observations. Finally, both PARQ and PAQ were rated by the children themselves resulting in the lack of independence of data sources.

When the subscales of the PARQ were taken into account, the aggression/hostility subscale was found to predict nine percent of the variance in teacher reported aggression scores, only for girls. Furthermore, self-reported aggression/hostility for girls was found to be related to their perception of parental aggression/hostility and neglect/indifference, and for boys to be related to their perception of parental aggression/hostility. The finding that girls' but not boys' teacher reported aggressive behavior was accounted for by their perception of parental aggression/hostility is interesting. Consistent with the argument that CBCL-TRF measures observable behavior problems, it can be suggested that the effect of perception of maternal aggression/hostility shows itself in girls' aggressive behavior observable to their teachers. Lack of the same relationship for boys can be explained by the fact that although the influence of maternal factors do not dissipate at these ages (9 to 12), fathers may be more influential in shaping their sons' behavior, thus reducing the possible impact of mothers rejection. Chodorow (1974) argues that all children beginning life are dependent upon an adult in most cases their mother. This period consists of primary identification with the mother. During the first few years of life boys and girls are preoccupied with issues of separation and individuation. This includes breaking and attenuating the primary identification with the mother and beginning to develop an individuated sense of self. After about age three, the father begins to become important in the child's life. A boy's masculine gender identification must come to replace his early identification with his mother. The development of

girls' gender identity does not include such a rejection of her early identification, instead, feminine identification is continuous with her early childhood identification. Thus, as mothers continue to be the most important figure in their daughters' world, girls might be influenced by the perception of maternal aggression/hostility more than boys do.

The finding that perception of parental aggression/hostility predicted self-reported aggression/hostility for both sexes is consistent with the expectations. It is not surprising to find that those children who perceive their mothers as aggressive/hostile become aggressive/hostile themselves. It is known that imitation or modeling plays an important role in the acquisition of behavior. Those children who are exposed to family violence become aggressive and hostile, and they use aggression as a way of solving problems. Furthermore, for girls, perception of parental neglect/indifference also predicted self-reported aggression/hostility. Rohner (1975) argues that mothers who are emotionally uninvolved with their children frustrate the children's dependency needs, and this frustration often leads, among other responses, to hostility and to aggression. Why this effect emerged only for girls in the present study can be explained by the differential influence of parents on their children. As discussed above, mothers continue to be the identification figure for girls and thus they may be more influential on their daughters. Therefore, girls may need more acceptance from their mothers.

The second hypothesis was also partially supported. When mothers' attachment scores were classified as high and low, children's teacher reported aggression scores were significantly higher in the high avoidant attachment group, but only for girls. This means that mothers who are relatively more avoidant have daughters who are rated by their teachers as aggressive. In infant attachment research,

it was found that mothers of avoidant infants were more rejecting in relations with their infants than the mothers of secure or ambivalent infants (Ainsworth, 1982; Tracy and Ainsworth, 1981). Consistently, it can be suggested that infants who were rejected by their mothers would have avoidant attachment style and become rejecting mothers themselves. In fact, the existence of a correspondence between parent and child attachment patterns has been reported by various researchers (e.g., Steele, Steele, & Fonagy, 1996). Furthermore, Cowan, Cohn, Cowan, and Pearson (1996) found associations between parents' attachment style, assessed by AAI, and their children's externalizing and internalizing behaviors as observed by their teachers. Similarly, Das Eidan, Teti, and Corns (1995) found that maternal working models of attachment were related to child attachment security, and concluded that maternal working models influence parenting and child adjustment beyond infancy. Thus, given the relation between parental rejection and children's aggressive behavior problems, it can be argued that mothers who had high scores on the avoidant attachment subscale have children who manifest more aggressive behavior. Lack of the same relationship for boys in this study might be explained, as indicated above, by the differential influence of mothers on their daughters and sons. Chodorow (1974) argues that mother-daughter tie remains important from a woman's childhood through her old age. Thus, it is reasonable to argue that girls have less tolerance for avoidance by their mothers, that is they are more vulnerable to maternal rejection.

The third hypothesis was not supported. It was found that mothers' attachment scores were not associated with children's perception of parental rejection. Foremost, in the present study, the unit of analysis is the child's subjective perception of parental acceptance-rejection, not the parent's actual accepting and rejecting behavior. It might be that mothers' rejection, aggression, neglect etc., are not perceived by the child as

such. Second, as indicated before, instead of an interview, questionnaires were used in this study to measure mothers' attachment style. It has been found that questionnaires yield weaker effects than interview and observation measures (Rothbaum & Weisz, 1994). Another point to be considered is that children might have idealized their parents and rated them as more accepting than they actually are.

In sum, the present results indicate that there were sex differences between boys and girls in perceived acceptance and rejection. Consistent with this finding, it was found that girls and boys are differentially influenced by parental rejection, aggression, hostility, neglect and indifference. Furthermore, parental rejection was found to be related to children's self-reported aggression/hostility. Finally, maternal avoidant attachment style was found to be related to girls aggressive behavior. These gender differences may be explained by different cultural norms in child-rearing practices and different identification processes for boys and girls.

For future research, the present findings point to the need for including both clinically diagnosed and normal children to study the relationship between maternal attachment style and children's aggressive behavior problems. Another idea would be to include families from different socioeconomic classes, including families from high risk groups. There is also a need for using multiple instruments from different sources measuring the same variable. Furthermore, several other problem behaviors may be involved instead of limiting the problem behaviors only to aggressive behavior.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

The Child Behavior Checklist-
Teacher's Report Form
(Turkish)

Aşağıda, öğrencilerin çeşitli davranışlarına ilişkin maddeler vardır. Her maddeyi dikkatle okuyunuz. Okuduğunuz maddeyi cevaplandırırken öğrencinin geçmiş 2 aydaki veya şimdiki davranışlarını düşününüz. Eğer o davranışı öğrenci her zaman veya sıklıkla gösteriyorsa 2 yi, bazen gösteriyorsa 1 i ve hiç göstermiyorsa 0 ı işaretleyiniz. Bazı maddeler gözlediğiniz öğrenciye hiç uymayabilir; yine de mümkün olduğunca tüm sorulara en uygun biçimde cevap vermeye çalışınız.

0 = Hiç 1 = Bazen 2 = Her zaman veya sıklıkla

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 1. Çok karşı çıkar. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 2. Öğretmenlerine ve diğer okul personeline karşılık verir. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3. Övünür, yüksekte atar. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 4. Durmadan kıpırdanır. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 5. Zalimdir veya başkalarına eziyet etmekten hoşlanır. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 6. Hep dikkat çekmek ister. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 7. Kendi eşyalarına zarar verir. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 8. Başkalarına ait eşyalara zarar verir. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 9. Okulda kurallara uymaz. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 10. Diğer öğrencileri rahatsız eder. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 11. Diğer öğrencilerle iyi geçinmez. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 12. Kötü davranışlarından dolayı suçluluk duymaz. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 13. Kolayca kıskanır. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 14. Başkalarının ona karşı olduğunu sanır. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 15. Çok kavgaya karışır. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 16. Okulda problem çıkaran öğrencilerle dolaşır. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 17. Düşünmeden hareket eder. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 18. Yalan söyler veya kopya çeker. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 19. Diğer öğrenciler tarafından sevilmez. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 20. Sırasını beklemeden konuşur. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 21. Başkalarına fiziksel saldırıda bulunur. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 22. Sınıf disiplinini bozar. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 23. Çok çığlık atar, bağırır. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 24. Sorumsuzca davranır.
(örnek veriniz): _____ |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 25. Gösterişe meraklıdır. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 26. Beklenmedik fevri hareketleri vardır. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 27. İstekleri hemen yerine getirilmelidir; kolayca bozulur. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 28. Çalar. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 29. İnatçı, asık yüzlü veya rahatsız edicidir. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 30. Duygularında, ruh halinde ani değişimler olur. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 31. Çok somurtur. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 32. Şüphelidir. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 33. Küfür ederek konuşur. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 34. Çok konuşur. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 35. Başkalarıyla çok alay eder. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 36. Çabuk parlar, öfke nöbetleri geçirir. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 37. Başkalarını tehdit eder. |
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 38. Alışılmadık bir biçimde yüksek sesle konuşur. |

Appendix B

The Parental Acceptance-Rejection

Questionnaire

(Turkish)

İsim: _____

Tarih: _____

Elinizdeki ölçekte anne-çocuk ilişkisini içeren ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Bu ifadelerin annenizin size olan davranışlarına uygun olup olmadığını düşünün.

Her ifadeyi okuduktan sonra, o ifade annenizin size karşı davranışları konusunda ne kadar doğruysa: Benim için “Hemen hemen her zaman doğru”, “Bazen doğru”, “Nadiren doğru” veya “Hiçbir zaman doğru değil” şeklinde işaretleyiniz.

Örneğin:

BENİM İÇİN		BENİM İÇİN	
DOĞRU		DOĞRU	
		DEĞİL	
_____	_____	_____	_____
Hemen		Hiçbir	
hemen		zaman	
her		Nadiren doğru	
zaman	Bazen	Doğru	değil
_____	_____	_____	_____
()	()	()	(X)

1. Annem ben hiç yokmuşum

gibi davranır.

		<u>BENİM İÇİN DOĞRU</u>		<u>BENİM İÇİN DOĞRU DEĞİL</u>	
		Hemen		Hiçbir	
		Hemen		Zaman	
		Her		Nadiren	Doğru
		<u>Zaman</u>	<u>Bazen</u>	<u>Doğru</u>	<u>Değil</u>
W/A	1. Annem benim hakkımda güzel şeyler söyler.	_____	_____	_____	_____
A/H	2. Annem kötü davrandığım zaman beni küçümseyerek azarlar.	_____	_____	_____	_____
N/I	3. Annem ben hiç yokmuşum gibi davranır.	_____	_____	_____	_____
UR	4. Annem beni gerçekten sevmez.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A	5. Planlarımız hakkında benimle konuşur ve söyleyeceklerimi dinler.	_____	_____	_____	_____
A/H	6. Onun sözünü dinlemediğim zaman beni başkalarına şikayet eder.	_____	_____	_____	_____
N/I *	7. Benimle candan ilgilenir.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A	8. Arkadaşlarımı eve getirmem için beni cesaretlendirir, onların hoş vakit geçirmelerini sağlar.	_____	_____	_____	_____
A/H	9. Beni küçük düşürür ve benimle alay eder.	_____	_____	_____	_____
N/I	10. Onu rahatsız etmediğim sürece beni bilmezlikten gelir.	_____	_____	_____	_____
UR	11. Kızdığı zaman bana bağırır.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A	12. Benim için önemli olan şeyleri ona anlatmamı kolaştırır.	_____	_____	_____	_____
A/H	13. Bana çok sert davranır.	_____	_____	_____	_____
N/I *	14. Onun yanında olmamdan hoşlanır.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A	15. Bir şeyi iyi yaptığım zaman gurur duymamı sağlar.	_____	_____	_____	_____
A/H	16. Haketmediğim zaman bile bana vurur.	_____	_____	_____	_____

- N/I 17. Benim için yapması gereken şeyleri unuttur. _____
- UR 18. Beni büyük bir baş belası olarak görür. _____
- W/A 19. Beni başkalarına över. _____
- A/H 20. Kızdığı zaman beni çok sert bir şekilde cezalandırır. _____
- N/I * 21. Benim gerekli gıdayı almam için gayret eder. _____
- W/A 22. Benimle sıcak ve sevgi dolu bir şekilde konuşur. _____
- A/H 23. Bana hemen hiddetlenir. _____
- N/I 24. Benim sorularıma cevap vermemek için işi olduğunu söyler. _____
- UR 25. Benden hoşlanmıyor gibi. _____
- W/A 26. Hakettiğim zaman bana güzle şeyler söyler. _____
- A/H 27. Çabuk kızar ve hiddetini benden çıkarır. _____
- N/I * 28. Arkadaşlarımın kim olduğunu merak eder. _____
- W/A 29. Yaptığım şeylerle gerçekten ilgilenir. _____
- A/H 30. Bana kırıcı sözler söyler. _____
- N/I 31. Yardımına ihtiyacım olduğunda beni duymamazlıktan gelir. _____
- UR 32. Başım dertte olduğunda hatayı bende bulur. _____
- W/A 33. Bana istenildiğimi ve ihtiyaç duyduğumu hissettirir. _____
- A/H 34. Sinirine dokunduğumu söyler. _____

N/I * 35. Beni çok önemser.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A 36. İyi davrandığım zaman benimle gurur duyduğunu söyler.	_____	_____	_____	_____
A/H 37. Beni kırmamak için elinden geleni yapar.	_____	_____	_____	_____
N/I 38. Onun hatırlaması gerektiğini düşündüğüm önemli şeyleri unutturur.	_____	_____	_____	_____
UR 39. Kötü hareket ettiğimde artık sevilmediğimi hissettirir.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A 40. Yaptığım şeyin önemli olduğunu bana hissettirir.	_____	_____	_____	_____
A/H 41. Kötü davrandığım zaman beni korkutur veya tehdit eder.	_____	_____	_____	_____
N/I * 42. Zamanımı benimle geçirmekten hoşlanır.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A 43. Üzüldüğüm veya canım sıkıldığında bana yardım etmeye çalışır.	_____	_____	_____	_____
A/H 44. Kötü davrandığım zaman arkadaşlarımla önünde beni utandırır.	_____	_____	_____	_____
N/I 45. Benden uzak kalmaya çalışır.	_____	_____	_____	_____
UR 46. Beni şikayet eder.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A 47. Ne düşündüğümü merak eder ve o konuda benimle konuşmayı sever.	_____	_____	_____	_____
A/H 48. Ne yaparsam yapayım başka çocukların benden iyi olduğunu söyler.	_____	_____	_____	_____
N/I * 49. Plan yaptığı zaman benim istediğim şeylere dikkat eder.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A 50. Önemli olduğunu düşündüğüm şeyleri onun için uygun olmasa bile yapmama izin verir.	_____	_____	_____	_____
A/H 51. Başka çocukların benden daha iyi davrandığını söyler.	_____	_____	_____	_____

N/I	52. Beni başkalarının bakımına bırakır.	_____	_____	_____	_____
UR	53. İstenmediğimi bilmemi sağlar.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A	54. Yaptığım şeylerle ilgilenir.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A	55. Canım acıdığı zaman veya hasta olduğum zaman kendimi daha iyi hissetmem için gayret eder.	_____	_____	_____	_____
UR	56. Kötü davrandığım zaman benden utandığını söyler.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A	57. Beni sevdiğini söyler.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A	58. Bana nazik ve yumuşak davranır.	_____	_____	_____	_____
UR	59. Kötü davrandığım zaman beni utandırır ve suçlu hissettirir.	_____	_____	_____	_____
W/A	60. Beni mutlu etmeye çalışır.	_____	_____	_____	_____

W/A: Warmth/Affection Scale Items

A/H: Aggression/Hostility Scale Items

N/I: Neglect/Indifference Scale Items

UR: Undifferentiated Scale Items

* Reverse scoring required

Note: All items in the Warmth/Affection Scale must be reverse scored before developing Total PARQ.

Appendix C

The Aggression/Hostility Subscale of the
Personality Assessment Questionnaire
(Turkish)

BENİM İÇİN

BENİM İÇİN

DOĞRU

DOĞRU DEĞİL

Hemen

Hiçbir

hemen

zaman

her

Nadiren doğru

zaman Bazen

Doğru değil

1. Döğüşmek ve kötü huylu olmak

aklımdan geçiyor.

2. İçimden birine veya bir şeye

vurmak gelir.

3. Kızınca birşeyleri atıp kırarım.

4. Saçma şeyler yapan insanlarla

alay ederim.

5. Kızdığım zaman surat asıyorum.

6. Hiddetimi kontrol etmekte zorluk

çekiyorum.

Appendix D

Hazan and Shaver's Attachment Vignettes

(English)

Question: Which of the following best describes your feelings?

Answers:

Secure: I find it relatively easy to get close to others and am comfortable depending on them and having them depend on me. I don't often worry about being abandoned or about someone getting too close to me.

Avoidant: I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to others; I find it difficult to trust them completely, difficult to allow myself to depend on them. I am nervous when anyone gets too close, and often, love partners want me to be more intimate than I feel comfortable being.

Anxious/Ambivalent: I find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like, I often worry that my partner doesn't really love me or won't want to stay with me. I want to merge completely with another person, and this desire sometimes scares people away.

Appendix E

The Adult Attachment Scale

(English)

- 1) I find it difficult to allow myself to depend on others.
- 2) People are never there when you need them.
- 3) I am comfortable depending on others.
- 4) I know that others will be there when I need them.
- 5) I find it difficult to trust others completely.
- 6) I am not sure that I can always depend on others to be there when I need them.
- 7) I do not often worry about being abandoned.
- 8) I often worry that my partner does not really love me.
- 9) I find other are reluctant to get as close as I would like.
- 10) I often worry my partner will not want to stay with me.
- 11) I want to merge completely with another person.
- 12) My desire to merge sometimes scares people away.
- 13) I find it relatively easy to get close to others.
- 14) I do not often worry about someone getting too close to me.
- 15) I am somewhat uncomfortable being close to other.
- 16) I am nervous when anyone gets too close.
- 17) I am comfortable having others depend on me.
- 18) Often, love partners want me to be more intimate than I feel comfortable being.

Items 3, 4, 7, 13, 14, 17 were taken from Hazan and Shaver's secure vignette description. Items 1, 2, 5, 15, 16, 18 and 6, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12 were taken from the avoidant and anxious/ambivalent vignettes, respectively.

Appendix F

Adult Attachment Scale

(Turkish)

Aşağıdaki ifadelerin herbirini dikkatlice okuduktan sonra, herbirinin kendinizi ne kadar iyi tanıttığınızı dört seçenekten birini işaretleyerek belirtiniz; eğer sizi çok iyi tanıttığınızı düşünüyorsanız, “Çok doğru (4)” seçeneğini işaretleyiniz. Fakat hiç iyi tanıtmıyorsa “Hiç doğru değil (1)” seçeneğini işaretleyiniz. Diyelim ki şu ifadeyi okudunuz: “İnsan ihtiyacı olduğunda kimseyi bulamaz”. Eğer ihtiyacınız olduğunda kimseyi bulamayacağınızı düşünüyorsanız, o zaman “Çok doğru (4)” seçeneğini işaretlemeniz gerekir. Tam tersi, bu ifadenin sizi hiç tanıtmadığını düşünüyorsanız, o zaman “Hiç doğru değil (1)” seçeneğini işaretlemelisiniz.

AV 1) İnsan, ihtiyacı olduğunda kimseyi bulamaz.

1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru

AV 2) Başkalarına bağımlı olmayı kabullenmek benim için zordur.

1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru

SC 3) Başkalarına bağımlı olmak beni rahatsız etmez.

1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru

SC 4) İnsanlara ihtiyacım olduğunda onları bulabileceğimi biliyorum.

1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru

AV 5) İnsanlara tamamen güvenmek bana zor geliyor.

1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru

AB 6) İhtiyacım olduğu anda birini bulabileceğimden emin değilim.

1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru

SC 7) Terkedileceğim diye pek endişelenmem.

1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru

AB 8) Beraber olduğum kişi (veya kendimi çok yakın hissettiğim kişi) beni gerçekten sevmiyor diye çoğu zaman kaygılanırım.

1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru

AB 9) İnsanlar bana, benim onların bana yakınlaşmalarını istediğim kadar yakınlaşmaktan çekiniyorlar.

1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru

- AB 10) Beraber olduğum kişi (veya kendimi çok yakın hissettiğim kişi) benimle kalmak istemeyecek diye çoğu zaman kaygılanırım.
1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru
- AB 11) Bazen benim onlarla kaynaşma arzumu insanları ürkütüp kaçırıyor.
1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru
- SC 12) İnsanlarla yakınlaşmak benim için oldukça kolaydır.
1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru
- SC 13) Birisi bana gereğinden fazla yakınlaşacak diye pek kaygılanmam.
1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru
- AV 14) İnsanlara yakın olmaktan biraz huzursuzluk duyarım.
1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru
- AV 15) Birisi bana aşırı derecede yakınlaştığında tedirgin olurum.
1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru
- SC 16) Başkalarının bana bağımlı olması beni rahatsız etmez.
1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru
- AV 17) İlişkiye girdiğim (veya kendimi çok yakın hissettiğim) kişiler çoğu zaman beni rahatsız edecek kadar samimi olmak istiyorlar.
1. Hiç doğru değil 2. Biraz doğru 3. Oldukça doğru 4. Çok doğru

SC: Secure Attachment Scale Items

AV: Avoidant Attachment Scale Items

AB: Ambivalent Attachment Scale Items