## Attachment to Mother and Father and Autonomy in Early Adolescence

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#### Abstract

#### Attachment to Mother and Father and Autonomy in Early Adolescence

#### Clairneige Motzoi

The present study examined the relation between attachment security and autonomy in early adolescence. In particular, the associations of both anxious and avoidant attachment, to mother and father separately, and autonomy were investigated. Results indicated that anxious and avoidant attachment with mother were associated with selfreported autonomy, and avoidance with mother tended to be associated with autonomy as rated by a friend. It could be that adolescents who are anxious about being abandoned by their mother think and act out of avoiding rejection from her, rather than out of selfdetermination. Likewise, adolescents who avoid closeness with their mother may not have the opportunity to use her as a secure base from which to practice their autonomy. With respect to the relationship with the father, insecure attachment with father was only associated with autonomy when adolescents were more securely attached to mother. Furthermore, avoidance of closeness moderated the relation between anxiety about abandonment and autonomy differently depending on the gender of the parent. The less adolescents who were comfortable with closeness with father were anxious about abandonment by father, the more autonomous they were. Thus, perhaps if adolescents avoid closeness with father, there is no opportunity for the anxiety about abandonment to interfere in autonomy strivings. This same finding emerged for girls in the relationship with the mother. However, the negative impacts of anxiety and avoidance with mother on autonomy were cumulative for boys.

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Dedicated to my primary attachment figure

and Felix's endless jokes about my autonomy ©

### **Table of Contents**

	Page	
List of Appendices		
List of Tables		
Introduction		
Hypotheses		
Method		
Participants	13	
Measures	14	
Procedure	16	
Results		
Preliminary Analyses	18	
Analytic Strategy	20	
Insecure Attachment to Parents as Predictors of Self-reported Autonomy	21	
Insecure Attachment to Parents as Predictors of Friend-reported Autonomy	24	
Discussion		
Limitations	33	
Conclusions	34	
References		
Endnotes		
Appendices		

# List of Appendices

		Page
Appendix A.	General Information Questionnaire	43
Appendix B.	Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire for Mother	46
	Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire for Father	48
Appendix C.	Autonomy Questionnaire: Self-report Form	51
	Autonomy Questionnaire: Friend-report Form	52
Appendix D.	Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale	53
Appendix E.	Letter to Student	55
Appendix F.	Student Consent Form	57
Appendix G.	Summary Tables of Results	59

# List of Tables

		Page
Table 1.	Intercorrelations of Control, Predictor, and Outcome Variables	60
Table 2.	Partial correlations of Predictor and Criterion Variables, Controlling for Social Desirability	61
Table 3.	Attachment Insecurity with Mother and Father as Predictors of Self-reported Autonomy	62
Table 4.	The Avoidance of Closeness X Anxiety about Abandonment Interaction as a Predictor of Self-reported Autonomy	63
Table 5.	The Gender X Avoidance with Mother X Anxiety with Mother Interaction as a Predictor of Self-reported Autonomy	64
Table 6.	Attachment Insecurity with Mother and Father as Predictors of Friend-reported Autonomy	65
Table 7.	The Gender X Avoidance with Father X Anxiety with Father Interaction as a Predictor of Friend-reported Autonomy	66

Attachment to Mother and Father and Autonomy in Early Adolescence

Learning to function with autonomy is a key developmental task in adolescence (e.g. Blos, 1962). Because autonomy is considered an important aspect of social competence and psychological adjustment, numerous studies have examined possible factors involved in its development. The factor most commonly investigated is the relationship with parents. In fact, learning to balance the development of autonomy with relatedness with parents is increasingly being considered a key developmental task in adolescence (e.g. Allen, Hauser, Bell, & Connor, 1994). The present study will investigate the separate and joint relations of attachment security to mother and father to autonomy in early adolescence.

Early views of autonomy emphasized a break in adolescents' relatedness with parents (e.g. Blos, 1962, 1967; A. Freud, 1958; Steinberg & Silverberg, 1986). Detachment from and the relinquishing of dependence on parents were seen as necessary steps toward the development of autonomy. Blos (1967) conceptualized the process of individuation as the construction of one's sense of self as competent and autonomous, both in terms of self-determination and separateness from one's parents. That is, self-reliance was believed to replace dependence on parents. Steinberg and Silverberg (1986) further theorized that individuation required emotional autonomy from parents. The renouncing of emotional dependence on parents or emotional detachment was considered necessary.

More recent views have noted that inherent in the task of autonomy is the challenge of balancing the process of individuation and emerging agency with the continuing relatedness of adolescents and their parents (Allen, Hauser, Bell, & O'Connor,

1994; Ryan & Lynch, 1989; Baltes & Silverberg, 1994). Autonomy is seen as selfreliance and agency that develops optimally in the context of supportive relationships with parents. The adolescent's developmental task is therefore both to exercise his or her self-reliance and to maintain the relatedness with parents as a source of support and guidance. Indeed, Ryan, Stiller, and Lynch's (1994) study investigating the relation between self-reliance in school and dependence on parents in 606 early adolescents supports this view. They found that adolescents who were more willing to rely on parents were also more autonomous in school. Moreover, both autonomy (Deci & Ryan, 1987; Noom, Dekovic, & Meeus, 1999) and the quality of attachment to parents (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Greenberg, Siegel, & Leitch, 1983; Kenny & Gallagher, 2002; Noom, Dekovic, & Meeus, 1999) are positively associated with psychological adjustment and social competence in adolescence. For example, Noom et al. investigated the relationship between attachment to mother and father and three types of autonomy (attitudinal, emotional, and functional), and psychosocial adjustment in 400 adolescents aged 12 to 18. The results indicated that both attachment to mother and father and autonomy were associated with most types of psychosocial adjustment. For example, the higher the adolescents' attitudinal autonomy and secure attachment to mother, the higher their academic competence. Similarly, the more adolescents were securely attached to their mother and father and had high attitudinal, emotional, and functional autonomy, the higher their self-esteem. Correspondingly, Deci and Ryan (1987) found that autonomy was positively correlated with measures of psychological adjustment such as self-esteem and perceived competence in a variety of adolescent samples. Furthermore, the extent to which parents foster adolescent autonomy is related to social competence (Kenny & Gallagher, 2002).

Although it is the developmental task of the adolescent to balance autonomy and relatedness with parents, it is also theorized that a positive relationship with parents may facilitate the development of autonomy in adolescence (Allen, Hauser, Bell, O'Connor, 1994; Allen, Hauser, Eickholt, Bell, & O'Connor, 1994; Fraley and Davis, 1997). Attachment theory provides a practical framework for understanding how the parentadolescent relationship could play such a role. According to Bowlby (1969) and Ainsworth (1989), when caregivers are consistently and appropriately responsive to their infants' needs, their infants develop secure attachments. Infants experiencing such a secure relationship seek proximity to the attachment figure and use the attachment figure as a secure base and safe haven. It has also been postulated that the development of selfreliance in young children occurs ideally when the primary attachment figure provides a secure base for their exploration, to which they can return in case they feel anxious and needed reassurance. The concepts of proximity-seeking, secure base, and safe haven can be extended to adolescence as well. For example, adolescents appear to continue to use parents as a secure base for exploration and often seek support from their parents in times of stress (Allen & Land, 1999; Hauser and Bowlds, 1990; Kenny, 1987; Kerns, Klepac, and Cole, 1996). Therefore, in this framework, a warm, supportive adolescent-parent relationship provides an ideal context in which to develop autonomy: the attachment figure can represent a secure base from which adolescents can practice thinking and acting independently while being able to return to seek guidance when needed.

Attachment theory also postulates that children experiencing a relationship with a caregiver who consistently answers appropriately to their needs learn that they are worthy of love and that they can depend on others to be responsive. As they grow older, they develop an "internal working model" of themselves as valued and of others as trustworthy (Bowlby, 1980). Internal working models of self and others are thought to be continuously maturing representations (Thompson, 1999) in the context of attachment as a life-long construct (Bowlby, 1979). Thus, attachment to parents in adolescence is thought to further develop these internal working models. Having a consistently supportive and loving relationship with a parent may contribute to the adolescent's view that s/he has self-worth, which may in turn contribute to a sense that one's ideas and feelings are valuable and that one is capable of independent action. Thus, the likelihood of self-reliance and of developing one's autonomy further would increase. Conversely, experiencing unresponsiveness, or inconsistent or inappropriate responsiveness from a parent could lead the adolescent to view himself/herself and his/her ideas as lacking value, thus fostering a sense of incompetence.

Attachment theory further identified two dimensions of attachment. Although the concepts of attachment anxiety and avoidance of closeness were present from the very beginnings of attachment theory (e.g. Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, and Wall, 1978), they were more formally identified as the two main dimensions underlying insecure attachment by later researchers. Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998) completed a factor analysis using all the self-report attachment scales for adolescents and adults they could find. Two independent factors that corresponded to the anxiety and avoidance of closeness dimensions were found. It should be noted that the anxiety dimension

corresponds conceptually to Bowlby's model of self, whereas the avoidance dimension corresponds to the model of other (Brennan et al., 1998; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). That is, one's internal working model of oneself is believed to lead to the degree to which one is anxious about abandonment in a close relationship, and one's model of others is said to be related to the degree of avoidance of closeness.

Theoretically, these two continuous attachment dimensions interact to provide information about the quality of attachment. Thus, attachment classification into the four adult attachment categories can be obtained by distinguishing between high and low levels of the two dimensions. This attachment model was first presented by Bartholomew (1990), using the dimensions of model of self and model of other, and later conceptualized in terms of the anxiety and avoidance dimensions by Brennan, Clark, and Shaver (1998). When both anxiety and avoidance of closeness are low, one is considered to have secure attachment. That is, there is a sense of comfort with intimacy. When anxiety is high but avoidance is low, the individual is said to have preoccupied attachment. That is, s/he is anxious about abandonment, but does not avoid closeness in his/her relationships. Preoccupied attachment is the term used for adults, while the same high anxiety-low avoidance combination is called anxious-ambivalent attachment in infants. When anxiety is low but avoidance is high, an individual is considered dismissing. With this combination, the individual appears to lack anxiety about abandonment while demonstrating avoidance of intimacy. Lastly, when both anxiety and avoidance are high, an individual is said to have fearful attachment. That is, the individual is both anxious about abandonment and avoids closeness. The last two adult categories are viewed as developing from the infant avoidant attachment category.

Empirical support for this model has been found in infants (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978), as well as young adults (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998). Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, and Wall performed a discriminant analysis on their data with infants in the Strange Situation and arrived at the three attachment categories identified at the time. Similarly, Bartholomew and Horowitz (1991) tested this model with university students aged 18 to 22. Multidimensional scalings, a factor analysis, and a principal-components analysis all supported the proposed relationship among the four attachment categories in the two-dimensional space created by the anxiety and avoidance dimensions, with two dimension factors accounting for 47% of the variance. It should be noted that Brennan et al. (1998) suggest that using dimensional results is preferable to using categorical results in order to avoid losing statistical power.

The relationship between attachment to parents and autonomy in adolescence can be conceptualized using this model of insecure attachment. Adolescents having experienced a consistently supportive relationship with parents would be hypothesized to have low anxiety about abandonment and avoidance of closeness with parents. Such adolescents would be able to act self-reliantly without fearing rejection and would be able to use parents as a secure base for the exploration presumably necessary to develop their autonomy. Conversely, adolescents high in anxiety about abandonment by their parents might act in ways as to avoid rejection, rather than being motivated by self-determination. Similarly, adolescents high in avoidance of closeness with parents might not use their parents as a secure base from which to "practice" their autonomy, perhaps leading to a less developed level of this construct. The development of autonomy might

be dependent on exploration, which might be facilitated by the use of one's parents as a secure base. It has been suggested that exploration necessitates a sense of security (Bell, Forthun, & Sun, 2000). For example, appropriate relational autonomy might be developed only with social exploration and it has been theorized that the use of mothers as a secure base promotes this kind of social exploration (Sroufe & Waters, 1977, cited in Kerns & Stevens, 1996). Indeed, it has been shown that mother-child attachment is positively related to the quantity of social interactions (Kerns & Stevens, 1996). Presumably, adolescents who both fear abandonment by and avoid closeness with their parents would have the least opportunity to develop their autonomy.

Results of studies investigating the relationship between attachment security with parents and autonomy in adolescence have been mixed, but the majority of studies find a positive link between these two variables. In the study by Noom, Dekovic, and Meeus (1999) described previously, the authors also examined the association between attachment to parents and autonomy in adolescents (aged 12 to 18). Attachment was measured by the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA, Armsden & Greenberg, 1987), containing 28 items on three scales: communication, trust, and alienation. Autonomy was measured by a questionnaire previously developed by the authors, with three subscales: attitudinal, emotional, and functional autonomy. Results indicated that the correlations between the attachment and autonomy subscales ranged from .05 to .21. These results suggest that there might be at most a weak relation between attachment to parents and autonomy in adolescence. Similarly, Ryan and Lynch (1989), using Steinberg and Silverberg's (1986) measure of emotional autonomy, found that it was negatively related to the quality of attachment to parents as reported by a sample of early

adolescents. However, they argued that rather than measuring "healthy" autonomy, Steinberg and Silverberg's emotional autonomy measure assessed an unhealthy detachment from parents. With the exception of Noom et al., several studies that operationalized autonomy in terms of self-reliance rather than detachment have found positive associations between attachment and autonomy. For example, Kenny and Gallagher (2002) assessed attachment to mother and father and autonomy in a sample of 172 middle adolescents and found significant, moderate correlations. They measured attachment with the Affective Quality of Attachment scale of the Parental Attachment Questionnaire (PAQ, Kenny, 1987). As well, the adolescents were given the Masculinity scale of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974, cited in Kenny & Gallagher, 2002) which measures traits such as assertiveness, independence, decisiveness, and selfreliance. The results revealed that the more the adolescents perceived their parents as sensitive to their needs and supportive, the more they endorsed traits on the Masculinity scale, that is the more they perceived themselves as autonomous. Similar results have been found in studies using older adolescents. For example, Bell, Forthun, and Sun (2000) assessed attachment to parents, as measured by the IPPA, and autonomy, as measured by the autonomy subscale of the Erikson Psychosocial Stage Inventory (Rosenthal et al., 1981, cited in Bell, Forthun, & Sun, 2000), in 470 university students between the ages of 18 and 25. Thus, autonomy was defined as self-reliance and agency. They found that the more the late adolescents rated their relationship with their parents positively, the more autonomy they reported. Similarly, Kenny (1987) investigated attachment to parents and self-assertion, a concept closely related to autonomy, in 173 male and female university freshmen. Attachment to parents was measured by a parental

relationship questionnaire, designed by the author, which adapted Ainsworth et al.'s (1978) model of attachment to university students. Self-assertion in dating situations was assessed using the Dating and Assertion Questionnaire (Levenson & Gottman, 1978, cited in Kenny, 1987). Kenny found that the more female students used their parents as a secure base, the more they reported being assertive in dating situations. No such relation was found for the male students in the study.

The studies described above used samples of mostly middle or late adolescents. The only study that investigated early adolescents specifically (Ryan & Lynch, 1989) operationalized autonomy as detachment from parents rather than self-reliance and agency. Early adolescence is a period of rapid change due to the onset of puberty and entering high school. The transition from elementary to high school comes with a change in expectations from peers and authority figures such as teachers. With such changes come numerous novel opportunities for autonomy in the areas of academics, occupational decision-making, increasingly important group social interaction, friendships, and romantic relationships. Research is still needed to establish the relation between attachment and autonomy during this time so crucial to the emergence of autonomy.

In addition, the studies discussed above measured attachment mostly with the IPPA, assessing attachment security. However, it would also be important to assess the relation between anxious and avoidant attachment and autonomy. Rather than examining the relation between the amount of secure attachment and autonomy, this would allow for an investigation how different insecure attachment styles relate to autonomy.

Furthermore, the operationalization of autonomy differed among the studies discussed above. The operationalization of autonomy is crucial to the study of the

relationship between attachment and autonomy precisely because the older view of autonomy as detachment from parents overlaps conceptually with the avoidance of closeness dimension of attachment (Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998), or "compulsive self-reliance" to use Bowlby's terminology (1979, as cited in Kerns & Stevens, 1996, p. 337). Thus, it is important to emphasize a "healthier" autonomy when operationalizing the concept. A number of researchers have defined autonomy as the ability to think, feel, and act independently (Hodgins, Koestner, & Duncan, 1996; Noom, Dekovic, & Meeus, 1999), without specifying absence of reliance on parents. However, the word "independently" can be misleading, again emphasizing a lack of dependence on others (Ryan, Deci, & Grolnick, 1995). A suitable definition would stress the self as actor, rather than the self as separate. Ryan et al. (1995) define autonomy as the degree to which one self-initiates, self-relies, and self-regulates, as well as acts agentically. Putting together the two definitions, a fitting conceptualization of autonomy is the extent of cognitive, emotional, and behavioural self-reliance and agency.

Although it is known that attachment to parents is associated with autonomy in adolescence overall, the contribution of mother attachment and father attachment separately needs further study as well. Recent attachment research underscores the importance of considering adolescent and parent gender (Kenny & Gallagher, 2002; Hosley & Montemayor, 1997). In particular, attachment to father may play a unique role in the development of certain social competencies (Kerns & Barth, 1995; Youngblade, Park, & Belsky, 1993). Since a number of studies have shown that fathers encourage autonomy more than mothers (e.g. Kenny & Gallagher, 2002), it could be that attachment to father may play a greater role in the development of autonomy. Moreover, the

interaction between parent and adolescent gender requires further exploration. It could be that adolescence, with its greater emphasis on male-female roles than in childhood, underscores the relationship with the same-sex parent (Kerns & Stevens, 1996). For example, one study, using a sample of 630 university students, found that attachment to father was a stronger predictor of social adjustment and efficacy for males than attachment to mother, whereas for females, attachment to both parents predicted social adjustment and efficacy (Rice, Cunningham & Young, 1997). Likewise, Kerns and Stevens (1996) found that, in a sample of 112 university students (aged 17-25), attachment to father was positively related to ego resiliency, defined as resourceful accommodation to situation change, for men only. Such a focus on parent-adolescent gender interaction is still needed in the investigation of the attachment to parents and autonomy, especially in early adolescence.

The present study investigated the separate and joint relations of attachment security to mother and father to autonomy in a sample of early adolescents. As well, gender of the adolescent was examined as a moderator between attachment to parents and autonomy. Furthermore, since self-reports may be subject to biases, recent adolescence research recommends the use of a multi-informant approach (Weiss, Harris, & Catron, 2002). In particular, the use of peers as informants has been suggested, such as in the class play method (Masten, Morison, & Pellegrini, 1985). Adolescents spend twice as much time with peers than with teachers or parents, giving them the most opportunity to observe adolescent behaviour (Larson & Verma, 1999). Therefore, autonomy was measured in the present study using both a self-report and a friend-report questionnaire. Thus, the aims of this study were (1) to investigate the relation between attachment to

parents and autonomy in a sample of early adolescents, (2) to address the separate contributions of attachment to mother and father, (3) to explore adolescent gender as moderator of the attachment-autonomy association, and (4) to verify the findings with respect to self-reported autonomy with a friend-report measure.

#### Hypotheses

Attachment to both parents was expected to be related to autonomy in the present sample. Specifically, Hypothesis 1 was that anxious and avoidant attachment with both parents would be negatively associated with autonomy for both male and female adolescents. Furthermore, whereas avoidance of closeness is considered to stem mostly from an internalized view of the parent as lacking dependability and trustworthiness, anxiety about abandonment is said to relate to an internalized working model of self as lacking worth. Because self-reliance would conceptually emerge from how one sees oneself, rather than how one sees others, it was hypothesized that autonomy would be more strongly negatively associated with anxiety about abandonment than with the avoidance of closeness dimension of attachment (Hypothesis 2). Moreover, fathers have been shown to emphasize and encourage autonomy more than mothers, presumably making the adolescent-father relationship more salient in the development of autonomy in adolescence. Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was that attachment security with father would be associated more strongly with autonomy than attachment security with mother. Hypothesis 4 was that gender would moderate the associations of anxious and avoidant attachment with autonomy, although the exact nature of this moderating effect could not be specified. It could be that the societal expectation that men should be more independent would make the development of autonomy less dependent on parental encouragement of autonomy for male adolescents than for female adolescents. In this case, anxious and avoidant attachment would be more strongly associated with female adolescents' autonomy than males adolescents' autonomy. Alternatively, the relationship with the same-sex parent may become most salient in early adolescence. Thus, it could be that boys' autonomy is best predicted by anxious and avoidant attachment with father, whereas girls' autonomy is best predicted by anxious and avoidant attachment with mother. Hypothesis 5 was that avoidant attachment would moderate the relation between anxiety about abandonment and autonomy. Lastly, Hypothesis 6 was that these findings would be replicated using a friend-reported measure of autonomy.

#### Method

#### **Participants**

The sample for the present study consisted of 238 adolescents, aged 12 to 15 (M = 13.03, SD =1.30), who attended an English-speaking public high school in a suburban area of Montreal. The sample was approximately evenly divided by gender, with 127 female and 111 male adolescents, and by grade, with 103 in grade 7 and 133 in grade 8 (there were two participants in grade 9). As reported by the participants (see Appendix A), seventy percent of the participants came from two-parent homes, of which approximately 57% were intact and 12% were reconstituted. Of the 61 adolescents who came from single-parent homes, approximately 89% lived with their mother and 7% lived with their father. Approximately 92% of the adolescents spoke English at home. Approximately 89% of the sample had lived in Canada for the duration of their lives. Sixty-seven percent of the participants reported having only one ethnic/cultural background, whereas 19% reported having two, 12% reported having three, and 1%

reported having four ethnicities. Of the students who reported having only one ethnic/cultural background, approximately 30% reported being "English", 6% "French," 34% "Other European," 6% "Asian," 1% "Aboriginal," 1% "South-West Asian," .5% "Middle Eastern," .5% "Latin American," and 20% "Other". Of the 19% of the participants who reported two ethnicities, 7% reported being both English and French Canadian, and 11% reported a different combination, most of them English or French Canadian and another ethnicity. Family social economic status (SES) was derived from information on the work status, occupation, and education of the parent(s) (Hollingstead, 1975). Mean SES was 33.29 (SD = 9.81), characteristic of skilled craftsmen, and clerical and sales workers.

#### Measures

Attachment. Attachment to mother and attachment to father were assessed with a shortened version of the 36-item Experiences in Close Relationships questionnaire (ECR, Brennan, Clark, & Shaver, 1998; see Appendix B). The ECR questionnaire yields two scales: anxiety about abandonment and avoidance of closeness. Items are rated on a 7-point scale, where 1 is "disagree strongly" and 7 is "agree strongly." The original items were worded with respect to the current romantic relationship. However, the items used for the current study were adapted to refer to specific attachment figures, that is to mother and father, as noted by Brennan et al. (1998). The adapted anxiety subscale consisted of the 12 items with highest item-scale correlation based on previous research (Doyle & Markiewicz, 1998; e.g. "I worry about being abandoned by my mother/father"). The adapted avoidance subscale consisted similarly of 12 items (e.g. "I don't feel comfortable opening up to my mother/father"). In the present sample, the means of anxiety with

mother and father were, respectively, 2.87 (SD=1.05) and 2.89 (SD=1.21). The means of avoidance with mother and father were, respectively, 2.90 (SD=1.28) and 3.34 (SD=1.33). These subscales had high internal consistency. The Cronbach's alphas for anxiety with mother, anxiety with father, avoidance with mother, and avoidance with father in the current study were, respectively, .80, .85, .90, and .89. These values are comparable to the alpha values in Brennan et al.'s study. Using a sample of 1086 undergraduates (median age = 18), they found an alpha of .91 for anxiety about abandonment by romantic partner and an alpha of .94 for avoidance of closeness with romantic partner. The ECR subscales have been found to be correlated to numerous other attachment measures. For example, both ECR subscales were highly correlated with the respective subscales of Feeney et al.'s attachment measure ( $r_{anxiety,worry}$ =.88,  $r_{avoidance,discomfort with closeness}$ =.88, Brennan et al.).

Autonomy. Autonomy was assessed using a 15-item questionnaire measuring cognitive, emotional, and behavioural self-reliance (Noom, Dekovic, & Meeus, 1999; see Appendix C). Items are rated on a 5-point scale, where 1 is "not at all like me" and 5 is "very like me." This measure has three subscales: attitudinal, emotional, and functional autonomy. In the present study, the Cronbach's alphas for emotional, attitudinal, and functional autonomy were .45, .71, and .62 respectively, which were similar or lower than the values found by Noom et al. (1999) (.60, .71, .64 for emotional, attitudinal, and functional autonomy, respectively). Because some of these subscales were found to have low reliabilities in the current study, the overall autonomy score was used (alpha .75). Noom et al. did not report an overall autonomy score alpha. Autonomy was also measured with a friend-report version of the Making Decisions questionnaire, which was

altered accordingly for the current study. The overall friend-reported autonomy also had good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha of .73. Again, the emotional, attitudinal, and functional autonomy subscales had lower Cronbach's alphas of .37, .58, and .64 respectively, and were therefore not used in the data analyses. In the present study, the means for self-reported and friend-reported autonomy were, respectively, 3.32 (SD=.56) and 3.34 (SD=.56). Noom et al. found that autonomy was associated with adjustment. For example, all three subscales were significantly positively correlated with social competence (r=.27 to .36) and self-esteem (r=.33 to .44), and negatively correlated with depressive mood (r=.20 to .32)

Social Desirability. To control for defensive responding, social desirability was assessed using a 15-item short version of the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972; see Appendix D). The scale's items are rated either true or false. The internal consistency of the scale was .61 in the present study, with slightly higher original reliability coefficients ranging from .73 to .83 (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). The shortened forms have been found to correlate highly with the original scale (r=.90, Strahan & Gerbasi), which has been established as measuring the tendency to respond with social defensiveness (Lobel & Teiber, 1994).

#### Procedure

Permission to carry out the study was first received from the local school board and the principal of the school. The participants were recruited from the grade 7 and 8 French classes of the high school for a larger study on attachment and well-being in adolescence. The students were first informed in class about the project, invited to participate, and given a letter describing the project and a consent form (see Appendices

E and F). Written consent for participation was obtained from both the adolescents and their parents. All students who returned a valid consent form were entered in a draw to win one of several gift certificates at a music store or movie theatre. As an additional incentive, all students who volunteered to participate were also entered in a draw for a discman. The consent rate was approximately 48%, with 39% no response, 13% refusals, and 1% repeated absentees during testing.

The participants completed questionnaires in groups of 15 students during two testing sessions. At the first testing session, the students completed a questionnaire packet including self-report measures and a friend nomination questionnaire for which they had to name up to five same-sex students they considered friends, in order of closeness, from a list of fellow students who were also participating in a study. Each participant was then matched to rate one of the friends they nominated, in order of closeness. When matching was not possible, the participants were matched with another student in their French class. A very small number of the participants were matched at random. At the second testing session, the students completed a questionnaire packet that included questionnaires in which they were asked to rate the matched friend/classmate, including the friend-reported autonomy questionnaire. At the end of both testing sessions, the students were given a small chocolate. At the end of the second session, they were invited to indicate on a form whether they wished to be contacted by the school psychologist, and/or to contact one of the members of our research team if they had any concerns. They were given the research laboratory's telephone number and were also invited to call if they had any questions.

#### Results

#### Preliminary analyses

The two criterion variables were examined for normality, skewness, and kurtosis. Both self-reported and friend-reported autonomy were normally distributed. The outliers in the data were brought in to plus or minus three standard deviations from the mean. As well, the data of the participants who were believed to have answered randomly or faked data was altered. This was determined by checking the questionnaires for patterns in the responses (e.g. answering items on a diagonal, where such answers would be inconsistent with reverse coding). If participants answered more than fifty percent of the questionnaire package randomly or faked, their scale scores were defined as missing and they were dropped from the analyses. If participants answered randomly to only one or a few questionnaires, their scale score was replaced with the mean for their gender.

Intercorrelations among control (gender of participant, age, and social desirability), predictor, and criterion variables are presented in Table 1 (all tables are in Appendix G). Because social desirability was significantly correlated with two of the attachment measures (avoidance of closeness with mother and father) and with self-reported autonomy, it was included as a control variable in analyses of attachment predictors and of self-reported autonomy. Social desirability was not significantly correlated with friend-reported autonomy. However, because the correlation was -.10 and in an interpretable direction (higher defensive self-presentation associated with lower friend-reported autonomy), social desirability was also included as a control variable in analyses of friend-reported autonomy. Because age was significantly correlated only with friend-reported autonomy, it was included as a control variable only in analyses of that

criterion. Self-reported autonomy was significantly negatively associated with all four attachment measures, with correlations ranging from low to moderate (maximum r=-.30 for avoidance with mother). Self-reported autonomy was not significantly correlated with friend-reported autonomy. Friend-reported autonomy correlated significantly only with avoidance of closeness with mother. The four attachment measures were all at least moderately positively correlated, with a strong correlation between the anxiety about abandonment measures for mother and father.

In order to evaluate the effects of gender of the participant and target parent (mother and father) on attachment style, a gender X parent multivariate analysis of variance was performed, with parent as a within-participants factor. The dependent variables were anxiety about abandonment and avoidance of closeness, which were both rated on seven-point scales. Results indicated that there was heterogeneity of variance for anxiety with mother, avoidance with mother, and avoidance with father. However, because there was a relatively large and equal number of males and females in the sample (n=91, n=100), the F-tests were considered likely robust. Using the criterion of Wilks' lambda (1), results revealed a multivariate main effect for parent,  $\Lambda$ =.90, F(2, 188) = 10.23, p<.001, multivariate  $\eta^2$ =.10, with a univariate effect (with Greenhouse-Geisser correction) for avoidance of closeness, F(1, 189) = 19.82, p < .001, partial  $\eta^2 = .10$ , but not for anxiety about abandonment, F(1, 189) = .15, n.s., partial  $\eta^2 = .00$ . There were no gender differences in anxious or avoidant attachment. However, there was an overall gender by parent interaction, Wilks'  $\Lambda$ =.92, F(2, 188) = 8.13, p<.001, multivariate  $\eta^2$ =.08. More specifically, there was a univariate gender by parent interaction for avoidant attachment, F(1, 189) = 10.73, p<.01, partial  $\eta^2=.05$ . That is, males reported

significantly higher avoidance of closeness with mother than females (M=3.12, SD=1.12,  $versus\ M$ =2.70, SD=1.39), t(195) = -2.38, p<.05, whereas there was no difference between males' and females' avoidance of closeness with father (M=3.27, SD=1.21,  $versus\ M$ =3.42, SD=1.44), t(190) = .83, n.s. As well, females reported significantly more avoidance of closeness with father than with mother (M=3.42, SD=1.44,  $versus\ M$ =2.70, SD=1.39), t(99) = -4.51, p<.001, whereas males' avoidant attachment with father was not significantly different than with mother (M=3.27, SD=1.21,  $versus\ M$ =3.15, SD=1.12), t(90) = -1.28, n.s.

Partial correlations among the predictor and criterion variables, controlling for social desirability, are reported in Table 2. Self-reported autonomy had low to moderate significant negative correlations with the four attachment measures. Again, self-reported autonomy was not significantly correlated with friend-reported autonomy. Friend-reported autonomy correlated significantly only with avoidance of closeness with mother. The four attachment measures maintained their positive correlations to each other.

Analytic Strategy

In order to test hypotheses one to six, a series of hierarchical linear regression analyses were performed to predict two criterion variables, self-reported autonomy and friend-reported autonomy, from adolescent's attachment security to mother and father. The predictor variables were entered in four steps, with gender of the adolescent on step one, and anxiety with mother, anxiety with father, avoidance with mother, and avoidance with father on step two. Age and social desirability were entered on step one where appropriate as noted previously. In order to test hypotheses four and five, the third step included two-way interaction terms between anxiety, avoidance, or gender and the fourth

step included 3-way interaction terms. The Jaccard, Turissi, and Wan (1990) method for testing interaction effects was followed. That is, the dependent and continuous independent variables were z-standardized. The interaction terms were then created using the z-standard scores of the relevant interacting variables. The two-way interaction terms were grouped into conceptually meaningful groups and separate regressions were run to examine the effect of these interaction groups. This was done for theoretical reasons, as well as to counter the difficulty of finding interactions in field research (McLelland & Judd, 1993). As well, two three-way interactions were examined in separate analyses, with the appropriate 2-way interactions on the third step. Significant interaction terms were broken down according to Aiken and West's (1991) method. High and low values of the moderating variable (using the standardized scores) were created for each participant<sup>1</sup> and two regressions were then conducted to examine the effect of one interacting variable at high levels and low levels of the moderating variable. Regression results are reported for the highest significant step.

Insecure Attachment to parents as predictors of self-reported autonomy

The first three hypotheses of this study were that both anxious and avoidant attachment would negatively predict self-reported autonomy, that anxious attachment would better predict autonomy than avoidant attachment, and that attachment to father would better predict autonomy than attachment to mother. In order to test these three hypotheses, a hierarchical multiple regression was conducted, controlling for gender and social desirability, as shown in Table 3. Insecure attachment to mother and father negatively predicted self-reported autonomy,  $\Delta R^2$ =.12, p<.001, with anxiety about abandonment and avoidance of closeness with mother being unique predictors ( $\beta$  = -.28,

 $sr^2$ = .03, p<.05;  $\beta$  = -.17,  $sr^2$ = .02, p<.05). Thus, the first hypothesis was supported, as attachment insecurity predicted autonomy as a block. However, the second hypothesis was not supported with respect to the relationship with the father and was only marginally supported for the maternal relationship. That is, anxious attachment with mother accounted for slightly more variance ( $sr^2$ = .03) than avoidant attachment with mother ( $sr^2$ = .02).

The third hypothesis posited that attachment to father would better predict autonomy than attachment to mother. This hypothesis was not supported. Attachment to father did not better predict autonomy than attachment to mother; in fact anxious and avoidant attachment to father did not significantly predict autonomy. However, the two-way interactions anxiety with mother X anxiety with father, and avoidance with mother X avoidance with father, significantly predicted autonomy as a block when entered on step 3,  $\Delta R^2$ =.04, p<.05 (see Table 3). The interactions were explored using the Aiken and West (1991) procedure. Additional regressions indicated that avoidance of closeness with father negatively predicted self-reported autonomy at low levels of avoidance of closeness with mother ( $\beta$  = -.29,  $sr^2$ = .05, p<.01), but not at high levels of avoidance of closeness with mother ( $\beta$  = -.06,  $sr^2$ = .00, n.s.). As well, anxiety about abandonment with mother ( $\beta$  = -.24,  $sr^2$ = .01, p<.10), but not at high levels of anxiety about abandonment with mother ( $\beta$  = -.24,  $sr^2$ = .01, p<.10), but not at high levels of anxiety about abandonment with mother ( $\beta$  = -.29,  $sr^2$ = .00, n.s.).

Hypothesis four posited that gender would moderate the relation between attachment and autonomy. Therefore, a second hierarchical regression analysis was conducted as before with the following four gender interactions on step 3: gender X

anxiety with mother, gender X avoidance with mother, gender X anxiety with father, and gender X avoidance with father. Step 3 was not significant ( $\Delta R^2$ =.01, n.s.), indicating that gender did not moderate the relation between attachment style and self-reported autonomy.

A third hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to test whether avoidance of closeness moderated the relation between an anxious attachment style and self-reported autonomy, the fifth hypothesis of the present study (see Table 4). There was a significant interaction of avoidance with father and anxiety with father ( $\beta = .23$ ,  $sr^2 = .04$ , p < .01). That is, anxiety about abandonment with father negatively predicted self-reported autonomy at low levels of avoidance of closeness with father ( $\beta = -.46$ ,  $sr^2 = .10$ , p < .001), but not at high levels ( $\beta = -.03$ ,  $sr^2 = .00$ , n.s.).

In order to fully examine hypotheses four and five, three-way interactions among gender, avoidance of closeness, and anxiety about abandonment were included in two additional hierarchical regression analyses. The results of the first hierarchical regression revealed that there was no gender X avoidance with father X anxiety with father interaction present ( $\Delta R^2$ =.01, n.s.). The second hierarchical regression is presented in Table 5. There was a significant three-way interaction of gender, avoidance with mother, and anxiety with mother ( $\beta$  = -.24,  $sr^2$ = .02, p<.05). For males, anxious attachment with mother negatively predicted self-reported autonomy at high levels of avoidance of closeness with mother ( $\beta$ =-.37,  $sr^2$ = .07, p<.05), but not at low levels of avoidance of closeness with mother ( $\beta$ =-.10,  $sr^2$ = .00, n.s.). The reverse was true for females: anxious attachment with mother negatively predicted self-reported autonomy only at low levels of

avoidance of closeness with mother ( $\beta$ =-.43,  $sr^2$ = .09, p<.01), not at high levels ( $\beta$ =-.02,  $sr^2$ = .00, n.s.).

Insecure Attachment to parents as predictors of friend-reported autonomy

Hypothesis six of the present study posited that the results found with self-reported autonomy would be replicated with friend-reported autonomy. Thus, a multiple regression analysis was first conducted to predict friend-reported autonomy from anxious and avoidant attachment with mother and father, controlling for gender, age, and social desirability (see Table 6). However, the relation between the linear combination of these predictors and friend-reported autonomy was only significant as a trend,  $R^2$ =.09, F(7, 148)=2.01, p<.10. Furthermore, there was merely a trend for the attachment measures as a block to predict friend-reported autonomy ( $\Delta R^2$ =.05, p<.10), with avoidance of closeness with mother being a unique predictor ( $\beta$ =-.19,  $sr^2$ =.02, p<.05). The two-way interactions of anxiety with mother by anxiety with father, and avoidance with mother by avoidance with father, did not predict friend-reported autonomy as a block,  $\Delta R^2$ =.01, n.s.

In order to examine the role of gender, a second hierarchical regression analysis was conducted, placing the four possible gender two-way interactions on the third step. However, the linear combination of these variables did not significantly predict friend-reported autonomy,  $R^2$ =.11, F(11, 144)=1.61, n.s.

An additional hierarchical regression analysis was conducted to examine the interaction of avoidance of closeness and anxiety about abandonment for each parent. The linear combination of the control variables, anxious and avoidant attachment with mother and father, and the two interactions did not significantly predict friend-reported autonomy,  $R^2$ =.09, F(9, 146)=1.66, n.s.

Lastly, in order to assess whether hypotheses four and five would be supported with respect to friend-reported autonomy, three-way interactions of gender, avoidance of closeness, and anxiety about abandonment were examined in two additional regression analyses. The first of these regression analyses revealed that a linear combination of the control and attachment variables, and the gender X avoidance with mother X anxiety with mother interaction did not significantly predict friend-reported autonomy,  $R^2$ =.10, F(11, 144)=1.45, n.s. The results of the second regression analysis is presented in Table 7, revealing a significant gender X avoidance with father X anxiety with father interaction ( $\beta$ =-.19,  $sr^2$ = .02, p<.05). For males, anxiety about abandonment with father tended to negatively predict friend-reported autonomy at high levels of avoidance of closeness with their fathers ( $\beta$ =-.35,  $sr^2$ = .05, p=.052), but not at low levels of avoidance with their fathers ( $\beta$ =-.00,  $sr^2$ =.00, n.s.). For females, anxious attachment with fathers did not predict friend-reported autonomy at high levels of avoidance with fathers ( $\beta$ =-.10,  $sr^2$ =.01, n.s.), nor low levels ( $\beta$ =-.17,  $sr^2$ =.01, n.s.).

#### Discussion

The first hypothesis of the present study was that attachment insecurity with both parents would be negatively associated with autonomy in early adolescents. Consistent with findings with middle and late adolescents (Bell, Forthun, & Sun, 2000; Kenny, 1987; Kenny & Gallagher, 2002), this prediction was confirmed with early adolescents. Early adolescents who were less anxious about abandonment and/or avoided closeness with their parents less reported more autonomy. Although this finding did not reach statistical significance for friend-reported autonomy, there was a trend in the same direction. It could be that adolescents who are anxious about being abandoned by their

parents think and act out of wanting to please and avoid rejection from their parents, rather than out of self-determination. Likewise, adolescents who avoid closeness with their parents may not have the opportunity to use their parents as a secure base. Conversely, comfort with closeness with parents may lead adolescents to use their parents as a secure base from which to practice their autonomy. These adolescents could try out different independent strivings from this secure base and return to it when in need of guidance or support. This would allow them to practice acting agentically, thus developing their autonomy further.

The second hypothesis was that anxious attachment would be associated more strongly with autonomy than avoidant attachment. This was predicted because autonomy was thought to be linked more to whether one believes one's self and thinking is valuable, that is one's internal working model of self, rather than whether one believes others are trustworthy, one's internal working model of other. This hypothesis was only marginally supported for the relationship with the mother, as the anxious attachment (corresponding to the internal working model of self) with mother accounted for slightly more variance in its association with autonomy than avoidant attachment with mother. In addition, the hypothesis was not supported for friend-reported autonomy, as only avoidant attachment with mother tended to be related to autonomy as rated by a friend. Thus, it may be that the internal working model of both self and other have equivalent effects on autonomy development through different mechanisms. A negative internal working model of self may lead adolescents to fear rejection because the self is believed to be unworthy of love. Such a fear would lead to being anxious about abandonment and thus acting out of wanting to please, rather than self-initiation. Likewise, a negative

model of others may lead adolescents to avoid closeness with mothers who are believed to be untrustworthy. Thus, autonomy development would also be affected by preventing adolescents from using their mothers as secure bases from which to explore.

On the basis that fathers encourage autonomy more than mothers (Kenny & Gallagher, 2002), it was speculated that attachment security with father would be associated more strongly with autonomy than attachment security with mother, the third hypothesis of the study. Contrary to this hypothesis however, only attachment security with mother was associated with self-reported autonomy and tended to be associated with friend-reported autonomy. More specifically, the less adolescents feared being abandoned by and avoided closeness with their mothers, the more they were autonomous. It could be that mothers and fathers play different roles in the development of autonomy of their adolescents. Perhaps mothers impact the development of autonomy by providing a secure base for their adolescents, whereas fathers do so by encouraging the adolescents to act autonomously.

Another possibility is that the impact of attachment security with father on autonomy depends on the level of attachment insecurity with mother. The results of this study indicated that there was an anxiety with father by anxiety with mother interaction, as well as an avoidance with father by avoidance with mother interaction in associations with self-reported autonomy (this was not replicated with friend-reported autonomy). That is, only when adolescents were not anxious about abandonment by mother, anxious attachment with father tended to be associated with autonomy. Similarly, the more adolescents who did not avoid closeness with mother were comfortable being close with father, the more they were autonomous (whereas there was no relation between avoidant

attachment with father and autonomy for adolescents who avoided closeness with mother). Thus, it seems that there is only a relation between insecure attachment with father and autonomy when adolescents were securely attached to mother. It may be that attachment insecurity with mother, presumably the primary attachment figure in most cases, affects autonomy negatively the most and that the effect of attachment insecurity with father is only felt if there is no interference from the relationship with the mother. Although secure attachment to mother certainly does not buffer against the effect of insecure attachment with father, the incremental effect of attachment to father is weak compared to that of attachment to mother. This is consistent, for example, with the findings of Suess, Grossmann, and Sroufe's (1992) study. They found that attachment to mother, as measured by the Ainsworth's Strange Situation, was more predictive of peer competence, as measured by play group observation, in 5-year-old children than attachment to father. However, studies examining the importance of attachment to mother versus father with older adolescents have found that the relative salience of attachment to each parent depended on the gender of the adolescent.

The fourth hypothesis of the study was that gender would moderate the relation between anxious and avoidant attachment with mother and father and autonomy. However, this hypothesis was not supported for either self-reported or friend-reported autonomy. These findings are inconsistent with the studies of older adolescents that found that the association between attachment to each parent and other competencies depended on the gender of the adolescent. For example, Kerns and Stevens (1996) found that the more older adolescent boys (aged 17-25) were able to rely on their fathers (one of the dimensions of attachment measured), the more they were resourceful in adapting to

new circumstances, whereas reliance on fathers was not related to this type of ego resilience for girls. Similarly, Rice, Cunningham, and Young's (1997) study revealed that attachment to father was a stronger predictor of social adjustment and efficacy than attachment to mother for male university students, whereas attachment to both parents predicted social adjustment and efficacy for female university students. It is notable that, in the present study, gender did moderate the interaction of anxious and avoidant attachment to both parents in predicting autonomy, as will be explained later.

The fifth hypothesis was that avoidant attachment would moderate the relation between anxious attachment and autonomy. Indeed, this prediction was supported with respect to the relationship with the father: anxious attachment with father was negatively associated with self-reported autonomy only when adolescents were comfortable being close with their fathers. That is, adolescents secure in their relationship with their fathers were more autonomous than preoccupied adolescents. However, there was no difference in autonomy between adolescents who were dismissing or fearful in their relationship with their fathers. It could be that if adolescents avoid closeness with their fathers, there is no opportunity for the anxiety with father to interfere in autonomy strivings. As mentioned previously, anxiety about abandonment by a parent is thought to lead to the adolescent acting out of wanting to please the parent, thus hindering autonomy development. However, if the adolescent avoids interacting with their father, acting in ways to please their father would have no effect, as the father would be less aware of such an action. Thus, adolescents who are fearful with their fathers (i.e. anxious about abandonment and also avoid closeness with fathers) are probably less motivated by pleasing their fathers, thus allowing actions to be more motivated by the self.

When autonomy was rated by a friend, the role of avoidance of closeness with father as moderator between anxious attachment with father and autonomy depended on gender. For males, anxiety about abandonment by father tended to be negatively associated with friend-reported autonomy only when they avoided closeness with their fathers (whereas for females who either avoided closeness with their fathers or not, anxious attachment with fathers did not predict friend-reported autonomy). That is, contrary to the findings for self-reported autonomy, adolescents secure with fathers were not more autonomous, as perceived by a friend, than preoccupied adolescents. Rather, boys who were dismissing with fathers were more autonomous as reported by a friend than boys fearful with fathers.

The fifth hypothesis, predicting avoidant attachment as moderator, was also supported with respect to the relationship with the mother, although only for self-reported autonomy, as was the fourth hypothesis, predicting gender as moderator. Although, for the entire sample, avoidant attachment did not moderate the relation between anxious attachment with mother and autonomy, it did in different ways for the girls and boys in the sample. For boys, anxious attachment with mother was negatively associated with autonomy only at high levels of avoidant attachment with mother. That is, the less boys who avoided closeness with their mother were anxious about being abandoned by her, the more autonomy they reported. In other words, similarly to the findings for attachment security with father and friend-reported autonomy, boys dismissing with mothers reported being more autonomous than fearful boys. However, the relation between anxiety with mother and autonomy was not found for boys who were comfortable being close with their mothers; that is, there was no difference in autonomy between secure and

preoccupied boys. The reverse was true for girls. The less girls who were comfortable with closeness with their mother were anxious about being abandoned by her, the more autonomy they had; whereas the relation between anxious attachment with mother and autonomy was not found when girls avoided closeness with their mothers. That is, girls secure in their relationship with their mothers were more autonomous than preoccupied girls, whereas there was no difference in autonomy between girls who were dismissing or fearful with their mothers. These results suggest that the relationship with the mother has a different effect on autonomy for male and female adolescents. It seems that avoiding closeness with mother, itself a negative factor, prevents the negative effect of anxiety with mother on girls' autonomy from showing. As explained previously, perhaps if girls do not maintain a close relationship with their mothers, they may be motivated to act by their own agency rather than in response to their anxiety about abandonment as there is no maternal relationship to maintain. However, avoiding closeness with mother does not prevent the negative effect of anxiety with mother on boys' autonomy. On the contrary, there was a relation between anxious attachment and autonomy only for the boys who avoided closeness with mother. Perhaps if boys are comfortable with closeness with their mothers, they are able to use her as a secure base, which in turn protects them from the negative effects of anxiety with mother on autonomy. Because boys who avoided closeness with mother were not protected from the negative effects of anxiety, perhaps the role of the mother as a secure base is more important for boys than girls. Perhaps boys who are comfortable being close with their mothers can use her as a secure base from which to practice autonomy regardless of whether they are worried about being abandoned by her, whereas girls who are comfortable being close with their mothers are more affected by their anxious attachment than by the availability of a secure base.

The interaction findings with respect to self-reported autonomy differed when they were about mothers versus fathers. As explained above, whether anxiety with mother was negatively related to autonomy depended on both the level of avoidance of closeness with mother and gender. However, only avoidance of closeness with father moderated the relation between anxious attachment with father and self-reported autonomy. Avoidance of closeness with father protected both boys and girls from the negative effect of anxiety about abandonment with father on autonomy; whereas avoidance of closeness with mother protected only girls from the negative effect of anxious attachment with mother on autonomy.

The sixth hypothesis of the study was that the findings for self-reported autonomy would be replicated for friend-reported autonomy. There was minimal support for this hypothesis. Attachment insecurity as a block only tended to be associated with friend-reported autonomy. In addition, most of the interactions found in predicting self-reported autonomy were not replicated with friend-reported autonomy. The lack of robust findings for friend-reported autonomy might have occurred because it might have been difficult for peers to rate autonomy. Although autonomous actions are more readily observable, friends would probably be less able to rate the emotional and cognitive aspects of autonomy. Thus, friend-reported autonomy may measure only one aspect of autonomy, more external and functional, leading to trends rather than strong effects. Indeed, there was only a small correlation between self-reported and friend-reported autonomy was p = 1.5, and of the three autonomy types, overall friend-reported autonomy was

significantly correlated with self-reported functional autonomy only (r=.22, p<.01). Furthermore, many of the items on the autonomy questionnaire were relational in nature (e.g. "When I disagree with others, I tell them"). Thus, perhaps the adolescents rated their friend's autonomy in their friendship, whereas they rated their own autonomy more globally and in thinking about multiple relationships. It may be that attachment with parents only tended to predict friend-reported autonomy because friend-reported autonomy was more specific to the friendship context.

#### Limitations of the study

An important limitation of the study was the reliance on self-report questionnaires for both attachment and self-reported autonomy. In particular, the bias in responding about oneself may have affected the results. However, the effect of bias was reduced by controlling for social desirability. Furthermore, despite the lack of replication of the self-report findings with friend-reported autonomy, the inclusion of friend-reported autonomy was a strength of the present study as it allowed for the use of the multi-informant approach. A second limitation concerning the use of self-report questionnaires regarded the use of such a measure of attachment security with adolescents specifically. It could be that adolescents are not mature enough to be conscious of such unintentional interpersonal patterns as avoidance of closeness and anxiety about abandonment. It has been suggested that interview methods, such as the Adult Attachment Interview, are better able to assess the unconscious aspect of attachment security. Although interview and self-report measures tend to converge, the correlations between the two have been moderate (e.g. 34, in Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991), indicating that they perhaps assess different components of attachment, that is conscious versus unconscious. Further

research could compare interview and self-report measures of autonomy in predicting autonomy in adolescents.

An additional limitation regarded the validity of the autonomy scale. This scale contained a number of items that might have measured ease and rapidity of decision making rather than comfort with relying on oneself for independent thoughts. Such items included "When people ask me what I want, I immediately know the answer" and "I can make a choice easily." Presumably, one could weigh alternatives carefully and take time in making decisions, while still relying solely on oneself in the process. Likewise, the friend-reported autonomy scale contained items that would be difficult for friends to observe (e.g. "[Friend] often doesn't know what to think"), potentially threatening the validity. Another limitation regarding the use of the autonomy scale was that the emotional, attitudinal, and functional autonomy subscales were not used due to low reliability. Further research could investigate whether attachment to parents affects these different types of autonomy differently. A last limitation was that the findings were correlational and not longitudinal. Thus, the relations between variables can only be theorized to be causal. Further research should elucidate whether these relations are present longitudinally.

#### Conclusions

The present study found that attachment security to parents was related to adolescent autonomy in early adolescents. The relation between anxiety about abandonment and autonomy depended on the gender of the participant, gender of the parent, and avoidance of closeness. Thus, this study demonstrated the importance of assessing attachment security with each parent separately and examining the moderating

role of gender of the participant. In particular, and contrary to prediction, the importance of attachment security with mother was highlighted.

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#### Endnotes

<sup>1</sup> High and low values of the moderating variable were created for each participant in order to avoid separating the participants into groups of higher and lower scores, thereby decreasing the sample size and losing power.

<sup>2</sup> To assess whether these results were due to the relationship with father only in children from single parent families, analyses were rerun using only two parent families, revealing trends in the same direction.

# Appendix A

General Information Questionnaire

### GENERAL INFORMATION



Please	e do n	ot ma	rk in	this a	rea
				1	

This information will help us describe the participants in our study.

1. Age:	9. What is your mother tongue (first language)?
DAY MONTH YEAR	☐ English ☐ French ☐ Other (specify)
Date of Birth: / /	
Landaud Landond Landaud	10. What languages do you speak at home?
2. Sex: ☐ Female ☐ Male	☐ English ☐ French ☐ Other (specify)
3. Grade: □7 □8 □9 □10	
	11. My ethnic/cultural background is
4. My mom is ( one box):	( 🔀 all that apply)
☐ Single ☐ Divorced	☐ English ☐ Asian
□ Common-law □ Widowed	☐ French ☐ South-West Asian
☐ Married ☐ Other	☐ Aboriginal ☐ Middle Eastern
☐ Separated	☐ African ☐ Latin American
	☐ Other European ☐ Other (specify:)
5. My dad is (⊠ one box):	
☐ Single ☐ Divorced	12. I have lived in Canada year(s).
☐ Common-law ☐ Widowed	
☐ Married ☐ Other	
☐ Separated	13. Performance in academic subjects.
	( 🔀 a box for each subject that you take)
6. Who lives in your house with you?	
(⊠ <u>all that apply</u> )	a. English
☐ Mom ☐ Sisters/Stepsisters	Failing Below Average Average Above Average
☐ Dad ☐ Brothers/Stepbrothers	b. History or Social Studies
☐ Stepmom ☐ Other (Specify)	
☐ Stepdad	
	c. Mathematics
7. I have sister(s)/stepsister(s).	☐ Failing ☐ Below Average ☐ Average ☐ Above Average
	d. Science
8. I have brother(s)/stepbrother(s).	☐ Failing ☐ Below Average ☐ Average ☐ Above Average





## Appendix B

Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire for Mother

Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire for Father



#### EXPERIENCES WITH MOTHER (ECRM)

Please	e do n	ot ma	rk in t	his ar	2
				1	

If you don't have a mom or stepmom, just leave this blank and go to the next questionnaire.

Please tell us who you are thinking of when you fill out this questionnaire ( \( \sigma \) one box):

□ Mom

OR

☐ Stepmom

Think about your relationship with your (step) mother. Now read each statement below and indicate how much each describes your feelings with your (step)mother. Respond how you generally feel with your (step)mother. Put an ⊠ in the box with the number that is true for you.

5 6 7 2 3 4 1 Neutral/ Disagree Agree Strongly Mixed Strongly □ 1 □ 2 ☐ 3 □ 4 **5** ☐ 6 7 1. I worry about being abandoned by my mother. □ 5 ☐ 6 □ 1 □ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 □ 7 2. I am very comfortable being close to my mother. \_\_\_\_ 2 □ 3 □ 4 **5** 6 □ 7 3. I worry a lot about my relationship with my mother. □ 1 4. I worry that my mother doesn't care about me as much as I care 1 ☐ 2 □ 3 □ 4 5 ☐ 6 7 about her. 5. I get uncomfortable when my mother wants to be very close. 1 □ 2 ] 3 **5** 6 7 □ 6 7 □ 3 □ 4 5 1 □ 2 6. I worry a lot about losing my mother. 7 □ 6 □ 2 □ 3 7. I don't feel comfortable opening up to my mother. 8. I often wish that my mother's feelings for me were as strong as ☐ 6 7 1 □ 2 **3** □ 5 my feelings for her. 9. I want to be close to my mother, but I keep pulling back. ☐ 5 ☐ 6 □ 7 \_\_\_ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 7 ☐ 6 □ 3 □ 4 □ 2 10. I am nervous when my mother gets too close to me. □ 1 □ 4 □ 5 6 7 \_\_\_\_ 2 □ 3 11. I worry about being without my mother. 12. I am comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with my ☐ 6 7 ☐ 4 5 □ 2 □ 3 mother. 6 7 □ 2 □ 3 □ 4 □ 5 □ 1 13. I try to avoid getting too close to my mother.

Disagree			Neutral/			Agree
Strongly			Mixed			Strongly
1	2	3	4	5	6	7







### EXPERIENCES WITH MOTHER (ECRM)

,			
		1	17
	1	1	1 _

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
			Neutral Mixed			Agree Strongly	
14. I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my mother.	1	2	□ 3	□ 4	<u></u> 5	<u></u> 6	7
15. I find it relatively easy to be close to my mother.		☐ 2	<u> </u>	□ 4	5	☐ 6	7
16. If I can't get my mother to pay attention to me, I get upset or angry.	□ 1	2	□ 3	□ 4		<u> </u>	7
17. I find that my mother doesn't want to get as close as I would like.	1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<b>4</b>	5	☐ 6	7
18. I usually talk about my problems and concerns with my mother.	1	_ 2	<u> </u>	□4	<u> </u>	□ 6	🗆 7
19. Without my mother, I feel a bit anxious and insecure.	1	_ 2	3	<b>4</b>	<u></u> 5	6	· 🗆 7
20. I don't mind asking my mother for comfort, advice, or help.	1	2	<u></u> 3	□ 4	5	☐ 6	□ <sup>7</sup>
21. It helps to turn to my mother in times of need.	. 🔲 1	2	3	□ 4	5	6	7
22. When my mother disapproves of me, I feel really bad about myself.	1	□ ²	] 3	□ 4	5	6	7
23. I turn to my mother for many things, including comfort and reassurance.		☐ <sup>2</sup>	<b>3</b>	□ 4	<u> </u>	☐ 6	7
24. I feel angry when my mother spends time away from me.	_ 1	2	<u></u> 3	□ 4	5	□ 6	□ <sup>7</sup>

0			Neutral/ Mixed		Agree Strongly
	2	9.	А	pero .	 



### **EXPERIENCES WITH FATHER (ECRD)**

Please	e do n	ot ma	rk in t	his area
				1

If you don't have a dad or stepdad, just leave this blank and go to the next questionnaire.

Please tell us who you are thinking of when you fill out this questionnaire ( \( \sigma \) one box):

□ Dad

OR

☐ Stepdad

Think about your relationship with your (step)father. Now read each statement below and indicate how much each describes your feelings with your (step)father. Respond how you generally feel with your (step)father. Put an⊠ in the box with the number that is true for you.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Disagree Strongly			Neutral/ Mixed			Agree Strongly
1. I worry about being abandoned by my father.		2	☐ 3	□ 4	5	□ 6	7
2. I am very comfortable being close to my father.		2	□ 3	□ 4	<u> </u>	☐ 6	7
3. I worry a lot about my relationship with my father.		2	3	<b>□</b> 4	5	☐ 6	<u></u> 7
4. I worry that my father doesn't care about me as much as I care about him.	1	<u> </u>	☐ 3	□ 4	5	6	. 🔲 7
5. I get uncomfortable when my father wants to be very close.	1	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	4	5	☐ 6	7
6. I worry a lot about losing my father.		2	<u> </u>	□ 4	□ 5	☐ 6	7
7. I don't feel comfortable opening up to my father.	1	2	□ 3	□ 4	5	☐ 6	7
8. I often wish that my father's feelings for me were as strong as my feelings for him.		2	3	<u> </u>	<u></u> 5	□ •	7
9. I want to be close to my father, but I keep pulling back.	1	2	<b>3</b>	4	5	<u> </u>	7
10. I am nervous when my father gets too close to me.		2	□ 3	<b>□</b> 4	5	□ 6	7
11. I worry about being without my father.			<u> </u>	□ 4	□ 5	<u> </u>	□ 7
12. I am comfortable sharing my private thoughts and feelings with m father.	у 🗖 1	☐ 2	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	<u> </u>	☐ 6	7
13. I try to avoid getting too close to my father.	1 🗆 1	2	☐ 3	□ 4	<u> </u>	□ 6	7

Disagree Strongly			Neutral Mixed	1		Agree Strongly
 . 1	2	3	4	5	6	7







### EXPERIENCES WITH FATHER (ECRD)

Picase di	enis tin	sk in Si	ंट अक्टब		
				1	

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Disagree Strongly			Neutral/ Mixed			Agree trongly
14. I need a lot of reassurance that I am loved by my father.		2	□ 3	<b>4</b>	. 5	□ 6	7
15. I find it relatively easy to be close to my father.	1 1	2	□ 3	□ 4	<u> </u>	☐ 6	7
16. If I can't get my father to pay attention to me, I get upset or angry.	1	2	☐ <sup>3</sup>	4		<u> </u>	7
17. I find that my father doesn't want to get as close as I would like.		2	☐ 3	<b>□</b> 4		□ ·	□ <sup>7</sup>
18. I usually talk about my problems and concerns with my father.	1	2	] 3	□ 4	<u> </u>	□ 6	7
19. Without my father, I feel a bit anxious and insecure.	1		] 3	<b></b>	5	<u></u> 6	7
20. I don't mind asking my father for comfort, advice, or help.	<u></u> 1	2	3	☐ 4	5	☐ 6	7
21. It helps to turn to my father in times of need.		2	] 3	□ 4	5	<b>□</b> 6	7
22. When my father disapproves of me, I feel really bad about myself.	1	2	☐ ³	□ 4	5	<u> </u>	7
23. I turn to my father for many things, including comfort and reassurance.		2	<u> </u>	<b></b>	<u> </u>	<b>6</b>	7
24. I feel angry when my father spends time away from me.	<u></u>	□ ²	3	□ 4	5	<u> </u>	□ <sup>7</sup>
-	ı						

Disagree Strongly Neutral/ Mixed Strongly

1 2 3 4 5 6 7



# Appendix C

Autonomy Questionnaire: Self-report Form

Autonomy Questionnaire: Friend-report Form

# Making Decisions (AUT)



Please	e do n	ot mar	k in	this	area
				1	

Read each statement. Make an  $\boxtimes$  in the box that most closely describes you.

		at all e me		Neutral	e.	Very like me
1. I find it difficult to decide what I want.		□1	□ 2	□3	□4	□5
2. When I act against the will of others, I usually get nervous.		<b>1</b>	□ 2	□3	□ 4	. □ 5
3. I go straight for my goal.			□2	□3	□4	□5
4. I can make a choice easily.			□2	□3	□4	□5
5. I have a strong tendency to comply with the wishes of others.		<b>1</b>	□2	□3	□4	<u>5</u>
6. I find it difficult to start a new activity on my own.		<b>□</b> 1	□2	□3	□4	□ 5
7. I often don't know what to think.			□ 2	□3	□4	□ 5
8. When I disagree with others, I tell them.			□ 2	□3	□4	<b>□</b> 5
9. I often change my mind after listening to others.			□ 2	□3	□4	<b>□</b> 5
10. When people ask me what I want, I immediately know the answ	er.		□2	<b>□</b> 3	<b>□</b> 4	□ 5
11. I often agree with others, even when I'm not sure.			□ 2	□3	□4	□ 5
12. I can easily begin new undertakings on my own.			□2	□3	□4	<b>5</b>
13. I often hesitate about what to do.			□2	□3	□ 4	□5
14. I am an adventurous person.			□ 2	□3	□ 4	□ 5
15. I quickly feel at ease in a new situation.		□1	□ 2	□3	□ 4	<u>5</u>
		ot at all ke me		Neutral	·	Very like me





# Making Decisions (AUTF)

Please	e do not	mark ir	this area	
			1	
		- [		

Read each statement. Make an $oxtimes$ in the box that best describes	· .				
When you see ***, think of this classmate.	Not at all like ***		Neutral		Very much like ***
1. *** finds it difficult to decide what he/she wants.	□1	□ 2	□3	□ 4	□5
2. When *** acts against the will of others, he/she usually gets nervo	ıs. 🗆 1	□ 2	□3	□ 4	<b>5</b>
3. *** goes straight for his/her goal.	<b>1</b>	□ 2	□3	□4	□ 5
4. *** can make a choice easily.	□1	□2	□3	□4	□ 5
5. *** has a strong tendency to comply with the wishes of others.	□1	□ 2 <sub>1</sub>	□3	□ 4	□5
6. *** finds it difficult to start a new activity on his/her own.	1	□2	□ 3	□ 4	□ 5
7. *** often doesn't know what to think.	<b>□</b> 1	□2	□ 3	□ 4	□ 5
8. When *** disagrees with others, *** tells them.	<b>□</b> 1	□2	□3	□ 4	□ 5
9. *** often changes his/her mind after listening to others.	□1	□2	□3	□ 4	<u></u> 5
10. When people ask *** what he/she wants, he/she immediately knows the answer.		□2	□3,	□ 4	<b>5</b>
11. *** often agrees with others, even when he/she is not sure.		□2	□3	□ 4	<b>□</b> 5
12. *** can easily begin new undertakings on his/her own.		□ 2	□3	□4	- □ 5
13. *** often hesitates about what to do.	□1	□2	□3	□4	□ 5
14. *** is an adventurous person.	<b>1</b>	□ 2	□3	□ 4	□5
15. *** quickly feels at ease in a new situation.	<b>□</b> 1	2	□3	<b>4</b>	<b>□</b> 5

Dian.

Neutral

Not at all like \*\*\*



Very much like \*\*\*

# Appendix D

Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale





leas	e do	not	mar	k in	this a	rea
					1	

1. It is sometimes hard for me to go on with my work if I am not encouraged.	От	□ F
2. I sometimes feel resentful when I don't get my way.	Пт	Г
On a few occasions, I have given up doing something because I thought too little of my ability.	ГТ	Or
4. I like to gossip at times.	Пт	F
5. There have been times when I felt like rebelling against people in authority even though I knew they were right.	т	F
6. No matter who I'm talking to, I'm always a good listener.	Пт	□F
7. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone.	Пт	□ F
8. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.	Пт	□ F
9. I sometimes try to get even, rather than forgive and forget.	От	□F
10. I am always courteous, even to people who are disagreeable.	Пт	□ F
11. At times I have really insisted on having things my own way.	Пт	F
12. I have never been annoyed when people expressed ideas very different from my own.	□ ī	□ F
13. There have been times when I was quite jealous of the good fortune of others.	Πī	□ F
14. I am sometimes irritated by people who ask favours of me.	Пт	F
15. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.	Пт	F

Appendix E

Letter to Student





Center for Research in Human Development Department of Psychology

Tel: (514) 848-7560 Fax: (514) 848-2815

November 2001

Dear Student,

We are writing to ask for your participation in the Concordia Relationships and Well-Being Project. With this project we hope to better understand how relationship quality with others helps adolescents, like you, deal with challenges in your life.

Your participation will help us a lot! We are asking you to complete questionnaires and a computer task at school. The questionnaires ask about your relationships with your parents and friends, other family relationships, and how you feel and act (e.g., breaking rules, drug use, mood, decision making, helpfulness to others). These questionnaires have often been used with adolescents like you. The computer task is about possible situations with parents and friends. You will be asked what you would think, do, and feel in these situations. The questionnaires and computer task will each take about one class period to complete, at a time that is convenient for your teacher.

Of course we keep all your answers confidential. We hope that you choose to participate; if so, please sign the consent form, have one of your parents sign it too, and return it to your French teacher as soon as possible. Even if you say no, please complete the top of the consent form, and return it. All students returning the form (whether answering "yes" or "no") will have their names entered in a draw for Cineplex Odeon movie passes and HMV gift certificates!!

Our work is funded by the Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council of Canada, and is concerned with the development of adolescents' academic performance and social well-being. Because changes over time are important, we will ask you again in the next two years to complete similar questionnaires. However, you don't have to continue at that time if you don't want to.

If you (or your parents) have questions or wish further information to decide about participating, please indicate a convenient telephone number on the form so that we can call you. Also, please do not hesitate to call one of us at the numbers below. Thanks for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Daniela Pelle

Research Assistant (848-7560)

Anna Beth Doyle, Ph.D. Professor of Psychology

(848-7538)

Dorothy Markiewicz, Ph.D. Professor of Applied Human Sciences and Psychology

(848-2268)

Appendix F

Student Consent Form



Centre for Research in Human Development

Department of Psychology
tel: (514) 848-7560 fax: (514) 848-2815

November 2001 (JHS-i)

### Consent Form For Students To Participate in Research

Student's Nam	ie:				
Student's Date	of Birth:		Age:	· ·	
School: LCCH	S Grade:	French Teacher	's name/class:		
Check where	applicable:				
***************************************	conducted by D	• • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • • •	oarticipation in the Reand Dr. Dorothy Markiow).	*	ll-being study
magalang na mananang pamagan	• •	. ,	participation, please ca	<b>1</b>	J
		(s) or I do not agree to			
IF YOU AGR	REE TO THE S	TUDENT'S PARTIC	IPATION, please com	uplete the following	g:
peers, and wel term, complete on a computer that all inform threatening cir	Il-being. Participing questionnaire about their thou nation will be communication are a	pation will involve appress about friendships an aghts and feelings in poonfidential to the research to	v is to understand stude roximately 2 hours of t d family relationships. ossible situations with p arch team and identified eam will legally have to and may discontinue par	he student's class to Students will also parents and friends. ed only by number, to break confidential	ime in the winter answer questions We understand although if life- ity. We
Student's Sig	mature:	one contract the second of the			
Parent's Sig	nature:			Date	
Parent(s) Nam	ne(s)				
City & Postal			Phone N	umber	

PLEASE RETURN THIS FORM TO YOUR FRENCH TEACHER AS SOON AS POSSIBLE.

Appendix G
Summary Tables of Results

Table 1

Intercorrelations of Control, Predictor, and Outcome Variables

		-	2	3	4	2	9	7	8	6
-	1. Anxiety with mother		.34***	.75***	.31**	29**	04	05	.07	.03
5	2. Avoidance with mother			.36**	.45**	30***	20*	.13	.20*	19*
'n	Anxiety with father				.26**	21*	10	07	02	01
4.	Avoidance with father					22**	10	60.	80.	21*
5.	Self-reported autonomy						.11a	.03	.05	.23**
6.	6. Friend-reported autonomy							16*	02	10
7.	Age								00.	.01
∞:	Gender									.03
6	Social Desirability									

p < 0.05, p < 0.01, p < 0.001, n = 155

<sup>a</sup> This is the correlation when missing cases are excluded listwise for all the variables above. The correlation when missing cases for self-reported and friend-reported autonomy are excluded pairwise (n = 176) is r = .15, p < .05.

Table 2

Partial Correlations of Predictor and Criterion Variables, Controlling for Social Desirability

		-	2.	ů,	4	5.	6.	7.
	Anxiety with mother		.35***	.75**	.32***	29***	05	.01
5	Avoidance with mother			.36***	.43**	***	22**	*19*
ä	3. Anxiety with father				.26**	21**		02
4.	Avoidance with father					18*	12	21**
5.	5. Self-reported autonomy						.13 <sup>t</sup>	.23**
6.	6. Friend-reported autonomy							60
7.	7. Social Desirability <sup>a</sup>							

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Zero-order correlation, n = 154

 $^{\mathsf{t}}p\!<\!0.10, *p<\!0.05, **p<\!0.01, **p<\!0.001$ 

Table 3

Attachment Insecurity with Mother and Father as Predictors of Self-reported Autonomy

Step no.	Step no. Predictor	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta^a$	Sr <sup>2a</sup>	βρ	$\operatorname{sr}^{2b}$
	Social Desirability	**90`	.23**	.05	.16*	.02
	Gender		.03	00.	.04	00.
2	Anxiety with Mother	.12**	28*	.03	25*	.03
	Avoidance with Mother		*17*	.02	*.20*	.03
	Anxiety with Father		90:	00.	.03	00.
	Avoidance with Father		90.	00.	05	00.
m	Anxiety with mother X Anxiety with father	*40.	.15*	.02	.15*	.02
	Avoidance with mother X Avoidance with father		<u>*</u>	.02	.14*	.02
	$R^2 = .22$ , $F(8, 167) = 5.76**$					

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> when entered, <sup>b</sup> on last step

p < 0.05, p < 0.01, p < 0.001, p < 0.001

Table 4

The Avoidance of Closeness X Anxiety about Abandonment Interaction as a Predictor of Self-reported Autonomy

Step no.	Step no. Predictor	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta^a$	Sr <sup>2a</sup>
	Social Desirability	**90`	.18*	.03
	Gender		.04	00.
7	Anxiety with Mother	.12***	17	.01
	Avoidance with Mother		12	.01
	Anxiety with Father		06	00.
	Avoidance with Father		12	.01
m	Avoidance with mother X Anxiety with mother	.04*	07	00.
	Avoidance with father X Anxiety with father		.23**	.04
	$R^2 = .21, F(8, 167) = 5.51***$			

<sup>a</sup> on last step

 $<sup>^*</sup>p$  <0.05,  $^**p$  <0.01,  $^**p$  <0.001

Table 5

The Gender X Avoidance with Mother X Anxiety with Mother Interaction as a Predictor of Self-reported Autonomy

tep no.	Step no. Predictor	$\Delta \mathrm{R}^2$	$\beta^a$	$\mathbf{Sr}^{2a}$
	Social Desirability	**90.	.18*	.03
	Gender		.12	.01
2	Anxiety with Mother	.12**	22	.01
	Avoidance with Mother		21*	.02
	Anxiety with Father		.02	00.
	Avoidance with Father		03	00.
æ	Gender X Anxiety with mother	00.	01	00.
	Gender X Avoidance with mother		00.	00.
	Avoidance with mother X Anxiety with mother		.20t	.02
4	Gender X Avoidance with mother X Anxiety	*70.	24*	.02
	with mother			
	$R^2 = .20$ . F(10, 165)= 4.05***			

 $K^{2} = .20, F(10, 165) = 4.05$ 

a on last step

 $<sup>^{\</sup>mathsf{t}}p < \!0.10, *p < \!0.05, **p < \!0.01, ***p < \!0.001$ 

Table 6

Attachment Insecurity with Mother and Father as Predictors of Friend-reported Autonomy

Step no.	Step no. Predictor	$\Delta R^2$	β	Sr <sup>2a</sup>	θ	$\mathrm{sr}^{2b}$
-	Gender	.04	01	00.	.03	00.
	Age		16*	.03	14 <sup>t</sup>	.02
	Social Desirability			.01	". 14 <sup>t</sup>	.02
2	Anxiety with Mother	.05 <sup>t</sup>	13	00.	.13	.01
	Avoidance with Mother		19*	.02	18 <sup>t</sup>	.02
	Anxiety with Father		13	00.	11	00.
	Avoidance with Father		03	00.	.05	00.
m	Anxiety with mother X Anxiety with father	.01	07	00.	10.	00.
	Avoidance with mother X Avoidance with father		07	00.	07	00.
	$R^2 = .10, F(9, 146) = 1.74^{t}$					

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> when entered, <sup>b</sup> on last step

 $<sup>^{</sup>t}p{<}0.10,\,^{*}p<0.05,\,^{**}p<0.01,\,^{***}p<0.001$ 

Table 7

The Gender X Avoidance with Father X Anxiety with Father Interaction as a Predictor of Friend-reported Autonomy

Step no.	Step no. Predictor	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta^a$	Sr <sup>2a</sup>
1	Gender	.04	80.	.01
	Age		14 <sup>t</sup>	.02
	Social Desirability		*.20*	.03
2	Anxiety with Mother	.05 <sup>t</sup>	15	.01
	Avoidance with Mother		28**	.04
	Anxiety with Father		02	00.
	Avoidance with Father		12	.01
ю	Gender X Anxiety with father	.03	.20 <sup>t</sup>	.02
	Gender X Avoidance with father		.14	.01
	Avoidance with father X Anxiety with father		.02	00.
4	Gender X Avoidance with father X Anxiety with father	.03*	*.19*	.02
	$R^2 = .14$ , $F(11, 144) = 2.09*$			

a on last step

 $<sup>^{</sup>t}p < 0.10, *p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001$