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**PARENTING STYLE AND SELF-OTHER REPRESENTATION
IN HIGH RISK ADOLESCENTS:
THE MODERATING ROLE OF ATTACHMENT PATTERNS**

by

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B.A., Simon Fraser University, 1994

**THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS**

in the Department of Psychology

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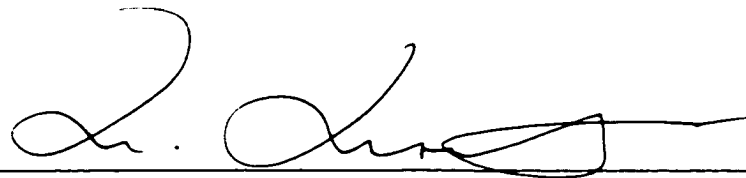
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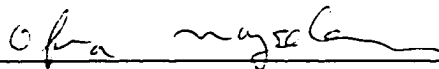
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Parenting Style and Self-Other Representation in
High-Risk Adolescents: The Moderating Role of Attachment
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Abstract

Adolescence brings new challenges and opportunities for self-development, introducing a period of significant transition in parent-child relationships. Attachment theory provides an important framework for understanding the differential impact of parenting on internal representations of self and others during this developmental period. The purpose of the current study was to simultaneously examine the direct and moderated relationships between parenting practices, attachment, and self-other representations in adolescents. Fifty clinic-referred youth, aged 11 to 17 years old, were assessed on dimensions of perceived parenting, attachment and self-other representation. This study provides support for the previously established direct relationships between parenting, attachment, and self-other representations. More importantly, the current study provides preliminary support for the moderating role of secure, preoccupied and dismissing attachment on the relationships between maternal parenting and self-representation. These findings lend credence to the notion that attachment orientation changes the “psychological meaning” of parental behaviour perceived by youth, thereby moderating the impact of parenting practices on their current self-representations. Significant gender differences are discussed from the perspective of gender-specific socialization experiences, relationally focused self-evaluation in females, and their potential impact on the advancement of developmentally sensitive interventions for male and female adolescents.

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Parenting Style and Self-Other Representation in High Risk Adolescents:

The Moderating Role of Attachment Patterns

Attachment theory has its origins in the study of clinical issues and the development of psychopathology (Bowlby 1944, 1958, 1977). After a period of focusing on secure and insecure attachments in normal samples (e.g., Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978; Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985; Sroufe, 1983), there is now a renewed research interest in the development of attachment relationships in “high-risk” youth (e.g., Crittenden, 1988; Radke-Yarrow, McCann, DeMulder, Belmont, Martinez, & Richardson, 1995; Schneider-Rosen, Braunwald, Carlson, & Cicchetti, 1985; Sroufe & Fleeson, 1986). Recent investigations have also emphasized the clinical implications of attachment theory for family therapy and individual therapy with maltreated children (e.g., Byng-Hall, 1995; Pearce & Pezzot-Peace, 1994; Rutter, 1995). The theoretical focus of such investigations has been on the clinical application of attachment theory to various high-risk populations, as opposed to, testing the normative developmental processes proposed within the attachment theory model.

The origins of attachment theory began with Bowlby’s (1969/1982) introduction of the concept of internal working models of attachment figures and of the self and their role in personality development and psychological functioning (Bowlby, 1973, 1980). These internal working models are defined as mental representations that develop during childhood based primarily upon experiences with significant caregivers. The theory asserts that the experience of a caregiver as being consistently responsive and sensitive to the child’s needs leads to the development of a representational model of the caregiver as accessible and responsive and of the self as competent and worthy of eliciting the caregiver’s response. Such a child is considered securely attached to their caregiver (Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978).

Children in high risk environments, however, may experience their caregiver as someone who either does not respond to signals of need or who does not respond appropriately.

Theoretically, the experience of the *consistently* rejected child leads to the development of a representational model of the caregiver as someone he/she cannot trust to provide the kind of response he/she wants or needs, but the experience of the *inconsistently* rejected child leads to the development of a representational model of the caregiver as capable but sometimes unwilling to respond to his/her needs. In either case the theory predicts that the maltreated child forms an image of himself or herself as unworthy and ineffective in obtaining the caregiver's attention and benevolence (Bretherton, 1985; Crittenden & Ainsworth, 1989).

Extending Bowlby's assertions, Bartholomew (1990) developed a two-dimensional model of attachment. This model defines four prototypic attachment patterns in terms of the intersection of the two underlying dimensions of self and other representations. Figure 1 displays these four patterns, with each cell representing a theoretical ideal, or prototype, that individuals approximate to different degrees. The secure attachment pattern is based on positive representations of self as being worthy of love and support, and of others as being trustworthy and available, resulting in a sense of comfort with intimacy while maintaining personal autonomy. The fearful attachment pattern is characterized by negative self- and other-evaluations resulting in high levels of anxiety, fears of rejection, and interpersonal avoidance. Preoccupied attachment is characterized by a sense of unworthiness and chronic fears of abandonment associated with the active pursuit of closeness and reassurance from others. Finally, the dismissing attachment pattern is associated with compulsive self-reliance, little anxiety, and little intimacy in relationships (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). The advantage of this model is that individuals are characterized as

approximating each of these four attachment prototypes to varying degrees, thus providing a multidimensional assessment of attachment patterns.

In examining attachment patterns in adolescents, the current study draws on recent research suggesting that a fundamental change occurs between infancy and adulthood as a single overarching attachment organization emerges. This literature suggests that the adolescent's developing capacity for generalization and abstraction permits the emergence of a generalized stance toward attachment, which may complement or displace the multiple models held of different attachment relationships in infancy and childhood (e.g., Allen & Land, 1999). The current study conceptualizes this general attachment organization as consisting of the four attachment patterns already identified (secure, fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing). These patterns are assumed to be based on the internal working models of self, others, and self in relation to others which have developed throughout childhood in interactions with significant caregivers. These attachment patterns are assumed to provide the youth with strategies for regulating their emotional and behavioural responses in relationships and for interpreting (or misinterpreting) the reactions of others toward them.

Within the attachment theory literature, internal working models of self and others are conceptualized as relationally-focused constructs, that is view of self is evaluated in relation to others and view of others is judged in relation to self. An alternative and broader definition of self-other representations does not require this relational referent and has grown out of the literature exploring self-system development. From this perspective self- and other-representations refer to how an individual views him or herself and others both in and outside of relationships. The current study will bring together aspects of these two literatures by exploring the associations between attachment patterns and this latter conceptualization of self-other representations.

More specifically the current study will examine the moderating role of attachment patterns on the relationship between perceived parenting experiences and adolescent representations of self and significant other. While it is well established within the research literature that parenting independently influences attachment (e.g., Belsky, Rovine & Taylor, 1984; Crittenden, 1985) and self-representations (e.g., Feiring & Taska, 1996; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbush, 1991) and that attachment patterns are linked to specific self-representations (e.g., Mikulincer, 1995), the interactions among these constructs have rarely been examined. It is acknowledged here that there are a number of alternative models for conceptualizing the pattern of relationships among these constructs. The rationale for examining the moderating role of attachment is presented in the following discussion.

It is proposed in this study that the patterns of attachment that young adolescents have developed out of their earlier experiences with their parents and other attachment figures will alter the “psychological meaning” and therefore the impact of current parenting experiences on their view of self and significant other. As will be outlined later, secure and dismissing attachment patterns are expected to protect youth from the impact of negative parenting experiences on their self-representations, whereas fearful and preoccupied attachment would be expected to place these youth in a more vulnerable position regarding their self-representations or self-concept. In contrast, secure and preoccupied attachment patterns may reduce the impact of negative caregiving experiences on other-representations, whereas, fearful and dismissing attachment may exacerbate the negative impact of such experiences on their perceptions of others. The theoretical concepts and empirical research that provide the foundations for these hypotheses are briefly reviewed below.

Parental Antecedents of Attachment Patterns

There is a large body of literature examining associations between maltreatment and attachment patterns. A number of studies of maltreated children have reported a higher incidence of insecure attachment between these children and their caregivers in comparison to well-matched, adequately reared children (e.g., Carlson, Cicchetti, Barnett, & Braunwald, 1989; Cicchetti & Barnett, 1991; Crittenden, 1985, 1992; Egeland & Sroufe, 1981; Greenberg, Speltz, DeKlyen, & Endriga, 1991).

In terms of the more specific aspects of parenting and their impact on attachment, some research has found that children whose caregivers are “insensitively overstimulating” including intrusive, hostile or abusive behaviours, are likely to demonstrate an avoidant attachment pattern (Belsky, Rovine & Taylor, 1984; Crittenden, 1985; Egeland & Sroufe, 1981; Lyons-Ruth, Connell, Zoll, & Stahl, 1987). These children may expect their caregiver to push them away if they seek comfort or protection, and so remain more distant from their caregiver during stresses that would arouse stronger proximity seeking responses in a securely attached child (e.g., ignoring their caregivers’ return after separations). This avoidant attachment pattern seems to correspond with both the fearful and dismissing patterns outlined in Bartholomew’s model.

In contrast, these same researchers have shown that children who experience inconsistently responsive caregiving experiences or “insensitive understimulation” (e.g., parental neglect) are more likely to demonstrate anxious-resistant or ambivalent attachment (Belsky, Rovine & Taylor, 1984; Crittenden, 1985; Egeland & Sroufe, 1981; Lyons-Ruth, Connell, Zoll, & Stahl, 1987). These children may be uncertain as to whether their caregiver will be available or helpful when needed, and so tend to have a heightened responsiveness to fear-eliciting cues producing more clingy, anxious and angry responses to separation. They approach the caregiver at reunion after separation but are also angry and push the caregiver away, and are often difficult

to soothe. This anxious-resistant attachment pattern corresponds to the adult preoccupied attachment pattern.

These patterns of insensitively over-stimulating or under-stimulating parenting practices appear to parallel components of what researchers in other areas of the literature commonly refer to as the two-dimensional model of parenting styles. These researchers have built upon revisions to Baumrind's (1971) typology of parenting styles (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). This interactive model is based on the two dimensions of parental behaviour displayed in Figure 2: acceptance/involvement and control/supervision. It seems plausible that the pattern of insensitive over-stimulation identified in the attachment literature conceptually corresponds with parenting strategies characterized by low acceptance and high control (the authoritarian style) and that insensitive under-stimulation corresponds to parenting characterized by low acceptance and low control (the neglectful style). Based on this assumption it is proposed here that parenting characterized by low acceptance will be related to more insecure attachment patterns, but that parental control will not necessarily be linked to specific attachment patterns as this depends on the level of parental acceptance present.

Parental Antecedents of Self-Representation

Following the theoretical assumption that attachment patterns provide a meaningful link between early parenting experiences and the development of internal representations of self and others, it is important to also review the possible direct associations between parenting and representational development. Drawing on the literature exploring the development of the self-system, there is growing empirical evidence suggesting that specific aspects of parenting may be critical in determining the content and valence of children and adolescents' self-representations. Given that this research has generally been conducted independent of the attachment literature, these self-development researchers have not been focused on exploring the impact of parenting on the content and valence of other-representations in addition to self-representations.

Generally, this research has shown that maltreated children report lower self-esteem or poorer self-representational development (e.g., Egeland, Sroufe, & Erickson, 1983; Harter, in press; Kaufman & Cicchetti, 1989; Toth, Manly, & Cicchetti, 1992). Investigators have also begun examining the influence of specific types of parenting on the development of children's self-representations. Utilizing Baumrind's (1971) conceptualization of parenting styles, recent research suggests that parenting strategies characterized by high acceptance or support and high supervision with inductive discipline (authoritative parenting) are associated with higher self-esteem or more positive self-concept development in adolescents (Feiring & Taska, 1996; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbush, 1991; Nielsen & Metha, 1994). In contrast, parenting strategies characterized by low acceptance and high control/supervision (authoritarian) or low acceptance and low control/supervision (neglectful) are associated with youth's poorer self-conceptions (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbush, 1991).

Finally, research demonstrates gender differences in the impact of parenting practices on adolescent self-development. It has been shown that typical socialization practices encourage young females to place a greater focus on others' responses to them in developing their sense of self, constructing and maintaining an "interdependent" self-system (Cross and Madson, 1997; Gilligan, Lyons, & Hammer, 1990; Jordan, Kaplan, Miller, Stiver, & Surrey, 1991; Surrey, 1991). In contrast to these results for females, researchers suggest that males are socialized to develop and maintain an "independent" self-system (Cross and Madson, 1997). Although research on gender differences in socialization practices has produced mixed results (Lytton & Romney, 1991), a common finding is that parents exercise different methods of controlling the behavior of their daughters and sons (Cross & Madson, 1997). For example, although mothers are equally likely to exercise control with their daughters and their sons, they are more likely to limit

autonomy when they use control with their daughters than with their sons (Pomerantz & Ruble, 1998).

It seems reasonable to hypothesize that these same gender-specific forms of parenting may also be, at least in part, responsible for the well-established gender difference in attachment patterns that emerges in adolescence, at which time, there is a higher proportion of female youth identified as preoccupied and a higher proportion of male youth identified as dismissing (e.g., Rosenstein & Horowitz, 1996). This gender difference has not been established in infancy or early childhood (for a review see Doyle & Moretti, 1999). As will be described in a moment, the adolescent developmental period may present youth with significant advances in representational capacity in the context of a vastly changing interpersonal environment. These changes may prompt the internalization of these gender-specific parenting experiences into their system of attachment representations and self-concept.

Given that these differential parenting experiences may lead to more preoccupied females and more dismissing males the current study proposes that when attachment is considered as a moderator of the impact of parenting on self-concept that gender differences in this relationship will no longer be evident. Regardless of gender, preoccupied attachment is expected to increase self-concept sensitivity to parenting experiences and dismissing attachment is expected to reduce self-concept sensitivity to parenting. Gender differences would, however, be expected when examining the direct relationship between parenting and self-representation without taking attachment into consideration. In this case, given female adolescents' "interdependent" self-system, their self-concept may be more vulnerable than male youths' self-concepts to the withdrawal of maternal acceptance or emotional rejection ("self-blaming" orientation). The self-concept of male adolescents, on the other hand, given their socialization toward a more

“independent” self-system may be less influenced by the withdrawal of maternal acceptance. However, their negative experiences with their mother may still impact on their representational system by being “externalized” into more negative attributions about their mother (“other-blaming” orientation).

Attachment and Self-Other Representation

The developmental period of adolescence brings new challenges and opportunities for self-system development. Developmental shifts in metacognitive and representational capacity that occur during adolescence (Case, 1985; Chalmers & Lawrence, 1993; Selman, 1980) promote a more highly differentiated and complex view of the self (Harter, 1990; Marsh, 1989; Moretti & Higgins, 1990a; 1999). Adolescence also introduces a period of significant transition in family and social role expectations coupled with an increase in the range and intimacy of social relationships (Buhrmester & Furman, 1987; Selman, 1980).

Given the multitude of cognitive and social transitions occurring during the adolescent period it may be expected that youth will attempt to draw on their internalized attachment representations in order to guide their evolving beliefs about themselves and others. In this way adolescents’ attachment patterns may function as protective or vulnerability factors in terms of the *continued* impact of negative experiences with their parents on their newly evolving self- and other-representations. Their attachment patterns may effect how they self-regulate their emotional and behavioural responses to their caregivers’ behaviours toward them thereby changing the *impact* of these behaviours on their self-concept and views of their parents. In order to understand how attachment may moderate the impact of parenting practices on self-other representations, it is first important to identify the established links between attachment patterns and self-other representations.

A large body of research within the attachment literature has examined the relationships between attachment and self- and other- representations using measures of global self-esteem or self-acceptance and self-reported sociability or perceived social support in adult samples (e.g., Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Cassidy, 1988; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; Kobak & Sceery, 1988). Generally, this research has shown that young adults who were identified as more secure or dismissing reported higher self-esteem and self-acceptance than individuals identified as more preoccupied or fearful. In addition, greater preoccupied and secure attachment was associated with higher perceived sociability and social support from friends and family compared to higher dismissing or fearful attachment.

More recently researchers have also begun to examine the associations between attachment patterns and several more specific aspects of the self-system in adolescents (e.g., Kobak, Cole, Ferenz-Gillies, Fleming, & Gamble, 1993; Mikulincer, 1995). First, this research has shown that while securely attached adolescents describe themselves in more positive terms they are also able to acknowledge negative self-attributes and they have a more highly differentiated and integrated self-structure with relatively low discrepancies between components of the self (Mikulincer, 1995). More securely attached youth were also found to be better able to self-regulate their emotions, in terms of modulating their anger and balancing assertiveness with their desire to remain connected, when problem-solving with their mothers (Kobak, et. al., 1993).

In contrast to these results for securely attached adolescents, anxious-ambivalent (preoccupied) adolescents have been found to report more negative and fewer positive self-attributes and have a very poorly differentiated and integrated self-structure. In addition, these youth also report high levels of discrepancy within their self-system which is likely associated with their reduced ability to self-regulate emotional distress (Mikulincer, 1995). Avoidantly attached

youth report equally positive self-descriptions and differentiated self-structure as that of securely attached youth. However, these youth also appear to be less able to acknowledge negative self-aspects, perceive fewer connections between differentiated self-aspects, and show high discrepancies between the various domains and perspectives on the self (Mikulincer, 1995). Dismissing male adolescents also appear to be less able to self-regulate their anger responses in problem-solving interactions with their mothers (Kobak, et. al., 1993). Overall, this research indicates that while attachment patterns and aspects of the self-system are related, these patterns are complex, suggesting that these constructs address distinct yet interacting systems.

This literature examining the complex relationships between attachment patterns and the various components of the self-system has not yet explored similar associations between attachment patterns and representations of significant others. The current study will extend this research by providing a preliminary examination of the associations between attachment and maternal-representation.

Parenting Practices, Attachment Patterns and Self-Other Representations

To date research has examined the links between parenting practices and attachment, parenting and self-representation, and attachment and self-representation separately. The purpose of the current study was to simultaneously examine the interrelations between parenting practices, attachment, and self-other representations. The current study examined two possible models of effects. First, the direct-effects model proposed that parenting quality would be directly related to self-other representations, and similarly, that attachment patterns would be directly related to self-other representations. This model, shown in Figure 3, illustrates the direct effects of specific parenting characteristics on adolescents' views of self and their views of their mothers independent of their attachment patterns. Second, it was proposed that the effect of parenting

practices on current self- and maternal-representations would depend on youths' attachment patterns, in that these interpersonal patterns would modify the psychological meaning of parental behaviour. This proposed moderator model is displayed in Figure 4.

The following three sets of hypotheses were examined in the current study. The first set focuses on the direct impact of parenting on self- and maternal-representations. In line with previous research, the current study predicted that parenting strategies characterized by higher acceptance would be associated with more positive self-representations, higher self-esteem, and more positive representations of mother. The impact of parental control was expected, however, to be moderated by parental acceptance. That is, perceived control would have a less negative impact on self- and mother-representations in the presence of higher acceptance. As indicated earlier, gender differences were expected to reflect greater self-representational vulnerability in females and greater maternal-representational vulnerability in males.

The second set of hypotheses centered on the associations between attachment patterns and self-other representation. Four specific hypotheses were tested. First, based on previous research, higher ratings of secure and dismissing attachment were expected to be associated with more positive self descriptions and higher self-esteem. The second prediction was that fearful and preoccupied attachment would be associated with less positive self perceptions. The third hypothesis was that higher ratings of secure and preoccupied attachment would be associated with more positive perceptions of mother, while the fourth hypothesis was that fearful and dismissing would be associated with less positive maternal-perceptions. These associations were, however, expected to be moderate rather than large in magnitude as the concepts of attachment and self- and other-representations are believed to be non-redundant.

Finally the third set of hypotheses in the current study examined the proposed moderator model. Generally, it was hypothesized that adolescent attachment patterns would moderate the impact of maternal parenting practices on youth's current representations of self and mother. As noted earlier gender differences were not expected to influence the moderating role of attachment.

Four specific moderator hypotheses were tested in this study. First, it was expected that secure attachment would reduce the impact of perceived parenting on self- and maternal-representations. In other words, the self- and maternal-representations of more securely attached youth will be less susceptible to, or dependent on, their reports of their mother's behaviours toward them. In this way these youth would be "protected" from the negative impact of parental control or lack of acceptance. Second, fearful attachment was expected to increase the impact of parenting on their self- and maternal-representations (e.g., these youth would appear to be more vulnerable to the negative impact of high control or lack of acceptance). Third, preoccupied attachment was expected to increase the impact of parenting on their self-representations (e.g., increasing their vulnerability to the negative impact of emotionally rejecting parenting). However higher preoccupied attachment was also expected to reduce the impact of parenting experiences on these youth's representations of their mothers. In this way they would maintain a defensively positive, approach orientation toward their mothers regardless of how she behaved toward them. Finally, highly dismissing attachment was expected to reduce the impact of parenting on self-concept but also to increase the impact of parenting on their negative perceptions of their mothers. Theoretically, it was believed that highly dismissing youth would defensively "protect" themselves from the negative impact of controlling parenting but would also be susceptible to "exaggerated" views of others depending on whether they approved of how these others behaved

toward them (e.g., devaluing or idealizing their mother depending on whether she has behaved in a way they like or not).

A clinically referred population of adolescents was chosen for the current study with the hope that the results may provide support for the importance of attachment and internal representational processes in youth who are often maltreated and are referred for treatment or psychological assessment. Therefore, the purpose of the current study was to explore the clinical application of attachment theory to this high-risk population of youth, as opposed to, testing the normative attachment processes involved during the adolescent developmental period. The results from this current study could ultimately extend our knowledge in the advancement of interventions which are sensitive to the specific interpersonal needs of these adolescents.

Given the emphasis within the attachment literature on the importance of children's maternal figure in the development of their sense of self and their attachment patterns (e.g., Cassidy, 1988; Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985) and more recent findings suggesting that child attachment is predictable primarily from mothers' as opposed to fathers' attachment patterns (Van Ijzendoorn & De-Wolff, 1997), it was decided in the current study, to focus on maternal caregiving rather than paternal caregiving experiences. Also, as is the case for many youth raised in high risk home environments, 22% of the youth in the current sample could not identify a significant paternal figure in order to report on their paternal caregiving experiences. Given this lack of information, the current study was unable to examine the differential impact of paternal caregiving compared to maternal caregiving. Further research is required to examine the role of parenting experiences by father figures in the development of attachment patterns and self-other representation in samples of youth at risk for various forms of psychopathology.

Method

Participants

Participants were recruited between September 1997 and February 1999 from consecutive admissions to the Maples Adolescent Centre, Response Program, in Burnaby, B. C., Canada. Adolescents between the ages of 11 and 17 years of age, who are voluntarily admitted to this program, reside at this facility for one month during which time they complete multi-disciplinary assessments (see Holland, Moretti, Verlaan, & Peterson, 1993, or Moretti, Holland, & Peterson, 1994, for a more detailed description of the assessment program). The single criterion for referral into this program, for both male and female youth, is the presence of severe behavioural or emotional problems. Youth with previously documented intellectual deficiencies or acute thought disorder are excluded from this program.

During the period in which the study was completed, 92 of 143 admissions participated. Reasons for exclusion from the study included refusal to participate ($n = 43$) and severe intellectual deficits ($n = 8$) which were not detected until post-admission. Of the youth who participated, 11 failed to complete the procedure and for 31 youth information was lost due to technical difficulties. The final sample of 50 youth consisted of 28 males and 22 females who ranged in age from 11 to 17 years old ($M = 14.71$; $SD = 1.36$). The majority of these youth were identified as having a primarily Caucasian ethnic background (69%). The most common minority group identified was Native Canadian (14%). Socioeconomic status (SES) was scored on Hollingshead's (1975) 9-step scale for parental occupation, using the higher status occupation in each household (scores 1 - 3.5 = lower; 4 - 5 = lower middle; 5.5 - 6.5 = upper middle; 7 - 9 = upper). The majority of youth's households were identified as lower (59%) or lower middle class (32%), with only 9% identified as upper middle class. Intellectual functioning was also assessed

on a subset of the sample as part of the general clinical assessment using the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children - Third Edition (WISC-III; Wechsler, 1991). Full scale IQ scores ranged from 74 to 122, with a mean quotient of 91.30 ($SD = 12.80$). As shown in Tables 1 and 2, no significant sex differences were found in ethnic group, socioeconomic status, current living arrangement, age upon admission, or intellectual functioning based on WISC-III IQ scores.

Procedure

Caregivers of youth were provided with information regarding the general research project and limitations of confidentiality at the time that their child was referred to the program. They were then asked to give written consent for their child to participate in a number of psychological assessments for the purpose of research and program evaluation. All youth admitted to the program participated in an intake interview conducted by a psychologist at the time of admission and were asked for consent to have the interview taped for clinical and research purposes. Youth were then approached one to two weeks after admission to the program and invited to participate in the research project. The nature of their participation and limitations of confidentiality were fully explained before they were asked for written consent. Their participation involved completing a variety of diagnostic, personality, and family assessment instruments, many of which were not included in the current study. Youth completed these instruments across a number of assessment sessions, each of which lasted for no longer than two hours. Information from the psychology intake interviews regarding who the youth regarded as their primary caregivers were used to ensure that the youth were asked to describe the same caregivers throughout the various assessment sessions. Upon completion of all assessment sessions, youth were paid \$30.00 for their participation.

Measures

Family Attachment Interview - Modified (FAI; Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Each youth was administered a semi-structured interview, conducted by a psychologist, lasting 1 to 2 hours. This psychology intake interview contains attachment-related questions from the Family Attachment Interview (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991). Youth were asked to describe their family history, structure, and relationships, and their feelings about the importance of family relationships. Each youth's degree of correspondence to each of the four prototypic attachment patterns (secure, fearful, preoccupied, and dismissing) was rated on a scale ranging from 1 (no correspondence with the prototype) to 9 (excellent fit with the prototype).

This coding system has been well validated in various populations (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991; Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1994) including a similar clinically-referred sample of adolescents (Scharfe, 1998). Previous research also indicates fair to good inter-rater reliability (standardized alphas from .78 to .84 for the continuous ratings and kappas from .50 to .68 for agreement on predominant attachment categories; Scharfe, 1998). All coding in the current study was completed by a graduate student who had previously established inter-rater reliability.

Children's Report of Parental Behavior Inventory (CRPBI; Schludermann & Schludermann, 1988). The CRPBI is an instrument that was developed specifically to investigate children's perceptions of their parents' child-rearing behaviour (Schaefer, 1965a). The CRPBI employed in the current study was a shortened version of the 108-item revision by Schuldermann and Schludermann (1988). The 60 items of this measure were completed by youth, once for their perceptions of their mother's child-rearing, and once for their father's child-rearing behaviours. Youth were instructed to describe their earliest primary caregivers. It was found that the majority

of youth identified their biological mother (96% of males and 86% of females) and biological father (81% of males and 64% of females) as their primary caregivers regardless of who they were currently living with. The remaining youth identified adoptive (4% of males and 4% females), or step-parents (15% of males and 32% of females) as their primary caregivers throughout their childhood, while only one youth reported being raised primarily by a female relative. Youth were asked to respond on a 3-point scale, indicating whether the items were “not like” (0), “somewhat like” (1), or “a lot like” (2) each of their parents.

This instrument assesses three dimensions of parental child-rearing behaviour which have been obtained through factor analysis: acceptance vs. rejection, psychological control vs. psychological autonomy, and firm control vs. lax control (Schaefer, 1965b; Schludermann & Schludermann, 1971; 1988). Scores for each of the three dimensions were derived by summing the scores on the individual items that make up that dimension. The acceptance versus rejection dimension reflects the degree to which parents are perceived as affectionate and supportive versus neglecting and rejecting. The psychological control versus psychological autonomy dimension reflects the degree to which parents are perceived as being intrusive and using anxiety, guilt, and love withdrawal to control their child’s behaviour. The dimension of firm control versus lax control reflects the degree to which parents are perceived as setting limits, making rules and regulations, and enforcing these rules, versus being perceived as highly permissive or uninvolved with their child. The current study utilized the measures of psychological control and acceptance by the youth’s primary maternal figure in order to examine the role of perceived parenting practices in interpersonal and self-representational development. The more behaviourally focused concept of firm control was not examined.

Previous research indicates that the revised versions of the CRPBI have suitable reliability and validity. Test-retest coefficients for the three factors range from .79 to .92 over a 1-month interval. The same factor structure has been obtained across a wide range of populations (Armentrout, & Burger, 1972; Renson, Schaefer, & Levy, 1968; Schwarz, Barton-Henry, & Pruzinsky, 1985) and moderate internal consistency was found within each of the factors, ranging from .48 to .75 (Schuldermann and Schludermann, 1988; Schwarz, Barton-Henry, & Pruzinsky, 1985). In the current study, good internal consistency was found within each of the factors ranging from .80 to .95 for maternal and .73 to .95 for paternal figures. Finally, research has shown that family satisfaction scores were significantly correlated with youth perceptions of high acceptance and low psychological control by both parents (Schuldermann and Schludermann, 1988).

The Selves Questionnaire (adapted from Higgins, Klein, & Strauman, 1985). The Selves questionnaire provides an idiographic assessment of self and other representations. Standard instructions for the Selves were revised using developmentally appropriate language for an adolescent sample. The revised version of the measure instructs youth to list up to 10 attributes describing their view of “self” (what they are really like) from both their own and their caregivers’ perspectives, as well as, their view of their caregivers. Youth rate the extent to which they feel they possess, or their caregivers possess, each of these attributes on a 5-point scale from “a little” (1) to “a lot” (5).

The content of the self- and maternal-representations were assessed by determining the number of positive, negative, and neutral attributes listed. The positivity/negativity ratings were based on Anderson’s (1968) 7-point scale for rating the “likableness” of personality attributes, from 0 (least favorable or desirable) to 6 (most favorable or desirable). Attributes with likableness

scores greater than 3 were classified as positive, whereas those with likableness scores less than 3 were classified as negative. Examples of commonly listed positive attributes include, nice, smart, funny, and honest. In contrast, examples of commonly listed negative attributes include, mean, rude, lazy, and selfish. Attributes, with a likableness rating of 3 (e.g., cautious, different, tall) were classified as neutral.

Given previous research indicating that the proportion of *distinctly* positive attributions about self and the world promotes psychological well-being (Taylor & Brown, 1994), it was predicted in the current study that greater proportions of positive self and mother attributes relative to neutral *or* negative attributes, would be related to more positive parenting experiences and attachment patterns characterized by positive self or other-representations. Therefore, indices of relative positivity of self and relative positivity of view of mother were derived by calculating the proportion of positive attributes out of the total number of attributes (positive, negative and neutral) listed for each type of representation.

Previous research with this measure has established good reliability and validity. The current study established good inter-rater reliability with Cohen's kappas equal to .83 for classifying self attributes as either positive, negative, or neutral, and .79 for classifying mother attributes. These findings are consistent with our previous research with a nonclinical sample of adolescents (Moretti & Wiebe, 1998). Reliability estimates at 3-year retest have also been found to be good (Strauman, 1996). Finally, the relation of negative self-representations to emotional distress has been demonstrated in previous studies (Moretti & Higgins, 1990).

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965). This self-report measure consists of 10 items assessing how the individual feels about him- or herself. Youth were asked to indicate how often a given statement is true for them on a 4-point Likert scale from strongly agree (1) to

strongly disagree (4). An index of self-esteem was calculated by adding the ten items. Higher scores indicate higher self-esteem. This self-esteem score is conceptualized as reflecting the extent to which the overall sense of self is evaluated as positive.

Test-retest reliability has been established at .85 (Silber & Tippett, 1965 as cited in Nielsen & Metha, 1994). In the current study, good internal consistency was established at .81. In addition, evidence supports this measure's concurrent validity (coefficients ranging from .56 to .83; Silber & Tippett, 1965) and discriminant validity (inverse correlations with measures of depressed affect; Silber & Tippett, 1965; Johnson, 1976 as cited in Nielsen & Metha, 1994).

Results

Sample Characteristics

Mean scores on the dimensional measures of parenting, attachment, and self- and maternal-presentations are reported separately for males and females in Table 2. Both male and female youth reported similar levels of maternal psychological control and acceptance. With respect to the dimensional ratings of attachment, female youth were found to have significantly higher ratings of fearful and preoccupied attachment, whereas male youth were rated higher on dismissing attachment, $t(48) = -2.04, p < .05$, $t(48) = -4.38, p < .001$, and $t(48) = 3.59, p < .005$, respectively. Overall, categorical analyses indicated that when youth were classified based on their predominant attachment pattern, 34% were predominantly fearful, 26% were preoccupied, and 28% were dismissing, with only 10% classified as predominantly secure. Examining the differences between males and females indicated that the majority of females were either fearful (45%) or preoccupied (45%), whereas the majority of males were classified as either fearful (25%) or dismissing (46%), $\chi^2(4, N = 50) = 16.91, p < .005$. These results are consistent with

previous findings in a similar population (Scharfe, 1998).

Females reported significantly lower self-esteem, $t(38) = 3.90, p < .001$, and tended to report a lower proportion of positive attributes in their representations of their mother, however this was only marginally significant, $t(48) = 1.82, p = .07$. This finding is consistent with other research showing lower self-esteem in adolescent girls than boys (Simmons & Blyth, 1987; Simmons & Rosenberg, 1975).

Parenting, Attachment and Self-Mother Representation

Zero-order correlations for the entire sample are presented in Table 3 and separately for male and female youth in Tables 4 and 5. Consistent with the prediction that parenting characterized by low acceptance would be related to more insecure attachment, higher maternal acceptance was marginally correlated with higher security, $r = .28, p = .06$, and significantly correlated with higher security in males only, $r = .40, p < .05$. Psychological control was not significantly related to any of the four attachment patterns.

With respect to the impact of parenting on self-other representations, the first hypothesis in the current study predicted that maternal acceptance would be associated with more positive self- and maternal-representations, but that psychological control would interact with or be moderated by parental acceptance. Acceptance tended to have a positive relationship with self-esteem, $r = .26, p = .10$, however, this result was only significant for male youth, $r = .53, p < .01$. Unexpectedly, perceived control was significantly related to lower self-esteem, $r = -.54, p < .01$, and marginally related to more positive self-representations, $r = .37, p = .05$, in males only. These findings lend support to a direct effects model of influence between parenting and self-representation in male youth only.

With respect to the relationships between parenting and maternal-representation, as expected, perceived acceptance was related to more positive maternal-representations, $r = .54$, $p < .001$. When analyzed separately, this same pattern of results was found for both male and female youth. Interestingly, psychological control was related to less positive maternal-representations, $r = -.41$, $p < .005$, however this result was not significant for males (see Tables 4 and 5). Again these findings lend preliminary support to a direct effects model of association between parenting and representations of maternal figures.

In terms of the relationships between attachment and self- and other-representations, the current study examined four specific hypotheses. First, it was expected that higher ratings of secure and dismissing attachment would be associated with more positive self descriptions and higher self-esteem. In partial support of this expectation, security was associated with more positive representations of self in females only, $r = .47$, $p < .05$, and dismissing attachment was associated with higher self-esteem when males and females were combined, $r = .33$, $p < .05$, but was no longer significant when they were examined separately. The second expectation, that fearful and preoccupied would be associated with lower scores on these measures of self, was also partially supported. Fearful attachment was related to lower self-esteem when males and females were combined, $r = -.45$, $p < .005$. When examined separately, however, this result was only marginally significant for males and was nonsignificant for females. The third hypothesis, that higher ratings of secure and preoccupied attachment would be related to more positive perceptions of mother, was not supported. Finally, the prediction that fearful and dismissing attachment would be associated with less positive maternal-perceptions was only supported for dismissing attachment. Dismissingness was significantly related to less positive maternal-

representations in males, $r = -.40$, $p < .05$, and marginally related to less positive maternal-representations in females, $r = -.42$, $p = .06$.

Generally, this pattern of results points to the importance of attachment in understanding self- and other-representation in adolescents. However, many of the expected relationships were not significant. This situation suggests that the next step in examining the impact of attachment on the representational system is to look for more indirect or moderating relationships between parenting, attachment and self-other representation. In addition, consistent with the predictions outlined earlier, the correlations that were found between attachment and the self-other representational variables were moderate, rather than large, in magnitude suggesting that while attachment and self-other representations are significantly related, they are not redundant constructs.

Moderating Influence of Attachment on Parenting and Self-Mother Representation

Hierarchical regression analyses were completed to examine the third set of hypotheses predicting a moderating influence of attachment on the relationships between parenting and self-other representations. In order to examine these moderator effects, the interactions between parenting and each of the four attachment patterns were entered into separate hierarchical regression analyses predicting positivity of self, self-esteem, and positivity of mother representations. In addition, given that the impact of psychological control was expected to be moderated by perceived acceptance in predicting representations of self and mother, the interactions between the parenting dimensions were also entered as predictor variables. Finally, gender differences in these patterns were examined by entering gender and its interactions into each regression along with parenting and attachment.

In each regression, maternal acceptance, maternal psychological control, attachment, and gender were entered as a block in the first step of the analysis. All two-way interactions were entered in the second step and all three-way interactions were entered in the third step. This procedure was repeated in separate regression equations for each of the four attachment patterns (secure, fearful, preoccupied, dismissing), predicting each of the three representational measures (self-positivity, self-esteem, mother-positivity), resulting in a total of 12 regression analyses.

Given that the purpose of these regression analyses was to test the predictions in the current study that attachment would moderate the impact of parenting on self-other representations, the highest-level interaction effects are reported first. The meaning of all lower-level interactions and main effects change in the context of these higher-order interactions and therefore are only interpreted as a way of understanding the interactions which subsume them. All significant results are reported within the highest step in the analysis which accounts for a significant portion of the variance in the dependent variable.

As outlined earlier, the specific hypotheses being tested in these analyses are: (1) secure attachment will reduce the impact of perceived parenting on self- and maternal-representations; (2) fearful attachment will increase the impact of parenting on self- and maternal-representations; (3) preoccupied attachment will increase the impact of parenting on self-representations but also *reduce* the impact of parenting experiences on these youth's representations of their mothers; (4) dismissing attachment will reduce the impact of parenting on self-concept but also *increase* the impact of parenting on perceptions of mother. The results of the hierarchical regression analyses which test these predictions are presented below, separately for each attachment pattern, predicting positivity of self-representation, self-esteem, and positivity of maternal-representation. In addition, all of the patterns of significant results are summarized in Tables 12 and 13.

Secure Attachment. The highest order interactions found to be significant in the regression analysis examining the moderating role of secure attachment on parenting and self-positivity were the two-way interactions. These interactions were entered into the second step of the regression, which was marginally significant, $R^2 = .35$, $\Delta R^2 = .22$, $p = .08$. Within this step the maternal acceptance x gender, $\beta = -1.38$, $p < .05$, psychological control x gender, $\beta = -1.81$, $p < .05$, and secure attachment x gender, $\beta = .99$, $p = .05$, interactions emerged as significant predictors of self-positivity. The results from this step of the regression analysis are displayed in Table 6.

In order to interpret these three gender interactions, male and female youth were examined separately. These results revealed that, contrary to expectations, maternal acceptance, $p_r = .38$, $\beta = .44$, $p < .06$, and psychological control, $p_r = .50$, $\beta = .56$, $p < .01$, were significant or marginally significant predictors of self-positivity for males but not for females. These effects are similar to, but stronger than, the zero-order correlations described earlier for male youth. It was predicted that female's self-concepts, rather than males, would be influenced by the withdrawal of maternal acceptance. In contrast to these results for males, secure attachment was the only significant predictor of self-positivity for females, $p_r = .56$, $\beta = .56$, $p < .05$. This result is consistent with expectations but had been suggested to hold for both males and females.

With respect to self-esteem, the third step of the regression analysis, in which the three-way interactions were entered, was significant, $R^2 = .65$, $\Delta R^2 = .18$, $p < .05$ (see Table 7). First, within this step, a control x secure x gender three-way interaction emerged as a significant predictor of self-esteem, $\beta = -10.39$, $p < .005$. This three-way interaction subsumes the significant lower-level, control x secure, $\beta = 10.68$, $p < .01$, control x gender, $\beta = 7.96$, $p < .01$, and secure x gender, $\beta = 10.16$, $p < .05$, two-way interactions. Therefore the higher-order interaction must be

interpreted first. This was accomplished by repeating the same regression analysis separately for male and female youth. The second step of the regression for males revealed a marginally significant control x security interaction, $\beta = .42$, $\beta = 1.56$, $p = .06$, and a significant main effect for control, $\beta = -.46$, $\beta = -1.22$, $p < .05$. However this step, overall, did not significantly contribute beyond the first step in which control was the only predictor of self-esteem (step 1: $R^2 = .40$, $p < .05$; step 2: $\Delta R^2 = .12$, *ns*). Interestingly, the marginally significant control x security interaction for females was in the *opposite* direction as that in males, $\beta = -.56$, $\beta = -4.56$, $p = .09$, and there was a fairly large, though, nonsignificant main effect for secure attachment, $\beta = .52$, $\beta = 4.53$, *ns*.

In order to interpret the potentially different moderating role of secure attachment on psychological control and self-esteem for males and females, a median split procedure was utilized and separate regressions were conducted for youth rated as higher versus lower on secure attachment. These analyses revealed that perceived control was significantly related to *lower* self-esteem for less securely attached males, $\beta = -.71$, $\beta = -.66$, $p = .01$, while the negative impact of control was not evident in more securely attached males, $\beta = .49$, $\beta = .56$, *ns*. This result supports the first moderator hypothesis, that secure attachment would reduce the impact of parenting on self-representation. For females this pattern was reversed, in that, perceived control tended to be related to *greater* self-esteem for less securely attached females, $\beta = .47$, $\beta = .72$, *ns*, while control was not related to self-esteem in more securely attached females. This finding, however, was not significant. The possible meanings of these differences are presented later in the discussion.

In addition to the interactions described thus far between psychological control, secure attachment, and gender in predicting self-esteem, a significant acceptance x secure attachment interaction, $\beta = 7.05$, $p < .05$, was also found to predict self-esteem. This finding is also displayed in Table 7. By utilizing the same median split procedure already outlined, separate regressions were conducted for youth rated as higher versus lower on secure attachment. These analyses were not conducted separately for male and female youth as there was not a significant gender interaction with acceptance and secure attachment. These regressions revealed a significant relationship between maternal acceptance and higher self-esteem at higher levels of security, $\beta = .57$, $\beta = .81$, $p < .05$. This positive relationship did not exist at lower levels of security, $\beta = -.05$, $\beta = -.05$, *ns*. This result is exactly the opposite of the hypothesis that greater security would *reduce* the impact of parenting on self-esteem.

Finally, with respect to maternal-representations, no significant interactions were found between parenting, secure attachment, or gender. The first step of the regression analysis was significant, however, indicating one significant main effect for maternal acceptance in predicting more positive representations of mother, independent of security, perceived control, and gender, $\beta = .41$, $p < .05$. This finding is consistent with the positive zero-order correlations presented earlier for male and female youth.

In summary, secure attachment was found to have a direct relationship with self-positivity in females only. Secure attachment was also found to moderate the impact of maternal acceptance and psychological control on self-esteem. While lower security increases the *negative* relationship between psychological control and self-esteem in males, it increases the *positive* relationship

between control and self-esteem in females. In contrast, higher security fosters the positive impact of perceived maternal acceptance on self-esteem for both male and female youth.

Fearful Attachment. Contrary to predictions, fearful attachment did not moderate the impact of parenting on self-positivity, self-esteem or maternal-positivity. In the first regression analysis, no significant predictors of self-positivity were found when fearful attachment, parenting and gender were entered together.

In the regression analysis predicting self-esteem, fearful attachment $\beta = -.32$, $p < .05$, and gender, $\beta = -.40$, $p < .01$, emerged as significant main effects (step 1: $R^2 = .40$, $p = .001$). The results from the first step of this analysis are displayed in Table 8. In addition to supporting the gender difference already identified in reported levels of self-esteem (see Table 2), these results also provide support for a direct effects influence of fearful attachment on self-esteem.

Finally, maternal acceptance was the only significant predictor of more positive representations of mother, independent of fearful attachment, perceived control, and gender, $\beta = .50$, $p < .005$ (step 1: $R^2 = .35$, $p = .001$). Again, this finding is consistent with the positive zero-order correlations presented for male and female youth and the regression analysis entering secure attachment, parenting, and gender as predictor variables.

Preoccupied Attachment. The highest order interactions found to be significant in the regression analysis examining the moderating role of preoccupied secure attachment on parenting and self-positivity were the two-way interactions. These interactions were entered into the second step of the regression, which was significant, $R^2 = .37$, $\Delta R^2 = .26$, $p < .05$. As displayed in Table 9, the acceptance x preoccupied interaction, $\beta = -1.35$, $p < .05$, the preoccupied x gender interaction, $\beta = -2.37$, $p < .01$, and the preoccupied main effect, $\beta = 2.80$, $p = .01$, emerged as

significant predictors of self-positivity. The two higher-order interactions were further examined utilizing similar procedures as outlined earlier.

First, in terms of the preoccupied x gender interaction, separate regression analyses were conducted for male and female youth. As was found with secure attachment, psychological control emerged as a significant predictor of self-positivity for males only, $p_r = .49$, $\beta = .52$, $p < .05$, although this was not represented as an interaction in the original analysis. In contrast to the results for males, for females preoccupied attachment emerged as a marginally significant predictor of less positive self-representations, $p_r = -.41$, $\beta = -.44$, $p = .10$. This nonsignificant finding for females was probably due to reduced statistical power when male and female youth were separated. This result does, however, appear to account for the preoccupied x gender interaction.

In order to interpret the acceptance x preoccupied interaction, separate regression analyses were conducted for youth rated as higher versus lower on preoccupied attachment. These analyses revealed that at lower levels of preoccupied attachment maternal acceptance was related to greater self-positivity, $p_r = .41$, $\beta = .44$, ns, whereas this relationship does not exist at higher levels of preoccupied attachment, $p_r = -.04$, $\beta = -.05$, ns. Once again, while this finding for lower preoccupied attachment is nonsignificant, this is likely due to reduced statistical power when splitting the sample size. This finding does, however, serve to illustrate the probable nature of the acceptance x preoccupied interaction. These results provide preliminary support for a moderating effect of preoccupied attachment, however, contrary to expectations higher preoccupied attachment appears to *reduce* the positive impact of perceived acceptance rather than to increase the negative impact of low acceptance on self-representation.

With respect to self-esteem, no significant interactions were found between parenting, preoccupied attachment or gender. However, the first step of the regression analysis was significant, $R^2 = .31$, $p < .01$, revealing a gender main effect, $\beta = -.50$, $p < .01$. As noted earlier, this gender effect is consistent with the lower level of self-esteem reported by females.

Finally, with respect to maternal-representations, there were no significant interactions, however, the first step of the regression analysis was significant, $R^2 = .33$, $p < .005$. This analysis indicated, as was the case for secure and fearful attachment, that maternal acceptance is predictive of more positive representations of mother, independent of preoccupied attachment, perceived control, and gender, $\beta = .40$, $p = .05$. The hypothesis that higher preoccupied attachment would reduce the impact of parenting on maternal-representations was not supported.

In summary, preoccupied attachment was found to have a marginally significant direct relationship with lower self-positivity in females only. Preoccupied attachment was also found to moderate the impact of maternal acceptance on self-positivity for both male and female youth. Lower preoccupied attachment appears to bolster the positive impact of perceived acceptance. This means that having a less preoccupied attachment pattern may place these youth in a more favorable position for viewing themselves more positively when faced with increasing parental acceptance.

Dismissing Attachment. No significant predictors of self-positivity were found when dismissing attachment was entered into the regression analysis with parenting and gender.

With respect to self-esteem, the third step of the regression analysis, in which the three-way interactions were entered, was significant, $R^2 = .67$, $\Delta R^2 = .19$, $p < .05$. First, within this step, two significant three-way interactions emerged: control x dismissing x gender, $\beta = 6.27$, $p < .05$,

and acceptance x control x gender, $\beta = 2.86$, $p = .05$. The first three-way interaction subsumes the two significant lower-level, control x dismissing, $\beta = -5.58$, $p < .06$, and control x gender, $\beta = -6.06$, $p = .06$, interactions. Results from the third step of the analysis are displayed in Table 10.

In order to explore the nature of these three-way interactions with gender, the same regression analysis was repeated separately for male and female youth. Only the first step of the regression for males as significant, $R^2 = .43$, $p < .01$, revealing a significant main effect for acceptance, $\beta = .44$, $p = .05$, and a marginally significant main effect for psychological control, $\beta = -.37$, $p = .08$. These direct relationships between parenting and self-esteem are similar to, but not as strong as, the zero-order correlations already presented in Table 4 for male youth. Dismissing attachment did not significantly predict self-esteem in males.

In contrast to these results for males, the second step of the regression for females was marginally significant, $R^2 = .59$, $\Delta R^2 = .48$, $p = .09$, and revealed a significant acceptance x control interaction, $\beta = 1.60$, $p < .05$, and a marginally significant control x dismissing interaction, $\beta = 3.10$, $p = .12$. These appear to be fairly pronounced effects which the current study lacks statistical power to detect when only examining female youth. However, in order to explore the meaning of the two interactions for females, the median split procedure was used again to run separate analyses for higher versus lower dismissing attachment and higher versus lower perceived acceptance. These analyses were conducted for descriptive purposes only without reporting specific values as these are likely to be unstable values given the reduced sample sizes.

First, for females only, it was found that perceived acceptance moderates the impact of perceived psychological control on self-esteem by increasing the positive relationship between

control and self-esteem. These descriptive analyses support the first hypothesis that perceived control would have a more positive impact on self-concept in the presence of higher acceptance. At lower levels of acceptance, perceived control appears to have little effect on self-esteem.

Finally, the descriptive analyses also suggest that for more highly dismissing females psychological control is positively related to self-esteem, whereas this relationship does not appear to hold for females rated low on dismissing attachment. This finding is exactly the opposite of the dismissing moderator hypothesis that highly dismissing attachment would reduce the impact of parenting on self-concept. This pattern of results suggests that dismissingness in females only “protects” their sense of self-esteem at *higher* levels of perceived control. The implications of these results will be explored in the discussion section.

Finally, with respect to maternal-representations, there were no significant interactions. The first step of the regression analysis was significant, $R^2 = .41$, $p < .001$, revealing main effects for acceptance, $\beta = .33$, $p < .05$, dismissing attachment, $\beta = -.35$, $p = .05$, and gender $\beta = -.27$ $p < .06$. The results from this first step of the analysis are displayed in Table 11. The acceptance main effect is consistent with the results for secure, fearful, and preoccupied attachment. In this analysis maternal acceptance is predictive of more positive representations of mother, independent of dismissing attachment, perceived control, and gender. The gender effect reflects the less positive maternal-representations reported by females compared to males, which was displayed in Table 2. Finally, as expected, dismissing attachment was related to less positive representations of mother. The hypothesis that higher dismissing attachment would increase the impact of parenting on maternal-representations was not supported.

Overall these findings suggest that, first, dismissing attachment is directly related to less positive representations of youths' maternal figures. Secondly, dismissing attachment moderates the impact of psychological control on self-esteem in females only. While, greater dismissingness in females appears to increase the beneficial effects of psychological control on their self-esteem, this finding must be viewed with caution given the reduced sample size of females rated as higher on dismissing attachment.

Discussion

The findings in the current study provide important preliminary support for both the direct effects and moderator models of influence between maternal parenting and attachment on self-other representational development.

First, in terms of the relationship between maternal parenting practices and self- and maternal-representations, for male youth acceptance was, as expected, directly related to higher self-esteem and more positive representations of mother. Also for males, psychological control was surprisingly related to both more positive self-representations and lower self-esteem. For female youth, perceived acceptance was related to more positive representations of mother, but also, moderated the impact of perceived psychological control on their self-esteem. That is, only when females reported higher levels of maternal acceptance, higher psychological control was associated with higher self-esteem. This suggests that the presence of maternal acceptance changes the meaning of psychological control for female youth. This finding partially supports expectations in the current study and findings from previous research (e.g., Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbush, 1991).

It is unclear whether these findings support previously documented gender differences in which young females were found to place a greater focus on others' responses to them in

developing their sense of self, while males are socialized to develop a more relationally independent self-system (e.g., Cross and Madson, 1997). In the current sample of male adolescents, self-concept was related to both perceived acceptance and perceived control (the magnitude of these partial correlations range from .37 to .50). The relationship between parenting and self-esteem does appear to be somewhat stronger in females (the partial correlation is .65), however, level of acceptance moderates the impact of control. These findings suggest that the self-concepts of females may be more “sensitive” to certain aspects of parenting (e.g., maternal acceptance combined with varying levels of psychological control). Finally, contrary to the prediction that negative parenting experiences would have a greater impact on male adolescents’ representations of their mothers (“other-blaming” orientation), psychological control was related to less positive maternal-representations in females only.

In terms of the relationship between attachment and self-other representation, in females only, secure attachment was associated with greater self-positivity and preoccupied attachment tended to be associated with less self-positivity. Fearful attachment was found to be linked to lower self-esteem in both male and female youth. And finally, dismissing attachment predicted less positive representations of mother in both male and female youth. These findings partially support the hypotheses in the current study and findings from previous research (e.g., Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Finally, the primary purpose of the current study was to examine the moderating role of attachment on the relationships between parenting style and self-other representation. Three of the four attachment patterns demonstrated significant moderator effects (secure, preoccupied and dismissing), however, only one of these results supported the predicted moderator effect. There were no moderation effects predicting positivity of maternal-representations.

First, secure attachment was found to moderate the impact of perceived acceptance and psychological control on self-esteem. As expected relatively higher levels of security reduced the impact of psychological control on self-esteem, however contrary to predictions higher security also increased the positive impact of perceived maternal acceptance on self-esteem. Also, important gender differences were found in the moderating role of secure attachment on the relationship between perceived control and self-esteem.

More specifically, having features of secure attachment appears to increase the self-esteem benefits of high acceptance for both male and female youth. In addition, the self-esteem of youth with more features of security may be less susceptible to, or less dependent on, their mother's controlling behaviours toward them. In this way greater security appears to protect their self-esteem from emotionally intrusive parenting.

The gender difference found for less securely attached youth indicated that in males perceived control was related to lower self-esteem, whereas, in females this pattern was reversed with perceived control tending to be related to higher self-esteem. One possible interpretation of this finding is that less secure males may perceive low psychological control by their mothers' as promoting their autonomy, leading to higher self-worth. In contrast, less secure girls may perceive their experience of low psychological control as reflecting a lack of emotional involvement by their mothers. To the extent that girls have been socialized to attend to and regulate their self-evaluations in terms of the inferred perspectives of others (Harter, 1998), girls with low security may perceive their mothers' low control in their lives as a sign of disinterest and disengagement, leading to feelings of low self-worth. Further research is required, with a larger sample of females, in order to determine whether the combination of low control *and* low acceptance is most

detrimental to female adolescents who are already in a vulnerable position in terms of their interpersonal security.

The moderator effects for preoccupied and dismissing attachment must be interpreted with considerable caution as the statistical significance of these results was marginal. First, for both male and female youth, higher preoccupied attachment was found to reduce the impact of maternal acceptance on positivity of self. Only at lower levels of preoccupied attachment, was maternal acceptance related to more positive self-representation. It may be that adolescents characterized by higher preoccupied attachment have been subjected to a history of inconsistent parenting experiences and so fail to trust that their mothers' positive overtures and behaviours toward them are attributable to stable positive features of their self. Perhaps these youth continue to be unable to internalize positive emotional experiences with their mother so that their need for acceptance can never be satisfied. These speculations provide interesting hypotheses to explore in future studies.

Finally, dismissing attachment was found to moderate the impact of psychological control on self-esteem in females only. Given the small sample size of relatively more dismissing females, this finding must be viewed as strictly preliminary. However it is interesting to note that for these more dismissing females psychological control was positively related to self-esteem. This finding may reflect the defensively positive self-evaluations made by dismissing females in the face of guilt-inducing emotional communications made by their mothers (high psychological control). However if dismissing girls view their mothers' low control as a sign of disinterest in them, their defensive system may "break down" leading to feelings of lower self-worth.

With respect to maternal-representations, the lack of attachment moderators and the presence of direct parenting effects suggest that how mothers are perceived as interacting with

their child will be the strongest predictor of how their child will view them more generally. It may be that adolescents' sense of self are generally implicated in their attachment relationships, but their more general representations of their mother could develop independently of their attachment relationships.

In keeping with current definitions of a multi-faceted model of self-system representation (e.g., Mikulincer, 1995), the current research implemented three conceptually linked but independent measures of self-system components. In this study, positivity of self attributes, self-esteem, and positivity of mother attributes were not significantly correlated. In addition, each measure provided unique results in terms of their direct and moderated relationships with parenting and attachment. Typically individuals view themselves and those that they are close to in rather positive terms, leading to a substantial correlation between positivity in view of self and positivity in view of close other. The lack of an association between these variables in the current study may reflect the unique social and family circumstances of this clinical sample. The lack of integration among the self-system variables may be exaggerated in the current study given that this is a sample of high-risk adolescents who tend to be more insecurely attached to their caregivers than nonclinical populations. Previous research indicates the more insecurely attached youth tend to present with more poorly integrated self-systems (Mikulincer, 1995). It is important for researchers to continue to incorporate various measures of the different aspects of the self-system within one study in order to further understand their unique and combined relationships to other aspects of development.

While the current study made an important step by including two different measures of self-representation and one measure of other-representation, it was still unquestionably limited in its measurement of the overall self-system concept. Researchers have identified the need to

include, in addition to the valence of self-attributes, the level of self-complexity, differentiation among various aspects of self, and the integration and hierarchical organization of these aspects of the self-system (Mikulincer, 1995). Measures of the self-system should also include the structural relationships between various beliefs and expectations for the self from both one's own point of view and the inferred perspective of others (Higgins, 1987). Consistent with these suggestions, more extensive scoring systems may be used with the Selves measure in our future research to provide more complex information about the content and structure of the relationships between representations of self and others. In addition to more extensive measures of the content and structure within the self-system, it is obviously important to include representations of multiple attachment figures. Maternal figures, paternal figures, siblings, relatives, friends, and romantic partners all contribute to critical aspects of an individual's developing self-system.

With respect to other measurement limitations, in the current study parenting was assessed using the acceptance and psychological control dimensions rather than acceptance and firm control. It is important to note that traditionally firm control has been conceptualized to interact with parental acceptance in Baumrind's (1971) typology of parenting styles. Future research exploring the relationships between specific parenting styles and attachment patterns will need to incorporate the more behaviourally-focused measure of firm control. In addition, while the attachment interview has previously been validated with a similar sample of clinically-referred adolescents (Scharfe, 1998), this coding system requires further validation, particularly for use with preadolescent youth.

Related to these measurement issues is the second important limitation of the current study, that of youth being raised by multiple caregivers. The current study focused on a single primary maternal caregiver, but often these youth were raised by multiple caregivers. In this study

there was no way of knowing if this primary maternal figure versus alternative caregivers (e.g., abusive transitory step-parents, supportive foster parents) had the most impact on the developing self-concept of these youth. Alternatively, there could be a “cumulative” effect of having multiple caregivers on how these youth come to define themselves. It would be important for further research to address these issues in their measurement of parenting, the self-system, and attachment.

The third, and probably most detrimental limitation of the current study was the small sample size. Entering four independent variables and their interactions into each regression analysis resulted in 10 predictor variables to test for two-way interactions and 14 variables to test for three-way interactions in each analysis. With a sample size of only 50 participants, the current study had sufficient power to detect only large effect sizes, that is multiple partial correlations greater than .35 (Cohen, 1992). While these are obviously important relationships to detect, smaller effects are also important to further our understanding of the complicated nature of the self-system and attachment. Sample sizes of over 100 participants are necessary to have sufficient power to detect effects smaller than .35 when this many predictors are considered simultaneously.

The choice of a clinically referred population of adolescents for the current study allows these findings to be generalized to other groups of youth who are referred for treatment or psychological assessment. Ultimately, these results have clinical implications for identifying potential aspects of adolescents’ attachment-systems which may benefit from specific types of intervention. The current results do not, however, imply that these are the normative attachment processes involved during the adolescent developmental period.

There are a number of hypothesized clinical implications that may be drawn from the results of this study. It must be kept in mind, however, that the results of this study do not provide direct

support for these potential therapeutic outcomes. First, the findings from this study clearly indicate that parenting experiences influence how adolescents view themselves and their mothers. Therefore the most obvious clinical intervention for youth presenting with negative evaluations of themselves or others, might be to provide parent training. Such interventions might emphasize increasing communications of acceptance and reducing negative forms of psychological control while still maintaining healthy levels of maternal involvement. Based on the current findings these interventions might have a positive impact on self- and maternal-representations in both male and female adolescents.

Unfortunately direct interventions with the parents of youth living in high risk environments are not always feasible. The current findings suggest that interventions focused on the youth's attachment pattern, might alter the impact of their parenting experiences on their sense of self (but not on their views of their mothers). First, the clinician should be aware that the self-evaluations of youth presenting as insecurely attached are likely to be vulnerable to the effects of communications of control, but that, this control may be perceived differently by male and female youth. Insecure girls may misinterpret psychological autonomy as disinterest or disengagement by the therapist and so, initially, may require more control and direction by the therapist. In contrast, insecure boys may respond more positively to greater psychological autonomy in the therapeutic setting. Increasing attachment security within the therapeutic relationship may help to protect adolescents' self-esteem from the negative effects of perceived psychological control and bolster the positive impact of perceived acceptance.

The current findings also lend support to the notion that adolescents characterized by high preoccupied attachment may require longer-term, more intensive psychotherapy. These youth have likely been subjected to a history of inconsistent parenting experiences and so may have

difficulty internalizing the experience of an accepting therapist as attributable to stable, positive features of their self. And finally, highly dismissing females may be difficult to engage in interpersonal psychotherapy, as they may be likely to respond to therapist control in the session with defensively positive self-presentations. Their therapist may be able to reduce their defensiveness by avoiding what might be interpreted by these girls as highly controlling communications and have them face the psychological uncertainty of a less confrontational environment. Obviously the results of this study cannot provide direct support for these therapeutic outcomes, however, these results do lend support to the attachment processes theorized to be involved in psychotherapy.

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Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Variables	Total Sample ^a		Males ^b		Females ^c	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Ethnic Group						
Caucasian	25	69	17	81	8	53
Native Canadian	5	14	1	5	4	27
Other Groups	6	17	3	14	3	20
Socioeconomic status^d						
Upper Middle Class	4	9	3	11	1	5
Lower Middle Class	14	32	7	27	7	39
Lower Class	26	59	16	62	10	56
Current Living Arrangement[†]						
natural parents	31	62	21	75	10	45
foster or group home care	16	32	5	18	11	50
adoptive parents	1	2	1	3.5	0	0
relative or other care facilities	2	4	1	3.5	1	5

Note. Sample sizes vary due to missing data.

^a $N = 36$ to 50 ^b $n = 21$ to 28 ^c $n = 15$ to 22 . ^d Hollingshead (1975) 9-step scale for parental occupation, using the higher status occupation where both parents were wage earners; scores 1-3.5 = Lower; 4-5 = Lower Middle; 5.5-6.5 = Upper Middle; 7-9 = Upper.

[†] $\chi^2(4, N = 50) = 8.56, p < .10$.

Table 2

Mean Age, and WISC-III, Parenting, Attachment, and Self-Other Representation Scores for Males, Females, and All Participants

Variables	Total Sample ^a		Males ^b		Females ^c	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Age	14.72	1.36	14.51	1.33	14.98	1.37
Full Scale IQ	91.30	12.80	92.65	14.49	89.00	9.55
<u>Maternal Parenting:</u>						
Acceptance	10.96	6.74	12.11	6.45	9.35	6.96
Psychological Control	8.67	4.44	8.14	4.40	9.38	4.50
<u>Attachment:</u>						
Secure	2.66	1.29	2.82	1.44	2.45	1.06
Fearful	4.04	1.60	3.64a	1.64	4.55a	1.44
Preoccupied	3.62	1.63	2.86a	1.35	4.59b	1.44
Dismissing	3.62	2.11	4.57a	2.23	2.64b	1.33
<u>Self-System:</u>						
Self-Positivity	.65	.26	.66	.28	.63	.25
Self-Esteem	28.63	6.20	31.16a	4.52	24.40b	6.43
Mother-Positivity	.52	.38	.60	.37	.41	.37

Note. Means in the same row that share the same subscripts differ at $p < .05$. Means in the same row that share different subscripts differ at $p < .01$.

^a $N = 50$ (except for self-esteem in which missing data resulted in $N = 40$); ^b $n = 28$ (for self-esteem $n = 25$); ^c $n = 22$ (for self-esteem $n = 15$).

Table 3

Inter-correlations Between Parenting, Attachment, Self-Representations, Self-Esteem, and Mother-Representations for All Participants

Variables	Parenting		Attachment				Self-System		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<u>Maternal Parenting:</u>									
1. Acceptance	--	-.59***	.28†	-.22	.12	-.11	.06	.26†	.54***
2. Control		--	.02	-.04	.02	-.07	.22	-.20	-.41**
<u>Attachment:</u>									
3. Secure			--	-.17	-.03	-.49***	.22	.23	.19
4. Fearful				--	-.10	-.46**	-.09	-.45**	.02
5. Preoccupied					--	-.51***	-.04	-.26†	.05
6. Dismissing						--	-.07	.33*	-.23
<u>Self-System:</u>									
7. Self-Positivity							--	.12	-.01
8. Self-Esteem								--	.17
9. Mother-Positivity									--

Note. N = 50, except for self-esteem in which missing data resulted in N = 40.

† p <= .10. *p < .05. **p < .01. *** p < .001.

Table 4

Inter-correlations Between Parenting, Attachment, Self-Representations, Self-Esteem, and Mother-Representations for Male Youth (n = 28)

Variables	Parenting		Attachment				Self-System		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<u>Maternal Parenting:</u>									
1. Acceptance	--	-.43*	.40*	-.23	.25	-.27	.16	.53**	.48*
2. Control		--	.02	.002	-.05	-.05	.37†	-.54**	-.29
<u>Attachment:</u>									
3. Secure			--	-.14	.14	-.63**	.09	.18	.23
4. Fearful				--	-.09	-.50**	-.16	-.34†	.09
5. Preoccupied					--	-.45*	.25	.18	.22
6. Dismissing						--	-.06	.10	-.40*
<u>Self-System:</u>									
7. Self-Positivity							--	-.01	-.13
8. Self-Esteem								--	.19
9. Mother-Positivity									--

Note. N = 28, except for self-esteem in which missing data resulted in n = 25.

† p < .10. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 5

Inter-correlations Between Parenting, Attachment, Self-Representations, Self-Esteem, and Mother-Representations for Female Youth (n = 22)

Variables	Parenting		Attachment				Self-System		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<u>Maternal Parenting:</u>									
1. Acceptance	--	-.76**	-.02	-.08	.28	-.17	-.15	-.20	.56*
2. Control		--	.08	-.23	-.07	.10	.001	.29	-.52*
<u>Attachment:</u>									
3. Secure			--	-.14	-.09	-.62	.47*	.18	.05
4. Fearful				--	-.62**	-.14	.10	-.38	.09
5. Preoccupied					--	-.21	-.36	-.16	.25
6. Dismissing						--	-.26	.13	-.42†
<u>Self-System:</u>									
7. Self-Positivity							--	.15	.12
8. Self-Esteem								--	-.18
9. Mother-Positivity									--

Note. N = 22, except for self-esteem in which missing data resulted in n = 15.

† p < .10. *p < .05. **p < .01.

Table 6

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Acceptance, Control, Secure Attachment, and Gender in Predicting Relative Positivity of Self-Representations (N = 50)

Variable	r	pr	B	SE B	β
Step 2:					
Acceptance	.06	.27	.005	.03	1.26
Psychological Control	.23	.19	.005	.04	.87
Secure	.22	-.22	-.29	.22	-1.48
Gender	-.06	.24	.50	.34	.96
Acceptance x Control	.33	.04	.00004	.001	.09
Acceptance x Secure	.14	.02	.00008	.007	.08
Control x Secure	.36	.20	.001	.01	.90
Acceptance x Gender	-.02	-.36	-.004	.02	-1.38*
Control x Gender	.08	-.37	-.005	.02	-1.80*
Secure x Gender	.22	.32	.13	.07	.99*

Note. $R^2 = .12$, ns, for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .22$, $p = .08$, for Step 2; $\Delta R^2 = .03$, ns, for Step 3.

* $p < .05$.

Table 7

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Acceptance, Control, Secure Attachment, and Gender in Predicting Self-Esteem (N = 50)

Variable	r	pr	B	SE B	β
Step 3:					
Acceptance	.26	-.24	-1.97	1.62	-2.20
Psychological Control	-.20	-.52	-8.94	2.93	-6.91**
Secure	.23	-.51	-48.99	16.74	-10.65**
Gender	-.54	-.45	-75.07	29.76	-5.94*
Acceptance x Control	.17	.06	.003	.12	.35
Acceptance x Secure	.29	.41	1.46	.64	7.05*
Control x Secure	.03	.52	3.86	1.28	10.68**
Acceptance x Gender	-.10	.10	.65	1.23	1.10
Control x Gender	-.33	.50	5.40	1.85	7.96**
Secure x Gender	-.13	.46	31.91	12.24	10.16*
Acceptance x Control x Secure	.23	-.26	-.006	.05	-2.63
Acceptance x Control x Gender	-.04	.26	.009	.07	1.16
Acceptance x Secure x Gender	.07	-.30	-.70	.44	-4.38
Control x Secure x Gender	-.16	-.55	-2.37	.72	-10.39***

Note. $R^2 = .32$ $p < .01$, for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .14$, ns, for Step 2; $\Delta R^2 = .18$, $p < .05$, for Step 3.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .005$.

Table 8

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Acceptance, Control, Fearful Attachment, and Gender in Predicting Self-Esteem (N = 50)

Variable	r	pr	B	SE B	β
Step 1:					
Acceptance	.26	.04	.004	.15	.04
Psychological Control	-.20	-.13	-.17	.22	-.13
Fearful	-.45	-.35	-1.18	.54	-.32*
Gender	-.54	-.43	-5.08	1.79	-.40**

Note. $R^2 = .40$ $p = .001$, for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .11$, ns, for Step 2; $\Delta R^2 = .04$, ns, for Step 3.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 9

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Acceptance, Control, Preoccupied Attachment, and Gender in Predicting Relative Positivity of Self-Representations (N = 50)

Variable	r	pr	B	SE B	β
Step 2:					
Acceptance	.06	.11	.002	.03	.42
Psychological Control	.23	.21	.005	.04	.79
Preoccupied	-.04	.41	.45	.16	2.80*
Gender	-.06	.26	.66	.42	1.27
Acceptance x Control	.33	.21	.0002	.002	.43
Acceptance x Preoccupied	-.05	-.34	-.001	.005	-1.35*
Control x Preoccupied	.08	-.19	-.01	.009	-.84
Acceptance x Gender	-.02	.05	.0005	.02	.20
Control x Gender	.08	-.08	-.001	.03	-.48
Preoccupied x Gender	-.12	-.42	-.16	.06	-2.37**

Note. $R^2 = .10$ ns, for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .26$, $p < .05$, for Step 2; $\Delta R^2 = .09$, ns, for Step 3.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 10

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Acceptance, Control, Dismissing Attachment, and Gender in Predicting Self-Esteem (N = 50)

Variable	r	pr	B	SE B	β
Step 3:					
Acceptance	.26	.14	1.81	2.58	2.02
Psychological Control	-.20	.24	4.53	3.61	3.50
Dismissing	.33	.26	11.39	8.42	3.85
Gender	-.54	.24	34.84	28.19	2.76
Acceptance x Control	.17	-.21	-.24	.22	-2.34
Acceptance x Dismissing	.47	.08	.18	.45	1.08
Control x Dismissing	-.03	-.37	-1.21	.61	-5.58†
Acceptance x Gender	-.10	-.19	-1.39	1.47	-2.36
Control x Gender	-.33	-.37	-4.11	2.10	-6.06†
Dismissing x Gender	.02	-.26	-9.90	7.32	-3.57
Acceptance x Control x Dismissing	.25	.04	.0004	.02	.19
Acceptance x Control x Gender	-.04	.38	.22	.11	2.86*
Acceptance x Dismissing x Gender	.28	-.12	-.21	.36	-1.27
Control x Dismissing x Gender	-.16	.41	1.08	.48	6.27*

Note. $R^2 = .33$ $p < .01$, for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .14$, *ns*, for Step 2; $\Delta R^2 = .19$, $p < .05$, for Step 3.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$.

Table 11

Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Acceptance, Control, Dismissing Attachment, and Gender in Predicting Positivity of Mother-Representations(N = 50)

Variable	r	pr	B	SE B	β
Step 1:					
Acceptance	.54	.32	.002	.009	.33*
Psychological Control	-.41	-.22	-.002	.01	-.22
Dismissing	-.24	-.37	-.006	.02	-.35*
Gender	-.24	-.29	-.21	.10	-.27†

Note. $R^2 = .41$ $p < .001$, for Step 1; $\Delta R^2 = .07$, ns, for Step 2; $\Delta R^2 = .008$, ns, for Step 3.

† $p < .10$. * $p < .05$.

Table 12

Summary of Findings Supporting the Direct Effects Models for Male and Female Youth

Predictor Variables	Males	Females
1) Parenting & Representations:		
Acceptance	More Positive Self	----
	(pr = .38†)	
	Higher Self-Esteem	----
	(r = .53**; pr = .44*)	
	More Positive Mother	More Positive Mother
	(r = .48*)	(r = .56*)
Psychological Control	More Positive Self	----
	(r = .37†; pr = .49 - .50**)	
	Lower Self-Esteem	----
	(r = -.54**; pr = -.37†)	
	----	Less Positive Mother
		(r = -.52*)
High Acceptance x High Control	----	Higher Self-Esteem
		(pr = .65*)
2) Attachment & Representations:		
Secure	----	More Positive Self
		(r = .47*; pr = .56*)
Fearful	Lower Self-Esteem	Lower Self-Esteem
	(pr = -.35* combined gender)	(pr = -.35* combined gender)
Preoccupied	----	Less Positive Self
		(pr = -.41†)
Dismissing	Less Positive Mother	Less Positive Mother
	(r = -.40*)	(r = -.42†)

Note. “r” represents zero-order correlations. “pr” represents partial correlations controlling for the other main effects and interactions entered into the regression equation.

†p < .10. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .005.

Table 13

Summary of Findings Supporting the Attachment Moderator Models for Male and Female Youth

Predictor Variables	Males	Females
Low Secure x High Control	Lower Self-Esteem (pr = -.71*)	Higher Self-Esteem (pr = .47 ns)
High Secure x High Acceptance	Higher Self-Esteem	Higher Self-Esteem (pr = .57* combined gender)
Low Preoccupied x High Acceptance	More Positive Self	More Positive Self (pr = .41 ns combined gender)
High Dismissing x High Control	-----	Higher Self-Esteem (pr = .57†)

Note. "pr" represents partial correlations controlling for the other main effects and interactions entered into the regression equation.

†p < .12. *p < .05.

Figure Captions

Figure 1. Four-category model of adult attachment. Reproduced from Scharfe & Bartholomew, 1994, with permission of the authors.

Figure 2. Interaction of parenting dimensions.

Figure 3. Proposed direct-effects models for self- and mother-representations.

Figure 4. Proposed moderator models for self- and mother-representations.

