CHILDREARING PATTERN OF STEPMOHER AND

ADOLESCENT ADJUSTMENT

A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of Psychology, University of Dhaka, in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the Degree of Master of Philosophy in Psychology.

Submitted by

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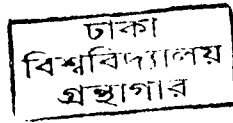DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

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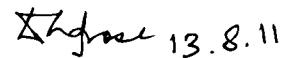

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APPROVAL SHEET

This is to certify that I have read the thesis entitled ''CHILDREARING PATTERN OF STEPMOTHER AND ADOLESCENT ADJUSTMENT'' submitted by Kaniz Fatema in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Philosophy in Psychology and this thesis was carried out by her under my supervision and guidance.

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ABSTRACT

The main objective of the present study was to investigate the relationship of childrearing pattern of stepmother with adolescent adjustment. The specific objectives were to investigate-1)difference between stepmothers and biological mothers in childrearing pattern, 2)difference in adolescent adjustment between the adolescents living with stepmothers and the adolescents living with biological mothers, 3)the relationship between the childrearing pattern of stepmother and adolescent adjustment, 4) gender variation in childrearing pattern of mothers, and lastly 5)gender variation in adolescent adjustment. The participants of the present research comprised of 200 adolescents, of them 100 were living with their stepmothers and 100 were living with their biological mothers and 100 were boys and 100 were girls. They were in the age range of 12 to 14 years and their educational level was from class seven to ten. They were selected from different schools of Dhaka City following purposive sampling technique. For the collection of data the scales used were-1) Adapted Bangla version (Mili and Afrose-2006) of the Reynolds Adolescent Adjustment Screening Inventory-RAASI (Reynolds, 1998) and 2) Adapted Bangla version (Fatema and Afrose-2008) of the Parental Acceptance/ Rejection Questionnaire-Child(PARQ)- Short version by Rohner (2004). The data were analyzed employing Pearson Product Moment correlation and Independent Sample t-test. The result showed that there is a significant correlation between the childrearing pattern of stepmothers and adolescent adjustment. It was also found that there is a significant difference in childrearing pattern of biological mothers and step mothers and in adolescent adjustment between adolescents living with stepmothers and with biological mothers. Results also revealed that there is no significant gender difference in total childrearing pattern of mothers and in total adolescent adjustment.

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CHAPTER-1

INTRODUCTION

INTRODUCTION

Adolescence is a developmental period characterized by multiple changes in virtually every aspect of an individual's life. Adolescence, the transitional stage of development between childhood and adulthood, represents the period of time during which a person experiences a combination of biological changes and social transitions that creates an increasingly complex environment which exposes him/her to a widening array of stress or/and challenges.

As a transitional stage of human development, adolescence is the period in which a child matures into an adult through a process of adaptation in various ways. The biological concept of adaptation has been borrowed by the psychologists and renamed adjustment.

Adjustment refers to the mechanical adaptation of human beings to the demands of the environment. Human being not only adapts to the environment, but also through the use of his/her intelligence and imagination changes his/her environment to meet his/her needs more effectively.

Childrearing pattern refers to the parental attitudes that eventually affect the quality of overall parent-child interaction. These attitudes can have effects on socialization that range from positive and growth enhancing to negative and growth inhibiting.

Parental love is essential for the healthy social and emotional development of the children. Children everywhere need a specific form of positive response—acceptance from parents and other primary caregivers. When this need is not met satisfactorily, children worldwide, regardless of variations in culture, gender, age, ethnicity, or other such defining conditions, tend to report themselves to be hostile and aggressive, dependent or defensively independent, impaired in self-esteem and self-adequacy, emotionally unresponsive, and unstable, and to have a negative view of the world, among other responses. Additionally, youths and adults who perceive them to be rejected appear to be disposed toward behavior problems and conduct disorders, to be depressed or have depressed affect, and to become involved in drug and alcohol abuse, among other problems.

Bangladesh, which is, metaphorically speaking, in its adolescent phase, had to undergo many crises both in its pre- and post- independence phase. It is important to study how the adjustment factor of the adolescent is affected and one valid and important factor is parental behavior as well as stepmother's behavior. A number of studies have found that children of stepmother have significantly higher rates of conduct/oppositional behaviours and attention deficit behaviours than children who live with their biological mother (Billings & Moos,1985; Fergusson & Lynskey, 1993)

Researchers like Downey and Feldman (1996), Downey, Khouri, and Feldman (1997), Feldman and Downey (1994) who explore the issue of "rejection sensitivity,"are of the opinion that interpersonal rejection, especially parental rejection in childhood leads children to develop a heightened sensitivity to being rejected. That is, the children become disposed to anxiously and angrily expect, to readily perceive, and to overreact to rejection in ways that compromise their intimate relationships as well as their own well-being. Additionally, these authors and their colleagues have found that rejection sensitive children and adults often interpret the minor or imagined insensitivity of significant others or the ambiguous behavior of others, as being intentional rejection.

The studies of Clarke-Stewart (1973); and Thomas, Gecas, Weigart and Rooney (1974) indicate the importance of two, broad, interacting parental orientations toward childrearing: general affect and management style. First, parental affect is a continuum from warmth and acceptance to coldness and hostility (Becker, 1965). Acceptance, encouragement, expression of affection, friendly joint activities, concern about and readiness to respond to children's needs, and general family harmony are among the indicators of warmth in parenting. Parents high in warmth seem to enjoy their children, provide positive reinforcement for their accomplishments, and avoid running down their abilities. At the extreme, hostility takes the form of active rejection, insensitivity to children's need and denial of them as individuals of dignity and worth. Unfortunately, hostility may result in severe child abuse. The expression of parental hostility, or warmth for that matter, may vary according to situational factors. Thus, acts of hostility or love may be more evident in private or public settings depending upon how parents perceive their immediate social context and how susceptible they are to social pressures from their adults.

1.1 Adolescent Psychology

Adolescence is characterized by a number of cognitive, emotional, physicaland attitudinal changes, which can be a cause of conflict on one hand and positive personality development on the other.

The home environment and parents are still important for the behaviors and choices of adolescents. Adolescents who have a good relationship with their parents are less likely to engage in various risk behaviors, such as smoking, drinking, fighting, and/or sexual intercourse. In conflict with their parents, adolescents are more flexible than younger children, but more hostile and rigid compared to adults. The topics of conflicts between adolescents and their parents are often about the extent to which parents can control and supervise the adolescent, for instance conflicts about chores, schoolwork, curfew, and the adolescent's right to privacy.

For the first time in their lives adolescents may start to view their friends, their peer group, as more important and influential than their parents or guardians. Peer groups offer its members the opportunity to develop various social skills, such as empathy, sharing and leadership. Peer groups can have positive influences on an individual, for instance on academic motivation and performance, but they can also have negative influences and lead to an increase in experimentation with drugs, drinking, vandalism, and stealing. Susceptibility to peer pressure increases during early adolescence, peaks around age 14, and declines thereafter.

In the search for a unique social identity for themselves, adolescents are frequently confused about what is 'right' and what is 'wrong.' G. Stanley Hall (1844-1924) denoted this period as one of "Storm and Stress" and, according to him; conflict at this developmental stage is normal and not unusual. Margaret Mead (1973), on the other hand, attributed the behavior of adolescents to their culture and upbringing. Adolescence is also a time for rapid cognitive development. Piaget (1958) describes adolescence as the stage of life in which the individual's thoughts start taking more of an abstract form and the egocentric thoughts decrease. This allows the individual to think and reason in a wider perspective. A combination of behavioral studies have

demonstrated development of executive functions, that is, cognitive skills that enable the control and coordination of thoughts and behavior, which are generally associated with the prefrontal cortex. The thoughts, ideas and concepts developed at this period of life greatly influence one's future life, playing a major role in character and personality formation.

Adolescent psychology is associated with notable changes in mood sometimes known as mood swings.

Positive psychology is sometimes brought up when addressing adolescent psychology as well. This approach towards adolescents refers to providing them with motivation to become socially acceptable and notable individuals, since many adolescents find themselves bored, indecisive and/or unmotivated.
Struggles with adolescent identity and depression usually set in when an adolescent experiences a loss. The most important loss in their lives is the changing relationship between the adolescent and their parents. Adolescents may also experience strife in their relationships with friends. This may be due to the activities their friends take part in, such as smoking, which causes adolescents to feel as though participating in such activities themselves is likely essential to maintaining these friendships. Teen depression can be extremely intense at times because of physical and hormonal changes but emotional instability is part of adolescence. Their changing mind, body and relationships often present themselves as stressful and that change, they assume, is something to be feared. Sleep deprivation has also been linked to adolescent depression, particularly in the teen years.

Views of family relationships during adolescence are changing. The old view of family relationships during adolescence put an emphasis on conflict and disengagement and thought storm and stress was normal and even inevitable. However, the new view puts emphasis on transformation or relationships and maintenance of connectedness.

1.1.1Adolescence: the last step before becoming an adult

Children must pass through several stages, or take specific steps, on their road to becoming adults. For most people, there are four or five such stages of growth where they learn certain things: infancy (birth to age two), early childhood (ages 3 to 8 years), later

childhood (ages 9 to 12) and adolescence (ages 13 to 18). Persons 18 and over are considered adults in our society. Of course, there are some who will try to act older than their years. But, for the most part, most everybody grows in this same pattern. Parents learn much about taking care of their babies and young children. At the hospital or with the doctor, parents might pick up information about what to feed them or how long they should sleep. Later, school staff may remind parents about the importance of talking and reading to their young children. Parents can also see how their friends or relatives treat their kids. One cannot say the same thing about learning to talk with teenagers (adolescents). It seems like everyone, even teachers and neighbors have problems understanding them. Giving up, one might turn to doing and saying the same things their parents did with them. One can begin to understand this age group if one look at its place on the growth sequence. That is how it's right next to the adult stage, the last step before being an adult. This is a time for adolescents to decide about their future line of work and think about starting their own families in a few years. One of the first things they must do is to start making their own decisions. For example adolescents can begin to decide what to buy with their own money or who will be their friend. To do this they must put a little distance between themselves and their parents. This does not mean that one can't continue to ``look after them" or help them when needed. One should, as much as possible, let them learn from the results of their actions. Adolescents also need to be around other adults, both male and female. These can be relatives, neighbors, or teachers. Of course, they should be positive role models. The teenagers can learn from them about things like how to fix the car, getting along with others, or ideas for future jobs. Finally, don't worry if they want to spend time alone. Adolescents can ``spend hours" day dreaming about their future life. They might be planning the things they can do or will buy ``when they grow up."

1.1.2 Situation of Adolescence in Bangladesh

Adolescence is not always encouraged to speak and talk in front of elder members of the household, and mothers prefer adolescents to remain quiet when they are working, upset or tired. Some gender differences were observed in the care giving practices:

a) A girl is more often disciplined,

b) Caregivers insist that a girl child should be obedient,

c) Mothers provide the main guidance in training in work and behavior for a girl child, while fathers are expected to play this role for boys,

d) Girls are expected to stay at home and take part in household chores, whereas boys can get involved in outside activities, and

e) Girls get clothed earlier because of the perception that since a girl's body is similar to that of an adult woman, it is more shameful to have it exposed.

Besides the number of adolescence not attending school, all adolescence spends the majority of their time outside school. There are very few opportunities for organized out of school activities. Traditional culture values often restrict the movement of girls, and in urban areas it may be unsafe for adolescence to play freely outdoors. There is also a lack of awareness among caregivers regarding the importance of stimulation and creative play for overall adolescence development. Rapid urbanization has led to the shrinking of physical facilities available to the adolescence in the urban areas. The state has failed to provide proper recreational programs or important life skill development programs that would help the healthy and productive development of adolescents. Moreover, the community, family and service providers are not aware about the needs of adolescent children for recreation, for expressing their views and participating in matters that affects their lives. The adolescents are expected by the family and the community to act as adults on some matters, like work, responsibilities toward parents/family and their capacity to undertake such adult responsibilities is overestimated. While on others matters- like their plan for future, work they prefer to do, deciding on marriage etc, where adolescents are all full of ideas and eager to share their views, their potentials are underestimated and they are treated as young children. Neither the family/community nor the schools address the confusions and concerns that arise in young minds.

1.1.3 Adolescent and Adjustment

The word "adjustment" came into popular use in psychology during the 1930's and was given strong endorsement by Lawrence Shaffer's classical book. "The Psychology of Adjustment", which appeared in 1936. In his treatment of adjustment,

Shaffer emphasized the biological adaptation of the organism to its environment as the central meaning of the term.

With the coming into prominence of Gestalt psychology, psychoanalysis and personality psychology, the term "adjustment" as used by Shaffer's subjected to considerable criticism, particularly with reference to its emphasis upon the mechanical adaptation of human beings to the demands of the environment. Writers from these schools pointed that man not only adapts to his environment, but through the use of his intelligence and his imagination changes his environment to meet his needs more effectively.

The concept of adjustment was originally a biological one and was a cornerstone in Darwin's theory of evolution (1859). In biology the term usually employed was adaptation. Darwin maintained that only those organism most fitted of adapt to the hazards of the physical world survive. Biologists have continued to be concerned with the problem of physical adaptation and many human illnesses are thought to be based on the processes of adaptation to the stress of life (Selye, 1956)

The biological concept of adaptation has been borrowed by the psychologists and renamed adjustment. The psychologist is more concerned with what might be called "psychological survival" than physical survival. As in the case of biological concept of adaptation, human behavior is interpreted as adjustments to demands or pressures. These demands are primarily social or interpersonal, and they influence the psychological structure and functioning of the person. It was said that adjustment involves a reaction of the person to demands imposed upon him. The psychological demands made upon the person can be classifier in to external and internal.

Adjustment, the term conceives the developing self as a kind of central exchange station between the demands of the organism on the one hand, and the influence of physical and social environment on the other. The self begins to develop the birth and as it become more adequate to deal with the demands made upon it by the organic structure and the world beyond its psychological boundaries.

Adjustment is the outcome of human attempts to deal with stress and meet the needs. It is a continuous process to maintain harmonious relationship with the environment in which most individual needs are satisfied in socially accepted ways and

resulting in form of behavior which may range from passive conformity to vigorous action (Srivastava, 1997).

According to Stratton and Hayes (1989) "Adjustment is a process by which an individual achieves the best balance feasible between conflicting demands". According to Singh (1983) adjustment is a precarious and ever changing balance between the needs and desires of the individual on the one hand and the demands of the environment or the society or the other. Thus adjustment is a process of interaction between oneself and one's surrounding environment and so it is inseparably bound up with the nature of human personality. Adjustment is the process by which a living organism maintains a balance between its needs and the circumstances that influence the satisfaction of these needs. In short, it can be said that an organism's behavior is governed by his/her wishes, desires and the circumstances and maintain equilibrium, she/he is said to be well adjusted where as his/her failure results in maladjustment or poor adjusted. Maladjusted people, on the other hand, tend to be unrealistic to set their aspiration either too high or too low leading to inevitable failure of washed opportunities and in either case to unhappiness. The adjusted person is said to be mentally sound, who seems to be happy in every walk of life. On the other hand, a maladjusted person is disturbed with marked failures in life and unsatisfactory relations with others.

1.1.3.1 Types of Adjustment or adaptation

(a) Biological adaptation process through genetic changes and therefore proceeds very slowly.

(b) Cultural adaptation is much more rapidly because culture is leaned behavior. The relative rapidly with whom human beings can respond in changing environments gives them a high degree of adaptation. Advantage culture, the major means by which human adapt to their environments. Although he concept of cultural adaptation, is modeled on that of biological adaptation.

Nature of adjustment: There are some elements those are involved in adjustment. They are-
-Motivation
-Frustration and conflict

-Variable behavior

-Satisfaction

-Non-adjustment behavior

-Readjustment

Human adjustment is to symbols, which readily conflict. First, most of our adjustments are to symbolize: to causes, honors wishes, ideals, and social relationships. These symbols are laden which emotion. Human beings never remain entirely adjusted. Biological and social needs are too persistent and ever changing. With new inventions and technological process our society changes. Further more, we are limited in time and abilities and cannot satisfy all the needs, which arise. So, adjustment is continuous process.

Effective adjustment after consists in changing environment rather what in conforming to it. Many of the great personages in history as well as the more obscure leaders have adjusted to their environment to the truth as they and fellow thinkers saw it rather than to the status or to high authority. Adjustment through changing an environment, by developing rather then by conforming is a difficult but from many standpoints is a higher level of adjustment it was said that adjustment involves a reaction of the persons to demands imposed upon him. The psychological demands made upon the person can be classified into external and internal. There are a large number of external demands that arise from the physical condition of existence. From the psychological viewpoint, however those pressures arising out of our existence as social beings one of greater importance. The process of adjustment is complicated because the way an individual responds to one demand can conflict with the requirements of another.

1.1.3.2 Parenting, Attachment Security and Adjustment in Adolescence

In infancy, caregivers who are sensitive and consistently responsive to their child's needs have been found to foster secure attachments. These children develop perceptions (i.e. internal working models) of themselves as lovable and of others as helpful and available. Conversely, caregivers who are insensitive and rejecting have been found to have avoidant children who view themselves as unworthy, and others as uncaring and undependable. Research has linked avoidant attachment to mothers'

suppressed anger, lack of tenderness in touching and holding, and rejection of child-initiated attachment behaviour. Such children tend to suppress their feelings and avoid contact in times of stress to avoid further alienating their caregivers (Main & Weston, 1981; Renken , 1989; Shaw & Bell, 1993). Caregivers who are inconsistent (i.e. sometimes responsive and sometimes rejecting) tend to have children who are preoccupied with discovering ways of eliciting care and are hyper vigilant to sources of distress. Such children experience conflict between the desire to approach the caregiver for support and feelings of anger and anxiety at the caregiver's unreliability (Bowlby, 1973). They come to view themselves as incapable and unworthy of obtaining support. In adolescence, parental involvement, encouragement of psychological autonomy, and demands for age-appropriate behaviour combined with limit setting and monitoring (i.e. authoritative parenting) contribute to good psychosocial, academic and behavioural adjustment among adolescents (Baumrind, 1971, 1991; Steinberg, Dornbusch & Brown, 1992; Steinberg, Darling & Fletcher, 1995). Similar to the way in which parental sensitivity and responsiveness contribute to secure attachment in infancy, recent findings indicate that parental warmth/involvement, psychological autonomy granting and behavioural control/monitoring are associated with security of attachment in late childhood and early adolescence (Karavasilis, Doyle & Margolese, 1999). Low warmth and low control were particularly associated with dismissing/avoidant attachment, and low psychological autonomy granting with preoccupied attachment. Thus, in adolescence, it appears that parental behaviour that fosters autonomy in the context of parental availability, in addition to parental warmth/responsiveness, becomes important for secure attachment.

With respect to adolescent adjustment, parental warmth/involvement and behavioral control are associated with greater social competence, autonomy, positive attitudes toward school and work, academic achievement and self-esteem, as well as with less depression, school misconduct, delinquency and drug use (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg & Dornbusch, 1991; Parish & McCluskey, 1992; Steinberg, Lamborn, Dornbusch & Darling, 1992; Allen & Hauser, 1996). With respect to protection against depressed mood, adolescents' security with their mother seems to be particularly important (Margolese, Markiewicz & Campini, 2001). In terms of resistance to substance

abuse, the effect of parenting appears to operate through adolescents' development of better self-regulation skills (i.e. self-control, behavioral competence, adaptive coping), and less affiliation with deviant peers (Wills, DuHamel & Vaccaro, 1995). The negative associations between observations of maternal warmth, and teacher and official reports of delinquency, are robust, persisting even after controlling for child IQ, age, attachment to delinquent peers, ethnicity, poverty, family size, parental deviance, supervision and discipline (Sampson & Laub, 1994). On the other hand, hostile punishment and coercive interactions between parents and children combined with poor parental monitoring contribute to conduct problems in preadolescence and antisocial behaviour in adolescence (Dishion, Patterson, Stoolmiller & Skinner, 1991; Conger, Patterson & Ge, 1995). Although it is likely that the link between adolescent attachment quality and parent behaviour is bi-directional, there is some evidence to suggest that parental rejection is a stronger predictor of delinquency than the reverse (Simons, Robertson & Downs, 1989), supporting the crucial importance of parenting behaviour for adolescent outcome. Of particular importance is the recent finding that in high-risk contexts (e.g. neighbourhood poverty, crime, unemployment), parental monitoring may be effective in reducing adolescent deviance only for securely attached adolescents (Allen, 1998).

1.2 The Parenting

Adolescence has been described as a phase of life beginning in biology and ending in society (Petersen, 1988). Indeed, adolescence may be defined as the period within the life span when most of a person's biological, cognitive, psychological, and social characteristics are changing from what is typically considered child-like to what is considered adult-like (Lerner & Spanier, 1980). For the adolescent, this period is a dramatic challenge, one requiring adjustment to changes in the self, in the family, and in the peer group. In contemporary society, adolescents experience institutional changes as well. Among young adolescents, there is a change in school setting, typically involving a transition from elementary school to either junior high school or middle school; and in late adolescence there is a transition from high school to the worlds of work, university, or childrearing.

Understandably, then, for both adolescents and their parents, adolescence is a time of excitement and of anxiety; of happiness and of troubles; of discovery and of bewilderment; and of breaks with the past and yet of links with the future. Adolescence can be, then, a confusing time--for the adolescent experiencing this phase of life; for the parents who are nurturing the adolescent during his or her progression through this period; for other adults charged with enhancing the development of youth during this period of life, and--with disturbing, historically unprecedented frequency--for adolescents who themselves find themselves in the role of parents.

1.2.1 Nature of Parenting

Parenting is both a biological and a social process (Lerner, Castellino, Terry, Villarruel &McKinney, 1995; Tobach & Schneirla, 1968). Parenting is the term summarizing the set of behaviors involved across life in the relations among organisms who are usually conspecifics, and typically members of different generations or, at the least, of different birth cohorts. Parenting interactions provide resources across the generational groups and function in regard to domains of survival, reproduction, nurturance, and socialization.

Thus, parenting is a complex process, involving much more than a mother or father providing food, safety, and succor to an infant or child. Parenting involves bidirectional relationships between members of two (or more) generations; can extend through all or major parts of the respective life spans of these groups; may engage all institutions within a culture (including educational, economic, political, and social ones); and is embedded in the history of a people--as that history occurs within the natural and designed settings within which the group lives (Ford & Lerner, 1992). Given, then, the temporal variation that constitutes history, the variation of culture and of its institutions that exist in different physical and designed ecological niches, and the variation, within and across generations, in strategies for and behaviors designed to fit with these niches, we may note that diversity is a key substantive feature of parenting behavior. Focus on this variation, rather than on central tendencies, is necessary in order to understand parenting adequately. In addition, there are multiple levels of organization that change in and through integrated, mutually interdependent or "fused" relationships; these

relationships occur over both ontogenetic and historical time (Lerner & Lerner, 1987; Tobach & Greenberg, 1984). As such, context, as well as diversity, is an important feature of parenting.

Developmental contextualism is a theory of human development (Lerner, 1986,1991,1992; Lerner, 1995) that focuses on the changing relations or better, coactions (Gottlieb, 1997), between the developing individual and his or her context. We believe developmental contextualism is a perspective that is useful for understanding the contemporary challenges involved in studying adolescents and parenting *and* for designing programs pertinent to promoting the positive development of youth--either in relation to enhancing the parenting they receive and/or to addressing the challenges faced by adolescents who are in the role of parents. That is, the challenges of adolescence derive from the fact that youth today are both in need of parenting that promotes their positive development.

Classical psychoanalytic theories such as those of Freud and Erikson, and theories such as attachment theory and object relations theory highlight the importance of the roles of parents, particularly mothers, on infant development and subsequent adult relationships. However, there is also a significant body of more modern research and theory on child rearing and parenting.

Social psychology examines how becoming a parent and engaging in child rearing affects the identities of both men and women. Much of this work argues that becoming a parent involves identity conflicts, particularly for women who engage in paid work. This research has found that many women experience significant conflict between their paid work and family identities, and that as a result, women often use strategies to try to reduce the oppositional nature of these two roles (Garey 1999).

Cowan and Cowan (2000) argue that, in addition to the physical changes of pregnancy, motherhood may bring a change in identity as a woman moves from seeing herself first and foremost as a worker to seeing herself also as a mother. Although having a first baby involves changes in identity for both parents, this change is particularly pertinent for women. Men add "father" to their identity, but preserve the other central parts of themselves. When women add "mother" to their sense of self, other identities, such as "worker" and "lover or partner," may become less primary (Cowan and Cowan

2000: 82). As "mother" begins to take up a bigger piece of their identity, there is less room for all other identities, including "worker." Similarly, Bailey (1999) found that for women who constructed employment as an opportunity for expression of the self, pregnancy operated as a potential challenge to their working identity.

Parenting styles appear to influence the development of children's social and instrumental competence, although specific parenting practices are less important in predicting child well-being than is the broad pattern of parenting (Baumrind 1991, Darling 1999, Darling and Steinberg 1993, Weiss and Schwarz 1996).

A typology of parenting styles includes four different categories: authoritative (high control/high warmth); authoritarian (high control/low warmth); permissive (low control/high warmth); and indifferent (low control/low warmth) (Baumrind 1991, Maccoby and Martin 1983). Parenting style has been found to predict child well-being in the domains of social competence, academic performance, psychosocial development, and problem behaviour (Darling 1999). There is general consensus that authoritative parenting is optimal for facilitating positive child development. In contrast, children and adolescents whose parents were indifferent perform most poorly in all domains (Baumrind 1991, Miller, Cowan, Cowan and Hetherington 1993, Weiss and Schwarz 1996). However, there some debate regarding the culture-specific nature of parenting styles (in some cultures an authoritarian parenting style is the norm and exerts no negative effect). In addition, the appropriateness of parenting practices may vary according to the context in which they occur (eg, greater parental control may be more important in high crime neighbourhoods) and the characteristics and disposition of the individual child.

Another, highly contentious, view is that it is peers, not parents, who are "responsible for the transmission of culture and for environmental modification of children's personality characteristics." (Harris 1995) Harris contends that parents have no lasting effects on the personality, intelligence or mental health of their children, and that it is children's peers who have the greatest impact on children's personalities. Children adopt certain behaviours in social situations in order to win acceptance from their peers, and that it is these behaviours that remain constant into adulthood. She states "children learn how to behave outside the home by becoming members of, and identifying with, a

social group It is within these groups that the psychological characteristics a child is born with become permanently modified by the environment. ...The shared environment that leaves permanent marks on children's personalities is the environment they share with their peers." (Harris 1995).

1.2.2 Parenting Style and Its correlates

Developmental psychologists have been interested in how parents influence the development of children's social and instrumental competence since at least the 1920s. One of the most robust approaches to this area is the study of what has been called "parenting style." This Digest defines parenting style, explores four types, and discusses the consequences of the different styles for children. Parenting Style Defined Parenting is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviors that work individually and together to influence child outcomes. Although specific parenting behaviors, such as spanking or reading aloud, may influence child development, looking at any specific behavior in isolation may be misleading. Many writers have noted that specific parenting practices are less important in predicting child well-being than is the broad pattern of parenting. Most researchers who attempt to describe this broad parental milieu rely on Diana Baumrind's concept of parenting style. The construct of parenting style is used to capture normal variations in parents' attempts to control and socialize their children (Baumrind, 1991). Two points are critical in understanding this definition. First, parenting style is meant to describe normal variations in parenting. In other words, the parenting style typology Baumrind developed should not be understood to include deviant parenting, such as might be observed in abusive or neglectful homes. Second, Baumrind assumes that normal parenting revolves around issues of control. Although parents may differ in how they try to control or socialize their children and the extent to which they do so, it is assumed that the primary role of all parents is to influence, teach and control their children.

Parenting style captures two important elements of parenting: parental responsiveness and parental demandingness (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Parental responsiveness (also referred to as parental warmth or supportiveness) refers to "the extent to which parents intentionally foster individuality, self-regulation, and self-

assertion by being attuned, supportive, and acquiescent to children's special needs and demands" (Baumrind, 1991). Parental demandingness (also referred to as behavioral control) refers to "the claims parents make on children to become integrated into the family whole, by their maturity demands, supervision, disciplinary efforts and willingness to confront the child

who disobeys" (Baumrind, 1991).

Four categories of parenting: Categorizing parents according to whether they are high or low on parental demandingness and responsiveness creates a typology of four parenting styles: indulgent, authoritarian, authoritative, and uninvolved (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Each of these parenting styles reflects different naturally occurring patterns of parental values, practices, and behaviors (Baumrind, 1991) and a distinct balance of responsiveness and demandingness.

Indulgent parents (also referred to as "permissive" or "nondirective") "are more responsive than they are demanding. They are nontraditional and lenient, do not require mature behavior, allow considerable self-regulation, and avoid confrontation" (Baumrind, 1991). Indulgent parents may be further divided into two types: democratic parents, who, though lenient, are more conscientious, engaged, and committed to the child, and nondirective parents.

Authoritarian parents are highly demanding and directive, but not responsive. "They are obedience- and status-oriented, and expect their orders to be obeyed without explanation" (Baumrind, 1991). These parents provide well-ordered and structured environments with clearly stated rules. Authoritarian parents can be divided into two types: nonauthoritarian-directive, who are directive, but not intrusive or autocratic in their use of power, and authoritarian-directive, who are highly intrusive.

Authoritative parents are both demanding and responsive. "They monitor and impart clear standards for their children's conduct. They are assertive, but not intrusive and restrictive. Their disciplinary methods are supportive, rather than punitive. They want their children to be assertive as well as socially responsible, and self-regulated as well as cooperative" (Baumrind, 1991).

Uninvolved parents are low in both responsiveness and demandingness. In extreme cases, this parenting style might encompass both rejecting–neglecting and neglectful parents, although most parents of this type fall within the normal range. Because parenting style is a typology, rather than a linear combination of responsiveness and demandingness, each parenting style is more than and different from the sum of its parts (Baumrind, 1991). In addition to differing on responsiveness and demandingness, the parenting styles also differ in the extent to which they are characterized by a third dimension: psychological control. Psychological control "refers to control attempts that intrude into the psychological and emotional development of the child" (Barber, 1996) through use of parenting practices such as guilt induction, withdrawal of love, or shaming. One key difference between authoritarian and authoritative parenting is in the dimension of psychological control. Both authoritarian and authoritative parents place high demands on their children and expect their children to behave appropriately and obey parental rules. Authoritarian parents, however, also expect their children to accept their judgments, values, and goals without questioning. In contrast, authoritative parents are more open to give and take with their children and make greater use of explanations. Thus, although authoritative and authoritarian parents are equally high in behavioral control, authoritative parents tend to be low in psychological control, while authoritarian parents tend to be high.

1.2.2.1 Consequences for the types of parenting on children

Parenting style has been found to predict child well being in the domains of social competence, academic performance, psychosocial development, and problem behavior. Research based on parent interviews, child reports, and parent observations consistently finds:

a) Children and adolescents whose parents are authoritative rate themselves and are rated by objective measures as more socially and instrumentally competent than those whose parents are nonauthoritative (Baumrind, 1991; Weiss & Schwarz, 1996; Miller, 1993).

b) Children and adolescents whose parents are uninvolved perform most poorly in all domains.

In general, parental responsiveness predicts social competence and psychosocial functioning, while parental demandingness is associated with instrumental competence and behavioral control (i.e., academic performance and deviance). These findings indicate:

a)Children and adolescents from authoritarian families (high in demandingness, but low in responsiveness) tend to perform moderately well in school and be uninvolved in problem behavior, but they have poorer social skills, lower self-esteem, and higher levels of depression

b) Children and adolescents from indulgent homes (high in responsiveness, low in demandingness) are more likely to be involved in problem behavior and perform less well in school, but they have higher self-esteem, better social skills, and lower levels of depression.

In reviewing the literature on parenting style, one is struck by the consistency with which authoritative upbringing is associated with both instrumental and social competence and lower levels of problem behavior in both boys and girls at all developmental stages. The benefits of authoritative parenting and the detrimental effects of uninvolved parenting are evident as early as the preschool years and continue throughout adolescence and into early adulthood. Although specific differences can be found in the competence evidenced by each group, the largest differences are found between children whose parents are unengaged and their peers with more involved parents. Differences between children from authoritative homes and their peers are equally consistent, but somewhat smaller (Weiss & Schwarz, 1996). Just as authoritative parents appear to be able to balance their conformity demands with their respect for their children's individuality, so children from authoritative homes appear to be able to balance the claims of external conformity and achievement demands with their need for individuation and autonomy.

Parenting style provides a robust indicator of parenting functioning that predicts child well-being across a wide spectrum of environments and across diverse communities of children. Both parental responsiveness and parental demandingness are important components of good parenting. Authoritative parenting, which balances clear, high parental demands with emotional responsiveness and recognition of child autonomy, is

one of the most consistent family predictors of competence from early childhood through adolescence. However, despite the long and robust tradition of research into parenting style, a number of issues remain outstanding. Foremost among these are issues of definition, developmental change in the manifestation and correlates of parenting styles, and the processes underlying the benefits of authoritative parenting (Schwarz, 1985; Darling & Steinberg, 1993; Baumrind, 1991; and Barber, 1996).

1.2.2.2 The impacts of family conflict and dissolution on children

While some children suffer negative consequences from family conflict and marriage dissolution, most children are fine. The key issue is identifying the risk factors involved. Parental conflict, for example, is a critical risk factor for negative outcomes. While family dissolution may contribute to children's difficulties, it is not possible to draw a conclusive causal relationship between divorce and the level of child well-being. International reviews and meta-analyses have shown that there are negative consequences for children experiencing parental separation that endure into adulthood (Amato 2000, 2001, Amato and Keith 1991). However, these effects may be due to disruption in children's attachments and living arrangements (such as, for instance, loss of social networks and changes in school), that also affect children in multiple successive placements in foster care (Nechyba, McEwan and Older-Aguilar 1999). Similarly, as some children from intact families suffer the same difficulties as some children with divorced parents, Amato suggests that it is not divorce in and of itself that produces negative outcomes (Amato and Keith 1991).

Recent large-scale studies of children in the United States and Britain examined the negative effects of parental divorce on children, arguing that children whose parents had divorced displayed more behaviour problems and had lower school achievement than children from intact families. However, the research found that these problems usually appeared before the parents separated; that is, the problems were not due to the trauma of divorce itself but to conditions within troubled families (Smith 2000a). Parental conflict is a major predictor of poor outcomes for children.

Arguing that the children from intact and divorced families were more alike than different, Amato (1994) evaluated the impact of six characteristics commonly thought to

cause difficulties for children whose parents were divorcing: parental loss, economic loss, life stress (such as changes in living situations), poor parental adjustment (psychological functioning), lack of parental competence, and exposure to inter-parental conflict. Amato argues that while five of the six factors were associated with children's difficulties, economic loss was less predictive of children's well-being. Furthermore, Amato argues that children from intact families could also be exposed to these factors.

Rodgers and Pryor (1998)find that short-term distress at the time of separation is common, but that this usually fades with time and long-term adverse outcomes typically apply only to a minority of children experiencing the separation of their parents. Parental separation can exacerbate existing risk factors through such effects as household income, parenting behaviour, geographical location and parental psychological distress, and can contribute to adverse outcomes through the relationships between parents and children. On the other hand, in a highly conflicted family, separation may lead to an improvement in children's outcomes (Booth and Amato 2001).

The literature highlights the importance of distinguishing between transitional problems and chronic problems—the former potentially having less impact on children than the latter. On balance, leaving a damaged marriage can potentially lead to better outcomes for children, even though the adjustment is painful, than if children remain in a poorly functioning family situation for a long period. Many families successfully transition from the loss of their original family to a new set of arrangements (Pryor and Rodgers 1998).

1.2.3 Parental Locus of Control and Children's Attitude toward the Parent

Every parent differs in their parenting style. Belsky (1984) proposes that parenting is influenced by the individual parent, the individual child, and the broader social context in which the parent-child relationship is embedded. Traditionally, in Korea the family was highly valued. Having large families, being parents, and respecting the authority of elders are important aspects of Korean culture. Scholars agree that an authoritarian parenting style is the norm in the Korea traditional family system based on Confucian philosophy (Rhee,1996; Min,1995; Park,2007). Confucianism emphasizes the importance of reverence for ancestors, love and loyalty to parents, honoring community, strict moral

codes and respect for learning (Drachman, 1996). Consequently, the relationship between Korean parents and children is described as parental leadership with power where children are expected to obey (Kim, 1996; Kim & Gonzales, Stroh, & Wang, 2006; Min, 1995; Nah, 1993; Rhee, 1996)

This tradition contrasts sharply with that of American society. The discrepancy creates tension between Korean American children exposed to American values and their more traditional Korean parents. The societies of Asian countries and that of the United States are fundamentally different in nature. As Rhee (1996) points out, the differential degree of acculturation between parents and children is a major source of intergenerational conflict in Korean American families. Korean American parents often have cultural expectations for their children that run counter to American values (Chung, 2001; Kim, Sawdy, & Meihoefer, 1982; Drachman, 1996). They simultaneously want their children to adapt to mainstream American society rapidly but urge them to uphold traditional values and attitudes (Rhee, 1996; Drachman, 1996). This conflict between traditional Korean parent/child expectations and American parent/child expectations can be viewed as an issue of perception of the amount, or locus of control on the part of the parent.

Rotter (1966) defined locus of control as a "generalized attitude, belief or expectancy regarding the nature of the casual relationship between one's own behavior and its consequences".Externally oriented parents may believe that the child's behavior and development are more determined by chance or by the child's inborn qualities than by parents' child rearing skills and efforts. While internally oriented parents believe that the behavior and the development of their child are dependent on their own child-rearing practice of honoring child's own decisions (Bugental, Caporael, & Shennum, 1980). Janssens (1994) reported the following two findings: (1) parents with a more external locus of control were more authoritarian when controlling their child and (2) parents of difficult children are more authoritarian than parents of easier children. Loeb (1975) also asserted that 'external' parents used a highly controlling strategy (explicit directions) in teaching their children, in contrast with the less controlling, more pervasive styles of 'internal'parent.

Little research has been completed which applies these findings to immigrant

families, especially Korean American families. Writers assume that most Korean American parents should be considered as externally orientated parents, seeing their child's behavior problems as being outside parental control and using highly controlling strategies (explicit directions) because of their traditional parenting values and styles (Kim, 1996; Kwon, 1997). However, many researchers argue that Korean parents feel a great responsibility for their children's behavior, even though they have an authoritarian parenting style (Drachman, 1996; Hurh & Kim, 1990; Kim, Cain, & McCubbin,2006).

1.2.4 Family behavior

For many individuals, the family is the domain in which they seek to fulfil innate drives and achieve many life goals. Membership of a family is more likely to enhance each individual's emotional, social and physical well-being when there is secure attachment and affection between family members; individuals have some autonomy; roles and responsibilities are clear; there is flexibility in roles and responsibilities; there is absence of chronic unresolved conflict; there is social support from external sources; and levels of stress on the family from external or internal sources are low.

Family systems comprise the ways families organise themselves and how their members interact with one another. Families typically have rules that determine the way they are organised and which help the family define and perform its functions (Minchin 1974). Family systems theory, also known as Bowen theory, provides a framework for examining family situations and behaviours in terms of past relationships and family histories (Bowen 1985). It offers a theory of family behaviour based on the premise that the family can be viewed as a single emotional unit made up of interlocking relationships existing over many generations (Kerr and Bowen 1988).

A key concept in family systems theory is that the family is an emotional system or an emotional unit. The family members are emotionally interdependent and function in reciprocal relationships with one another. Therefore, the functioning of one member cannot be completely understood if taken " out of the context of the functioning of the people closely involved with him" (Kerr 1988).

Family systems theory argues that an individual's behaviour throughout the life course is closely related to the functioning in one's original family. One strength of

family systems theory is that it conceptualises "family" as encompassing a variety of family forms, including the immediate family with whom the individual lives, the extended family of relatives and friends, and the community at large.

1.2.5 The formation of step-families

Entry into blended families leads to a complex set of new relationships, and adjustment difficulties are common. Children in step-families have been found to experience more behavioural problems, higher rates of accidents, more contact with the police, lower self esteem, and early school leaving than children with two biological parents present (Baker 2000). Children whose biological mother is cohabiting with a non-biological father do worse on average than children in sole parent families in terms of cognitive, behavioural and psychological outcomes (McLanahan 1997, Nechyba,1999). A significant factor in positive adjustment following any significant family change (such as divorce or the formation of a step-family) is effective parenting (Nicholson 1998). Parenting roles are central to step-family functioning and the adjustment of individual family members (Hobart 1991, Hoge, Andrews and Robinson 1990). Conflicts between parents over child-rearing and parenting problems more generally occur at a higher rate in blended families (Hoge, 1990). However, if the biological parent and step-parent adopt a consistent and authoritative style of parenting, and if there are few conflicts with the other biological parent (or other family members) then adjustment difficulties are more likely to be short-lived.

Conflict within blended families is not confined to parenting. Remarried couples report relationship difficulties related to finances more than first-time married couples, and are more likely to say that they would marry a different person if they could re-live their lives However, conflict within blended families differs with the presence of children from previous relationships. The presence of the husband's from a previous relationship seen as "particularly adversive for the spousal relationship" (Hobart 1991).
Girls tend to have more difficulty getting along with step-parents than boys, particularly with step-mothers. This is particularly the case when a girl's contact with her father is substantially reduced following his remarriage (particularly if the father does not have custody). In addition, girls are more likely than boys to become entangled in loyalty

conflicts between their two mother figures. In general the longer a girl lives in a father-step-mother household, the more positive the interaction with the step-mother becomes (Berk 2001).

However, the formation of a step-family can be positive for children if it brings greater adult attention from the addition of caring and effective step-parents or from the child's social network. How well children adapt is related to the overall quality of family functioning and child-rearing style, factors more critical than the structure of the new family.

Several factors may affect how well a child adjusts to a stepfamily. First, the child's gender is a factor. Girls have more difficulty than boys adjusting to step-family life. In stepfamilies that include the child's biological mother and a stepfather, girls are more likely than boys to be resistant to the stepfather. In single-parent divorced families, mother-daughter relationships often are exceptionally close; consequently, when mothers remarry, girls may view new stepfathers as threats to their previously close relationships with their mothers. In contrast, boys' overall adjustment is likely to improve after their mothers' remarriage. Mother-son relationships in single-parent divorced families typically are conflicted and coercive; consequently, boys may appreciate new stepfathers as alternative supportive parents and masculine role models. In stepfamilies that include the child's biological father and a stepmother, the stepmother may be seen as an intruder in the previously close father-child relationship. Girls may have trouble adjusting to the new stepmother, particularly because most girls maintain a close relationship with their noncustodial mother, but girls generally adjust to the new stepmother and benefit from the new relationship.

The second area that may affect a child's adjustment to a stepfamily is the age of the child. Young children adapt most easily, whereas early adolescents have the most difficulty adjusting to new stepfamilies. The adjustment is particularly difficult for early adolescents because, in addition to the new stepfamily, they are adjusting to puberty and new sexual feelings, becoming more independent from the family, experiencing egocentrism and self-consciousness, and being exposed to new peer pressures to experiment with sexuality and drugs or alcohol. These multiple stressors make it more likely that the adolescent may react negatively to the new stepparent, making it difficult

to build a relationship. In addition, stepparents may be hesitant to monitor adolescents for fear of threatening the stepparent-adolescent relationship; consequently, these adolescents may be more likely to get into trouble.

Individual differences in temperament, intelligence, and behavioral patterns also may affect how well children adjust to stepfamilies. Children with easygoing temperaments, high intelligence, and good behavior are more likely to evoke positive responses from their parents and stepparents, making it more likely that these children will receive the support needed to adjust. In contrast, the stresses of living in a stepfamily are likely to magnify children's and adolescents' preexisting problems. Consequently, children with difficult temperaments or with preexisting behavior problems are likely to evoke negative reactions from their parents and new step-parents, thereby reducing the amount of support these children receive.

Parenting factors also may affect children's adjustment to stepfamilies. Children are more likely to have problems adjusting to stepfamilies if both adults bring children into the new stepfamily because parents tend to have closer relationships with their biological children. Stepchildren perceive the closer relationships between stepparents and their biological children as differential or nonequal treatment and resent their stepsiblings.

In addition, because of the stresses of adjusting to a new marriage, mothers are likely to provide less control and monitoring and to be more negative toward their children. Mothers' parenting tends to improve after the first year and eventually becomes similar to mothers in intact families. Adolescents in stepfamilies are still more likely than adolescents in intact families to experience mother-adolescent disagreements and low levels of supervision.

Stepfathers typically initially assume a polite, nondisciplinarian role in stepfamilies partly because stepchildren (especially stepdaughters) tend to reject stepfathers' attempts at discipline. Eventually, stepfathers and stepdaughters may become involved in conflict focused on the stepfathers' authority. Consequently, stepfathers often become less supportive, less positive, and less involved in discipline than fathers in intact families. Stepfathers' disengagement from parenting is associated with poor child and adolescent adjustment. The most positive outcomes occur with younger children

(especially boys) when the stepfather initially forms a warm relationship with the child and supports the mother's discipline, and later begins to provide authoritative discipline (warmth with moderate control). Early adolescents adjust best when stepfathers begin immediately to establish a warm, supportive relationship with moderate amounts of control.

In contrast, stepmothers often immediately become more involved in discipline. If the biological father supports the stepmother's discipline attempts, children generally receive more effective parenting from both parents. Stepmothers perceive parenting as more challenging than mothers in intact families, although research suggests that stepmothers are actually less negative and coercive in their interactions with their stepchildren than mothers in intact families. Stepmothers who provide authoritative parenting, providing warmth and moderate control, have stepchildren who are better adjusted than the step-children of stepmothers who provide authoritarian or neglectful parenting.

1.2.6 Children's and Adolescents' Adjustment in Stepfamilies

Children and adolescents in stepfamilies tend to develop more problems than children and adolescents in intact families. Children in stepfamilies are more likely than children in intact families to have academic problems, to have externalizing or internalizing disorders, to be less socially competent, and to have problems with parents, siblings, and peers. About a third of adolescents become disengaged from their stepfamilies and consequently may be more likely to become sexually active at an early age, to be involved in delinquent activities, to be involved with drugs or alcohol, and to drop out of high school. When children or adolescents raised in stepfamilies reach adulthood, they are more likely to divorce than children raised in intact families. But it is important to note that although children in stepfamilies are more likely to have problems than children in intact families; the majority of children in stepfamilies are normally adjusted.

One would expect that children and adolescents in stepfamilies would be better adjusted than children and adolescents in single-parent divorced families. Stepfamilies have more resources than single-parent divorced families, including two parents to share

child rearing and more financial resources. Surprisingly, a large body of research indicates that children and adolescents in stepfamilies have the same level of adjustment problems as children and adolescents in divorced single-parent families. One reason for this similarity between the adjustment of children in step-families and single-parent divorced families may be that stepfamilies experience significant stresses within their family interactions. It may take five to seven years for a new stepfamily to stabilize and begin to function smoothly. From a family systems perspective, stepfamilies begin with a weak family system. Instead of a healthy family system (a strong, well-established marital bond, strong child bonds to both parents, and little outside interference), stepfamilies typically begin with a new and relatively weak marital coalition, a strong parent-child relationship, a weak or conflicted stepparent-child relationship, and with the outside involvement of the noncustodial parent. In addition, children in stepfamilies may have to adjust to less attention from their biological parent, to parenting from a new stepparent, and to new sibling relationships.

1.2.7 Factors affecting Children's and Adolescents' Adjustment to Stepfamilies

Several factors may affect how well a child adjusts to a stepfamily. First, the child's gender is a factor. Girls have more difficulty than boys adjusting to step-family life. In stepfamilies that include the child's biological mother and a stepfather, girls are more likely than boys to be resistant to the stepfather. In single-parent divorced families, mother-daughter relationships often are exceptionally close; consequently, when mothers remarry, girls may view new stepfathers as threats to their previously close relationships with their mothers. In contrast, boys' overall adjustment is likely to improve after their mothers' remarriage. Mother-son relationships in single-parent divorced families typically are conflicted and coercive; consequently, boys may appreciate new stepfathers as alternative supportive parents and masculine role models. In stepfamilies that include the child's biological father and a stepmother, the stepmother may be seen as an intruder in the previously close father-child relationship. Girls may have trouble adjusting to the new stepmother, particularly because most girls maintain a close relationship with their noncustodial mother, but girls generally adjust to the new stepmother and benefit from the new relationship.

The second area that may affect a child's adjustment to a stepfamily is the age of the child. Young children adapt most easily, whereas early adolescents have the most difficulty adjusting to new stepfamilies. The adjustment is particularly difficult for early adolescents because, in addition to the new stepfamily, they are adjusting to puberty and new sexual feelings, becoming more independent from the family, experiencing egocentrism and self-consciousness, and being exposed to new peer pressures to experiment with sexuality and drugs or alcohol. These multiple stressors make it more likely that the adolescent may react negatively to the new stepparent, making it difficult to build a relationship. In addition, stepparents may be hesitant to monitor adolescents for fear of threatening the stepparent-adolescent relationship; consequently, these adolescents may be more likely to get into trouble.

Individual differences in temperament, intelligence, and behavioral patterns also may affect how well children adjust to stepfamilies. Children with easygoing temperaments, high intelligence, and good behavior are more likely to evoke positive responses from their parents and stepparents, making it more likely that these children will receive the support needed to adjust. In contrast, the stresses of living in a stepfamily are likely to magnify children's and adolescents' preexisting problems. Consequently, children with difficult temperaments or with preexisting behavior problems are likely to evoke negative reactions from their parents and new step-parents, thereby reducing the amount of support these children receive.

Parenting factors also may affect children's adjustment to stepfamilies. Children are more likely to have problems adjusting to stepfamilies if both adults bring children into the new stepfamily because parents tend to have closer relationships with their biological children. Stepchildren perceive the closer relationships between stepparents and their biological children as differential or nonequal treatment and resent their stepsiblings.

In addition, because of the stresses of adjusting to a new marriage, mothers (during the first year of the remarriage) are likely to provide less control and monitoring and to be more negative toward their children. Mothers' parenting tends to improve after the first year and eventually becomes similar to mothers in intact families. Adolescents in

stepfamilies are still more likely than adolescents in intact families to experience mother-adolescent disagreements and low levels of supervision.

Stepfathers typically initially assume a polite, nondisciplinarian role in stepfamilies partly because stepchildren (especially stepdaughters) tend to reject stepfathers' attempts at discipline. Eventually, stepfathers and stepdaughters may become involved in conflict focused on the stepfathers' authority. Consequently, stepfathers often become less supportive, less positive, and less involved in discipline than fathers in intact families. Stepfathers' disengagement from parenting is associated with poor child and adolescent adjustment. The most positive outcomes occur with younger children (especially boys) when the stepfather initially forms a warm relationship with the child and supports the mother's discipline, and later begins to provide authoritative discipline (warmth with moderate control). Early adolescents adjust best when stepfathers begin immediately to establish a warm, supportive relationship with moderate amounts of control.

In contrast, stepmothers often immediately become more involved in discipline. If the biological father supports the stepmother's discipline attempts, children generally receive more effective parenting from both parents. Stepmothers perceive parenting as more challenging than mothers in intact families, although research suggests that stepmothers are actually less negative and coercive in their interactions with their stepchildren than mothers in intact families. Stepmothers, who provide authoritative parenting, providing warmth and moderate control, have stepchildren who are better adjusted than the stepchildren of stepmothers who provide authoritarian or neglectful parenting.

1.3 Literature Review

In the past decade, studies have begun to examine the contribution of adolescent-parent attachment to psychological adjustment. The majority of these studies have examined this relationship within late adolescent (junior college, first-year university) samples. Few studies have examined adolescent-parent attachment and adjustment in early (age 12-13) and middle adolescents (at around age 15 years).

With reference to the relation between attachment patterns in adolescence and adjustment, reports to date mostly confirm findings based on studies of young children. That is, secure attachment is typically related to healthier adjustment, whereas insecure attachment is linked to various forms of maladjustment.

In normal population studies, late adolescents who are classified as securely attached are rated by their peers as less anxious, less hostile and more able to successfully regulate their feelings (i.e. more ego-resilient) compared to insecurely attached adolescents (Kobak & Sceery, 1988). Adolescents who report a positive relationship with their parents, and who feel comfortable turning to them for support, have been found to have a greater sense of mastery of their worlds (Paterson, Pryor & Field, 1995) and to experience less loneliness (Kerns & Stevens, 1996). More positive attachment to parents among 15 year-olds is also associated with fewer mental health problems such as anxiety, depression, inattention and conduct problems (Nada-Raja, McGee & Stanton, 1992).

A positive relationship with parents may also protect adolescents from risk. Adolescents who report close, accepting relationships with their mothers report less involvement in delinquent activities (Aseltine, 1995; Smith & Krohn, 1995). These positive relationship qualities are those typical of secure attachment. Indeed, adolescents' secure attachment to their mother has been linked to less experimentation with drugs (Voss, 1999) and less frequent substance use (Cooper, Shaver & Collins, 1998).

In terms of specific insecure attachment styles, a dismissing style (i.e. poor communication and trust, combined with feelings of alienation and disengagement from the attachment relationship) has been associated with externalizing problem behaviours (e.g. aggression and delinquency) (Nada-Raja, 1992; Voss, 1999), more experimentation with drugs (Voss, 1999) and riskier attitudes about safe sex (Voss, 1999). Dismissing

young adults report less family support and more loneliness than their peers (Kobak & Sceery, 1988).

Like dismissing adolescents, fearful adolescents are avoidant, but they are distressed by their lack of closeness to others, and suffer from feelings of inadequacy and anxiety (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). Fearful attachment with mothers has been linked to delinquency and greater experimentation with drugs (Voss, 1999).

Adolescents who have a preoccupied attachment style (i.e. have positive views of others, and negative views of themselves) see themselves as socially incompetent and are rated by their peers as more anxious than all other attachment groups (Kobak & Sceery, 1988). Compared to other adolescents, these teens report more physical symptoms (Kobak & Sceery, 1988). In a three-category system of attachment classification (secure, dismissing, preoccupied), preoccupied adolescents have been found to be the most vulnerable to maladjustment (Cooper, Shaver & Collins, 1998).

Research on high-risk populations confirms findings based on normative samples: high-risk adolescents with insecure attachment patterns are more likely than securely attached adolescents to experience a range of mental health problems (Allen, Hauser & Borman-Spurrell, 1996). These include suicidality (Lessard & Moretti, 1998), drug use (Lessard, 1994), aggressive and antisocial behaviour (Reimer, Overton, Steidl, Rosenstein , 1996; Rosenstein & Horowitz, 1996; Fonagy, Target, Steele & Steele, 1997; Moretti, Holland & Moore, 1998). For example, in a sample of male adolescent inpatients, Rosenstein and Horowitz (1996) found that symptoms of conduct disorder were associated with a dismissing attachment pattern. Preoccupied adolescents, on the other hand, have been found more likely to report anxiety, dysthymia and an interest in others combined with a fear of criticism and/or rebuff (Rosenstein & Horowitz, 1996; Allen, Moore, Kuperminc & Bell, 1998). Preoccupation has also been found to be associated with adolescent externalizing behaviours, though only in the presence of the additional demographic risk factors of male gender and low income (Allen, 1998).

Although similar patterns of results are present in normative and clinical samples (e.g. Allen & Hauser, 1996), research with younger children (Lyons-Ruth, 1991) also shows that the relation between attachment and adjustment is stronger among children in high-risk (e.g. poverty, low social support, parental psychopathology) than low-risk

contexts. In other words, the relationship between attachment and adjustment appears to be moderated by exposure to adversity. This suggests that insecure attachment alone does not differentiate well adjusted from poorly adjusted adolescents. Extrapolating from existing research with young children suggests that adolescents who grow up in conditions of adversity and inadequate access to resources may not suffer from psychopathology if they share secure attachment relationships with their parents. Conversely, adolescents who develop in a supportive and resource-rich environment, albeit with less secure attachment, may have poor outcomes, at least in some domains. Research examining the moderating effects of adversity on the relationship between attachment and adjustment in adolescents is urgently required.

The key function of a child's family is to raise the young person in as healthy a manner as possible (Bornstein, 1995). The parents' role is to provide the child with a safe, secure, nurturant, loving, and supportive environment, one that allows the offspring to have a happy and healthy youth; this sort of experience allows the youth to develop the knowledge, values, attitudes, and behaviors necessary to become an adult making a productive contribution to self, family, community, and society (Lerner, 1995). What a parent does to fulfill these "duties" of his or her role is termed parenting; in other words, parenting is a term that summarizes behaviors used by a person usually, but, of course, not exclusively, the mother or father to raise a child. Given the above-described characteristics of this set of activities, it is clear that parenting is the major function of the family.

However, adolescents live in different family structures. This variation influences both the way parents interact with youth and, in turn, the behavior of adolescents. For instance, in a study of urban, African American adolescents living in either (1) single-mother, (2) step parent, (3) dual parent, (4) mother-with-extended-family (e.g., grandparent, aunt, or uncle), or (5) extended-family-only settings (e.g., only an aunt is present), the social support provided to youth was generally the same across family types, with one exception: Youth living in single-mother families were given more support than the youth in the other four family types (Zimmerman, Salem, & Maton, 1995). In turn, support to mothers, especially when provided by relatives, can enhance adolescent and maternal adjustment, and improve the mother's parenting skills (Taylor & Roberts, 1995).

For example, among 14- to 19-year-old African American youth, social support from kin was related to self-reliance and good school grades; however, when kinship support was low the youth experienced feelings of distress (Taylor, 1996). However, although differences in regard to academic achievement and high school grades are slight among youth living in intact, single parent, and remarried families, large differences exist in regard to school drop-out (Zimiles & Lee, 1991). Students from intact families are least likely to drop out. Similarly, youth from such families are less likely to experiment with drugs than are adolescents from single-parent families (Turner, Irwin, Millstein, 1991). Of course, however, adults differ in the ways in which they enact their role as parent. They show different styles of raising their children. Differences in child rearing styles is associated with important variation in adolescent development.

The classic research of Baumrind (1967, 1971) resulted in the identification of three major types of child rearing styles: Authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive. The first style of rearing is marked by parental warmth, the use of rules and reasoning (induction) to promote obedience and keep discipline, non-punitive punishment (e.g., using "time out" or "grounding" instead of physical punishment), and consistency between statements and actions and across time (Baumrind, 1971; Lamborn, Mants, Steinberg & Dornbusch, 1991). Authoritarian parents are not warm, stress rigid adherence to the rules they set (obey--just because we, the parents, are setting the rules), emphasize the power of their role, and use physical punishment for transgressions (Baumrind, 1971; Belsky, Lerner & Spanier, 1984). Permissive parents do not show consistency in their use of rules, they may have a "laissez-faire" attitude towards their child's behaviors (i.e., they may either not attend to the child or let him or her do whatever he or she wants), and they may give the child anything he or she requests; their style may be characterized as being either more of a peer or, instead, as an independent "observer" of their child. Indeed, because of the diversity of behavioral patterns that can characterize the permissive parenting style, Maccoby and Martin (1983) proposed that this approach to parenting can best be thought of as two distinct types: Indulgent (e.g., "If my child wants something, I give it to her") and neglectful (e.g., "I really don't know what my child is up to. I don't really keep close tabs on her").

Whether the three categories of rearing style originally proposed by Baumrind (1967, 1971), the four categories suggested by Maccoby and Martin (1983), or other labels are used, it is clear that the behavioral variation summarized by use of the different categories is associated with differences in adolescent behavior and development (Lamborn, 1991). For example, in a study of over 4,000 14 to 18 year olds, adolescents with authoritative parents had more social competence and fewer psychological and behavioral problems than youth with authoritarian, indulgent, or neglectful parents (Lamborn, 1991). In fact, youth with neglectful parents were the least socially competent and had the most psychological and behavioral problems of any group of adolescents in the study. In turn, youth with authoritarian parents were obedient and conformed well to authority, but had poorer self-concepts than other adolescents. Finally, while youth with indulgent parents had high self-confidence, they more often abused substances, misbehaved in school, and were less engaged in school.

Similarly, in a study of about 10,000 high school students, adolescents whose parents are accepting, firm, and democratic achieve higher school grades, are more self reliant, less anxious and depressed, and less likely to engage in delinquent behavior than are youth with parents using other rearing styles (Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn & Dornbusch, 1991); this influence of authoritative parenting held for youth of different ethnic and socioeconomic backgrounds and regardless of whether the adolescent's family was intact. Moreover, adolescents with authoritative parents are more likely to have well-rounded peer groups, that is, groups that admire both adult as well as youth values and norms, e.g., academic achievement/school success and athletics/social popularity, respectively (Durbin, Darling, Steinberg & Brown, 1993). In turn, youth with uninvolved parents had peer groups that did not support adult norms or values, and boys with indulgent parents were in peer groups that stressed fun and partying (Durbin, 1993). Considerable additional research confirms the generally positive influence on adolescent development of authoritative parenting and, in turn, of the developmental problems that emerge in youth when parents are authoritarian, permissive, indulgent, or uninvolved (Almeida & Galambos, 1991; Baumrind, 1991; Brown, 1993; Feldman & Wood, 1994; Melby & Conger, 1996; Paulson, 1994; Simons, Johnson, & Conger, 1994; Wentzel, Feldmen, & Weinberger, 1991). Moreover, this research confirms as well that the

positive influences of authoritative parenting extend to the adolescent's choice of, or involvement with peers (Brown, 1993). Thus, the influence of parents is often highly consistent with the influence of peers among adolescents (Lerner & Galambos, 1998). Whatever style parents use to rear their adolescents, the goal of parenting is to raise a child who is healthy and successful in life, who can contribute to self and to society, who accepts and works to further the social order. The process--the behaviors that are used over time--to reach these goals is termed socialization. Although all societies socialize their youth (in order that, as future contributors to society, the society can survive and prosper), there are marked differences in what different societies, or groups within society, want to see in a youth that has been "successfully" socialized. Said another way, there is great diversity in the specific goals parents have in socializing their youth.

One way of illustrating this contextual variation and, as well, of judging whether parents and society at large have been successful in shaping youth to accept social values, is to ask youth what it means to be a good or a bad child. In one study that took this approach American, Japanese, and Chinese adolescents were asked "What is a bad kid?"(Crystal and Stevenson,1995). In America, youth answered that a lack of self control and substance abuse were the marks of being bad. In China, a youth who engaged in acts against society was judged as bad. In Japan, a youth who created disruptions of interpersonal harmony was regarded as bad.

Another way of understanding the socialization process is to see how immigrants to a new country give up the values and customs of their country of origin and adopt those of their new one, a set of changes termed acculturation. This approach was used in a series of studies involving youth of Chinese ancestry, who were either first generation Americans (their parents were born in China and immigrated before the adolescent was born) or second generation Americans (their grandparents were born in China, but their parents had been born in the United States). These youth were contrasted to Chinese adolescents from Hong Kong, to youth of Chinese ancestry whose parents had immigrated to Australia, to European American youth, and to Anglo Australian youth. In one study both first and second-generation Chinese American youth were similar to the non-immigrant youth groups in their levels of adolescent problems (Chiu, Feldman, & Rosenthal, 1992). However, immigration resulted in lowered perceptions of parental

control; but it was not related to views about their parents' warmth. In turn, Chinese American adolescents' value on the family as a residential unit changed across the generations (in the direction of placing less value on the family for this function), and thus showed variation consistent with acculturation to both Anglo Australian and European American values (Feldman, Mont-Reynaud, & Rosenthal, 1992); however, the Chinese Americans still differed from these other groups in this value.

Still another approach to understanding socialization is to appraise whether different groups within a society direct their youth to comparable developmental achievements. Research in Israel, for instance, suggests that youth from Arab Israeli families are raised to view the father as having more power than the mother; in turn, Jewish Israeli youth see more maternal than paternal power (Weller, Florian, Mikulincer, 1995). Similarly, in Japan, problems of adolescent adjustment are most likely to occur for boys who are aligned with their mothers, but whose mothers and fathers disagree about socialization practices (Gjerde & Shimizo, 1995). In turn, male and female adolescent immigrants from Third World countries to Norway differ in their attitudes toward acculturation (Sam, 1995); although both groups place a lot of importance on maintaining their cultural heritage, boys favor acculturation more than girls.

In the United States, while there is evidence of consistency in some socialization practices across diverse groups (e.g., in regard to the development of mental health among Latino and European American youth; Knight, Virdin, & Roosa, 1994), there is also research indicating that practices differ in different American groups. For instance, African American parents more frequently discuss prejudice with their adolescent children than is the case for Japanese American or Mexican American parents (Phinney & Chavira, 1995); in addition, both African American and Japanese American parents emphasize adaptation to society more so than is the case with Mexican American parents. How successful are parents' attempts at socialization? By virtue of the fact that society continues to evolve, and is not characterized by intergenerational warfare or revolution, and that the vast majority of youth become contributing adults to society, we can conclude that socialization "works," that the "apple does not fall far from the tree" (Adelson, 1970; Lerner, 1986). Indeed, during adolescence very few families--estimates are between 5% to 10%--experience a major deterioration in the parent-child relationship

(Steinberg, 1990). Moreover, not only do parents expect to see change in their sons' and daughters' behaviors as they socialize them during adolescence (Freedman-Doan, Arbreton, Harold & Eccles, 1993), but--through their interactions on a day-to-day basis-- parents can model and/or shape the cognitive, emotional and behavioral attributes they desire to see in their offspring (e.g., Eisenberg & McNally, 1993; Larson & Richards, 1994; Simons, Whitbeck, Conger & Conger,1991; Whitbeck, 1987). It is through the relationships that parents and their adolescent children have that the most immediate bases are provided of youth behavior and development.

There are a range of behaviors and associated emotions exchanged between parents and their adolescent offspring: Some of these exchanges involve positive and healthy behaviors and others involve the opposite; some of the outcomes for adolescent development of these exchanges reflect good adjustment and individual and social success, whereas other outcomes reflect poor adjustment and problems of development. As is true for all facets of human development, there is then diversity in the nature and implications of parent-child relations in adolescence.

Parent-adolescent relationships involving supportive behaviors and positive emotions among American youth, warm parental interactions are associated with effective problem solving ability in both the adolescent and the family as a whole; however, hostile interactions are associated with destructive adolescent problem solving behaviors (Ge, Best, Conger & Simons, 1996a; Rueter & Conger, 1995). Similarly, among German adolescents, parental behaviors marked by approval and attention to the positive behavior of the youth is associated with an adolescent who feels he or she is capable of controlling events that can affect him or her (Krampen, 1989); however, when parental behaviors disparage the child and fail to attend to his or her specific behavior, the adolescent feels that chance determines what happens to him or her in life.

As illustrated by the above studies, warmth, nonhostility, and closeness seem to be characteristics of parent-adolescent interaction that are associated with positive outcomes among youth. Other research confirms these linkages. Feelings of closeness in the parent-adolescent relationship is related to parents' views of their parenting as satisfying to them and to the youth's self esteem and to his or her participation in family activities (Paulson, Hill, & Holmbeck, 1991).

In turn, nonhostile parent-adolescent relations are associated with better adjustment by the adolescent to the transition to middle school and greater peer popularity (Bronstein, Fitzgerald, Briones & Pieniadz, 1993); in addition, nonhostility is related to a better self concept for girls and better classroom behavior for boys. Moreover, when parents are attuned to their child's development and support his or her autonomy in decision making, the youth is better adjusted and gains in self esteem across the junior high school transition (Lord, Eccles, & McCarthy, 1994). Furthermore, parental religiosity, cohesive family relationships, and low interpersonal conflict are associated with low levels of problem behaviors and with self-regulation among rural, African American youth (Brody, Stoneman, & Flor, 1996).

The characteristics of parent-child interaction that is associated with positive outcomes for the adolescent are similar in that they reflect support for and acceptance of the developing youth. Indeed, when parent-adolescent relationships provide support for the youth's behaviors, interest, and activities, numerous positive developmental outcomes are likely to occur. For instance, support has been associated with better school grades and scholastic self concept (DuBois, Eitel, & Felner, 1994); with perceiving that social relationships could be more beneficial to one's development than risky (East, 1989); with being more satisfied with one's life (Young, Miller, Norton & Hill, 1995); and with a decreased likelihood of involvement in drinking, delinquency, and other problem behaviors (Barnes & Farrell, 1992).

Certainly, receiving support from one's parents may elicit in the young person feelings of positive regard, or emotions characterized by a sense of attachment. When such emotions occur in adolescence, positive outcomes for the youth are seen. For instance, parent child relations marked by attachment are associated with high self-perceived competence, especially across the transition to junior high school, and with low feelings of depression or anxiety (Papini & Roggman, 1992). In addition, attachment is linked to feeling cohesive with one's family (Papini, Roggman, & Anderson, 1991). Other research has found also relationships among attachment, a positive sense of self, and low levels of problematic behaviors/emotions, such as depression (Kenny, 1993). In sum, then, parent-child relationships marked by behaviors supportive of the youth and by positive feelings connecting the generations are associated with psychologically and

socially healthy developmental outcomes for the adolescent. However, some families do not have parent-child relations marked by support and positive emotions; and no family has such exchanges all the time. Families experience conflict and negative emotions. Such exchanges also influence the adolescent; but, as we might expect, the outcomes for youth of these influences differ from those associated with support and positive emotions. Family conflicts seem inevitable (Fisher & Johnson, 1990). At the least, conflicts are a ubiquitous part of all families at some times in their history. Just as the reasons for conflicts between individuals, on the one hand, or nations, on the others, varies, so too do the reasons for conflicts in families. For example, adolescents report that conflicts often arise because they feel that parents are not providing the emotional support they want, or because youth or parents believe the other generation is not meeting the expectations held for them, or because of a lack of consensus about family or societal values (Fisher & Johnson, 1990).

In turn, in a study of over 1,800 Latino, African American, and European American parents of adolescents, conflicts were said to occur in the main over everyday matters, such as chores and style of dress, rather than in regard to substantive issues, such as sex and drugs (Barber, 1994). [Similar findings were reported in research conducted a generation earlier (Lerner & Knapp, 1975), suggesting that the nature of parents' views of reasons for arguing with their children may not change very much across time. Parents from all racial/ethnic groups reported arguing about the same issues; however, European American parents reported more conflict than parents from the other two groups (Barber, 1994).

Moreover, although other research reports that adolescents and their parents are in conflict about the same sorts of issues--chores, appearance, and politeness--there is a decrease in arguments about these issues as the adolescent develops (Galambos & Almeida, 1992); however, conflict over finances tend to increase at older age levels. In turn, as youth develop they are less likely to concede an argument to parents; as a result conflicts may be left unresolved, especially it seems in families with boys (Smetana, Yau, & Hanson, 1991). The presence of conflicts between youth and parents is, then, a fact of family life during adolescents. Arguments with their youngsters are events with which parents must learn to cope.

Nevertheless, despite its developmental course, the presence of conflict at any point in the parent-adolescent relationship may influence the behavior and development of the youth. For instance, family conflicts may lead the adolescent to think negatively about himself or herself, and can even eventuate in his or her thinking about suicide (Shagle & Barber, 1993). In addition, conflict is associated with "externalizing" problems (e.g., such as hostility) among youth (Mason, Cauce, Gonzales, Hiraga & Grove, 1994). In adolescent girls, the experience of menarche is associated with increased conflict, especially in the mother-daughter relationship, and as a consequence less positive emotions and more negative ones characterize adolescent-parent exchanges (Holmbeck & Hill, 1991; Steinberg, 1987). In short, then, conflicts in the parent-adolescent relationship result in problems in youth development (Rubenstein & Feldman, 1993). A vicious cycle may be created in that, in turn, adolescent problems can increase parent-adolescent conflicts (Maggs & Galambos, 1993).

Moreover, the negative emotions exchanged between adolescents and their parents can themselves result in problems for the youth. For instance, fathers' feelings of stress are associated with adolescents' emotional and behavioral problems (Compas, Howell, Phares & Williams, 1989) and, as well, maternal stress is associated with "internalizing" problems (e.g., anxiety, depression) in adolescent boys and with poor school grades for adolescent girls.

The process through which parents' stress is linked to adolescent problems seems to involve the experience of depression in parents as a consequence of their stress which, in turn, disrupts effective parental discipline, and leads to adolescent problem behaviors (Conger, Patterson, & Ge, 1995). Other research finds that parental depression is associated with depression in youth (Gallimore & Kurdek, 1992), and that ineffective parenting behaviors (e.g., low self-restraint among fathers) eventuates in problem behaviors in their offspring (Baumrind, 1991; D'Angelo, Weinberger, & Feldman, 1995; Feldman & Weinberger, 1994; Simons, 1991).

Moreover, parents of tenth graders with conduct problems are more hostile than parents of tenth graders with depression (Ge, 1996a); in addition, parents of tenth graders who are both depressed and showing problem behaviors have high levels of hostility and low levels of warmth when their children are in Grades 7, 8, and 9. Similarly, depression

among both European American and Asian American adolescents is associated with family relations marked by low warmth and acceptance and high levels of conflict with mothers and fathers (Greenberger & Chan, 1996). In addition, anger, hostility, coercion, and conflict shown by both parents and siblings have a detrimental effect on adolescent adjustment (Pike, McGuire, Hetherington, Reiss & Plomin, 1996).

Clearly, then, parents' negative emotions can lead, through the creation of problematic parenting behaviors, to negative outcomes in adolescent development. Moreover, the presence of problem behaviors in parents per se is linked to problems in adolescent development. For instance, psychiatric disorders among parents are related to the occurrence of antisocial and hostile behaviors among adolescents (Ge, Conger, Cadoret & Neiderhiser, 1996b). In addition, problematic alcohol consumption--problem drinking or alcoholism--in parents is associated with alcohol use and abuse problems their adolescent offspring--a relation that occurs in European American, African American, and Latino families (Barrera, Li, & Chassin, 1995; Hunt, Streissguth, Kerr & Olson, 1995; Peterson, 1994). Similarly, parental drug use results in a host of behavioral, cognitive, and self esteem problems in their offspring (Kandel, Rosenbaum, & Chen, 1994), maternal smoking is associated with smoking in their adolescent children (Kandel & Wu, 1995), and in fact parental substance use in general is linked to numerous problems of adolescent personal and social, including experience with the substances (drugs, alcohol, cigarettes, etc.) used by parents (e.g., Andrews, Hops, Ary & Tildesley, 1993; Stice & Barrera, 1995). Moreover, when fathers have an emotionally distant relationship with their wives, and as a consequence turn to their adolescent daughters for intimacy and affection, the daughters show depression, anxiety, and low self esteem (Jacobvitz & Bush, 1996).

For instance, IQ scores for youth are lower in larger families, wherein mother's educational attainment and the family's social support are low, and where the family is of minority background and poor (Sameroff, Seifer, Baldwin & Baldwin, 1993; Taylor, 1996). In turn, in regard to family stability, there is a considerable body of research that indicates that divorce is associated with social, academic, and personal adjustment problems, including those associated with early initiation of sexual behavior (e.g, Brody & Forehand, 1990; Carson, Madison, & Santrock, 1987; Demo & Acock, 1988; Doherty

& Needle, 1991; Hetherington, 1991; Hetherington, Cox, & Cox, 1985; Simons, 1994; Wallerstein, 1987; Whitbeck, Simons, & Kao, 1994; Zaslow, 1988, 1989). In addition, parent-child relations are less hierarchical and children are pushed to grow up faster in divorced families (Smetana, 1993).

Moreover, the period following separation and divorce is quite stressful for youth (Doherty & Needle, 1991), especially if the adolescent is caught between divorced parents engaged in continuing, conflictual, and hostile interactions (Brody & Forehand, 1990; Buchanan, Maccoby, & Dornbusch, 1991). Furthermore, in some cases there are gender differences in the reaction of adolescents to divorce. For instance, although girls tend to react more negatively than boys prior to the parents' separation, they also tend to adapt better than boys after the divorce (Doherty & Needle, 1991; Hetherington, 1985).

However, in the case of remarriage, there is evidence that although both male and female adolescents may have difficulty interacting with stepfathers, girls may have particular problems (e.g., Lee, Burkam, Zimiles & Ladewski, 1994). Moreover, both male and female adolescents show no improvement in relationships with their step fathers, or in behavior problems (e.g., regarding school grades) associated with the divorce,and this is the case even two years or more after the remarriage (Hetherington, 1991; Lee, 1994).

In turn, living under the custody of one's natural father is linked as well to problems for both male and female adolescents (Lee, 1994). For instance, adolescents living with their fathers adjust more poorly than youth living in other arrangements (e.g., with their mothers), a reaction that seems to be due to the closeness they have with, and the monitoring provided by, the parent with whom they are living (Buchanan, Maccoby, & Dornbusch, 1992). On the other hand, living with a stepfather, as compared to living with a stepmother, is associated with more positive self-esteem among both male and female adolescents (Fine & Kurdek, 1992).

1.4 Rationale of the study

Perceived parental acceptance-rejection by itself is universally a powerful predictor of psychological and behavioral adjustment. Previous researches have shown that parental monitoring is a powerful predictor of child outcomes. Children from families with low levels of monitoring are particularly at risk for antisocial behavior, difficulties in school, and related problems. Parental discipline that emphasizes power, results in children with no conscience. Parenting behavior directed at each child is a correlate of psychopathic symptoms in children. Parental rejection and family discord places children at risk of developing psychopathic behavior. Parent behaviors are usually characterized globally in research on psychosocial outcomes, but mothers and fathers may show disparate patterns of control and influence. Parenting is a key influence on children's development; Perceptions of incongruent parenting patterns are associated with lower self-esteem, school adaptation, and school achievement in offspring than were congruent perceptions. This concern stimulated the conduction of the present study because this knowledge will be helpful to deal with parental especially step mother's behavior effecting adolescent adjustment. This will increase our theoretical knowledge and may help those persons who are concerned with the development of children and adolescent. Moreover, on the basis of finding of this study further research may be designed and conducted which might provide guidelines for healthy child-rearing practices. The present study, therefore, has both theoretical as well as practical implication.

1.5 Objectives of the study

The purpose of the present study is to investigate-

1) Whether there is any difference between stepmothers and biological mothers in childrearing pattern.

2) Whether there is any difference in adolescent adjustment between the adolescents living with stepmothers and the adolescents living with biological mothers.

3) Whether there is any relationship between the childrearing pattern of stepmother and adolescent adjustment.

4) Whether there is any gender difference in childrearing pattern of mothers.

5) Whether there is any gender difference in adolescent adjustment.

CHAPTER-2

METHOD

METHOD

2.1 Participants:

The participants of the present research comprised of 200 adolescents, of them 100 were living with their stepmothers and 100 were living with their biological mothers and 100 were boys and 100 were girls. They were in the age range of 12 to 14 years with median age of 13 years and their educational level was from class seven to ten.

2.1.1 Selection of Participants:

Respondents were selected on the basis of the following criteria-

    (a) Living with stepmother for more than 5 years.

    (b) Living with biological mother.

    (b) Willingness to participate.

    (c) Having no severe physical condition that might interfere with the assessment.

They were selected from different schools of Dhaka City following purposive sampling technique.

2.2 Measuring Instruments:

The following scales were used to measure the dependent variable (adolescent adjustment) and independent variable (stepmother's child rearing pattern) -

(1) Adapted Bangla version (Mili and Afrose-2006) of the Reynolds Adolescent Adjustment Screening Inventory-RAASI (Reynolds, 1998) was used to measure adolescent adjustment.

(2) Adapted Bangla version (Fatema and Afrose-2008) of the Parental Acceptance/ Rejection Questionnaire-Child(PARQ)- Short version by Rohner (2004), was used for measuring stepmother's pattern of child rearing.

Information regarding demographic characteristics (such as age, gender, class, school, residence etc) was obtained through an information blank sheet, which is given in the Appendix-A.

2.2.1 Reynolds Adolescent Adjustment Screening Inventory (RAASI):

Reynolds (2004) developed the Reynolds Adolescent Adjustment Screening Inventory (RAASI). It is a brief screening measure of adolescent psychological adjustment. The RAASI was constructed as a screening measure to evaluate broad yet critical areas of adolescent psychopathology and adjustment difficulties. Most adolescents can complete the RAASI in about five minutes. The 32 RAASI items provide scores on four scales that include both externalizing and internalizing problems and focus on contemporary adjustment issues of adolescents: antisocial behavior, Anger control problems, emotional distress and self-esteem and social inhibition. An adjustment Total score is also provided and represents the sum of all RAASI items scores.

The RAASI items use a 3 point response format with items scored from Never or almost never (1); Sometimes (2); Nearly all the time (3) and require respondents to endorse the response that best describe how they have been feeling in the past 6 months. The response format assesses the frequency of signs and symptoms of adjustment problem. The RAASI includes six reverse-scored items. These reverse scored (reverse-keyed) items are worded in a positive manner so that reversing the score represents greater maladjustment. The use of reverse score items allows for examining aspects of response validity through item endorsement patterns.

The RAASI Adjustment Total score (Adj. T) provides a global assessment of psychological adjustment across the four adjustment problem domains that constitute the RAASI scales. The RAASI Adjustment Total score, as a function of a greater number of items and breadth of content, provides the highest level of reliability and validity as a global measure of psychological adjustment.

Reliability:

The test-retest reliability coefficient of 0.89 for the RAASI adjustment Total score is high. The test-retest reliability coefficient for the sub scales were similar and ranged from 0.85 to 0.86. The test-retest reliability coefficient is computed using the Pearson product moment correlation procedure, the correlation coefficient between time 1 and time 2 is a measure of rank-order stability rather then absolute changes in raw score values. The obtained results are presented in table no-1.

Table-1
Test- Retest Reliability (r) of the RAASI

RAASI Scale	R
Antisocial Behavior (AB)	0.85
Anger Control Problems (AC)	0. 83
Emotional Distress (ED)	0.85
Positive Self (PS)	0.86
Adjustment Total (adj. T)	0.89

N=64, Test- Retest Interval between 14 days.

Validity:

The validity of the RAASI includes content, criterion-related, constructs discriminate and factorial validity. The inter correlation among the four RAASI scales along with the RAASI adjustment Total score correlation are presented bellow for the standardization and clinical samples, respectively. Although substantial validity was consistent with scale content. The correlation coefficients were in the 0.20 to 0.65 range, with median Inter correlation coefficients of .41 for the standardization sample and 0.43 for the clinical sample.

Table- 2
Inter Correlation among RAASI Scale in the Standardization Sample.

RAASI Scale	AB	AC	ED	PS	Adj. T
Antisocial Behavior (AB)		0.61*	0.43*	0.29*	0.58*
Anger Control Problems (AC)			0.57*	0.36*	0.69*
Emotional Distress (ED)				0.38*	0.58*
Positive Self (PS)					0.41*
Adjustment Total (adj. T)					

N=1827, RAASI Scale with Adjustment Total score (Adj. T) correlation are corrected for part whole redundancy.*p <.001.

The obtains results are presented in Table 3

Table- 3

Inter correlation among RAASI Scale in the Clinical Sample.

RAASI Scale	AB	AC	ED	PS	Adj. T
Antisocial Behavior (AB)		0.61*	0.28*	0.20*	0.46*
Anger Control Problems (AC)			0.49*	0.37*	0.67*
Emotional Distress (ED)				0.48*	0.53*
Positive Self (PS)					0.43*
Adjustment Total (adj. T)					

N=506, RAASI Scale with Adjustment Total score (Adj. T) correlation are corrected for part whole redundancy. *p <.01, *p <.001.

2.2.2 Bangla version of the Reynolds Adolescent Adjustment Screening Inventory (RAASI):

The purpose of the present research was to measure the adjustment of adolescents of Bangladesh, but the English version of the Reynolds Adolescent Adjustment Screening Inventory (RAASI) was not suitable for the Bangladeshi adolescent. There fore the Bangla version (Mili and Afrose-2006) of the Reynolds Adolescent Adjustment Screening Inventory (RAASI) was used in the present study. The Bangla version of the Reynolds Adolescent Adjustment Screening Inventory (RAASI) is given in the Appendix-B.

Translation Reliability:

The Pearson-product moment correlation(r) was used to determine the test- retest reliability for each RAASI scale and for the Total Adjustment Scale. The correlation range from 0.89to0.83, which was significant at .01 level. The obtained results are presented in table no- 4.

Table- 4
Test- Retest Reliability (r) of the RAASI

RAASI Scale	R
Antisocial Behavior (AB)	0.89
Anger Control Problems (AC)	0.73
Emotional Distress (ED)	0.82
Positive Self (PS)	0.75
Adjustment Total (adj. T)	0.83

N=30, Test- Retest Interval between 14 days.

Reliability of the Bangla version:

The Pearson-product moment correlation(r) was used and the correlation ranged from 0.93 to0.82, which was significant at .01 level. The obtained results are presented in table no-5.

Table- 5

Test- Retest Reliability (r) of the RAASI

RAASI Scale	R
Antisocial Behavior (AB)	0.933
Anger Control Problems (AC)	0.837
Emotional Distress (ED)	0.866
Positive Self (PS)	0.885
Adjustment Total (adj. T)	0.823

N=30, Test- Retest Interval between 14 days.

Scoring:

The RAASI contains 30 items. The RAASI items use a 3 point response format with items scored from Never or almost never (1); Sometimes (2); Nearly all the time (3) and require respondents to endorse the response that best describe how they have been feeling in the past 6 months. The response format assesses the frequency of signs and symptoms of adjustment problem. The RAASI includes six reverse-scored items. The reverses scored items are calculated with the appropriate converted score. The scores in each scale column were added (AB, AC, ED, and PS) and the total was entered in the space provided at the bottom of each column. Each scale raw scores were summed to obtain the Adjustment Total (Adj.-T) score. Then each scale and total adjustment raw score were transferred into the T score. The higher score indicates higher level of adjustment problem.

2.2.3 The Parental Acceptance/ Rejection Questionnaire-Child (PARQ)

The Parental Acceptance/ Rejection Questionnaire-Child (PARQ) is a self-report instrument designed to measure individuals' perceptions of parental acceptance-rejection. Parental acceptance-rejection is a bipolar dimension, with acceptance defining one end of the continuum and parental rejection defining the other.

Three versions of the PARQ have been developed: The Adult PARQ, assesses adults' perception of their mother's or father's treatment of them when they were about seven

through twelve years old; the Parent PARQ asks parents to assess the way they now treat their children; and the Child PARQ asks youth to respond about the way they feel their parents now treat them.

All version of the PARQ consist of four scales: (1) warmth/affection, (2) hostility/aggression, (3) indifference/ neglect, and (4) undifferentiated rejection. The PARQ is available in two forms. The long form contains 60 items; the short form contains 24 items.

Depending on which version is administered, adults are told to either reflect on the way they now treat their children (parent version) or reflect on the way their mother or father treated them when the respondents were about 7 through 12 years old (adult version). The child version is administered to youths for as long as they continue to be under the care and supervision of their parents.

The PARQ should be administered only when it seems likely that the respondent will be able to complete it in a single sitting, without distraction. The child version of the standard PARQ typically takes 15 to 20 minutes to complete. Occasionally, it can take longer. The adult and parent versions usually require 10 to 15 minutes to complete. The short form of the PARQ takes about half-as much time.

Reliability:

The PARQ reliability coefficients ranged in the 1975 validation study from 0.86 to 0.95, with a median reliability of 0.91. A second study in 1975 revealed a spread of alphas from 0.83 to 0.96, with a median coefficient of 0.91. In a pilot study in 1976, the reliability of the scales ranged from 0.71 to 0.96, with a median reliability of 0.84. Finally, alphas on the Child PARQ in 1975 spread from 0.72 to 0.90, with a median reliability of 0.82.

The obtained results are presented in table no- 6.

Table- 6
Internal Consistency- Reliability Coefficients (Alpha) for the PARQ Scales.

Test & Scale	Adult	Child
PARQ		
Warmth/Affection	0.95*	0.90*
Hostility/Aggression	0.93*	0.87*
Indifference/neglect	0.88*	0.77*
Undifferentiated Rejection	0.86*	0.72*

*p < .001

Validity:

Two forms of evidence were used to assess the validity of the Child and Adult PARQ. These were measures of convergent validity and discriminant validity.

A measure of the convergent validity of each PARQ scale is presented in the following table 7.

Table-7
Convergent Validity Correlations for PARQ scales.

PARQ Scales	PARQ Version	r
Warmth/Affection	Adult	0.90*
	Child	0.83*
Hostility/Aggression	Adult	0.43*
	Child	0.55*

*p < .001

2.2.4 Bangla version of The Parental Acceptance/ Rejection Questionnaire-Child (PARQ)-

The purpose of the present research was to measure step mother's behavioral effect on adolescent of Bangladesh, but the English version of the Parental Acceptance/ Rejection Questionnaire-Child (PARQ) was non suitable for the Bangladeshi adolescent. There fore, the Bangla version (Kaniz and Afrose-2008) of the Parental Acceptance/ Rejection Questionnaire-Child (PARQ) was used in the present study. The Bangla version of the Parental Acceptance/ Rejection Questionnaire-Child (PARQ) is given in the Appendix-C.

Translation Reliability:

The Pearson-product moment correlation(r) was used to determine the test-retest reliability for each PARQ scale and for the Total PARQ scale. The correlation ranged from 0.93 to 0.82, which was significant at .01 level. The obtained results are presented in table no- 8.

Table- 8
Test- Retest reliability (r) of the PARQ

PARQ Scale	R
Warmth/Affection	0.93
Hostility/Aggression	0.83
Indifference/neglect	0.86
Undifferentiated Rejection	0.88
Total PARQ	0.82

N=30, Test- Retest Interval between 14 days.

Reliability of the Bangla version:

The Pearson-product moment correlation(r) was used and the correlation ranged from 0.90 to 0.88, which was significant at .01 level. The obtained results are presented in table no-9.

Table- 9
Test- Retest Reliability (r) of the PARQ

PARQ Scale	R
Warmth/Affection	0.90
Hostility/Aggression	0.7 3
Indifference/neglect	0.76
Undifferentiated Rejection	0.88
Total PARQ	0.88

N=30, Test- Retest Interval between 14 days.

Scoring:

Step 1- Numerical Scoring- Recording the numerical score for each response as (1)Almost never true; (2) Rarely true; (3) Sometimes true; (4) Almost always true.

Step 2- Reverse scoring- Item no 13 was scored as reverse scoring

Step 3- making a sum of each column, and recording the number at the foot of each column.

Step 4- subtracting the sum of the Warmth/Affection score from 40 (for short form).

Step 5- the total scores on the sort forms must fall between 24 & 96.

2.3 Procedure:

For collecting data, the Headmasters/ Headmistresses of the selected schools were approached. They were also given an official letter from the supervisor of the researcher in order to explain the purpose of the research and the importance of its findings. The heads of the institutions were assured of the confidentiality of the data collected by the researcher. The respective class teachers of the classes VII to X were instructed by the heads of institutions to ensure cooperation of their students. Children who have stepmothers and children living with their biological mother were identified with the help of their class teachers and classmates. In the classroom situation the scales were administered on the students following standard procedure.

For the purpose of receiving cooperation of the students rapport was established first and then they were briefed about the purpose of the study. They were also repeatedly assured of the confidentiality of their answers. The respondents were instructed to read the items of the scales attentively and express their opinions by giving tick marks in corresponding boxes. They were also requested not to omit any item in the scales and they were encouraged to answer all the items by telling that there is no right or wrong answer to any items. When the questionnaires were administered, the respondents were not allowed to discuss with each other about the items. They were required to fill-up the personal information sheet (age, sex, class, birth-order, sibling, social-class, name of school, residence etc.) before they proceeded to work with the questionnaires.

The average time for completing the whole set of questionnaires was 30 minutes. On completing the questionnaires, the respondents of the study were given thanks for their sincere co-operation and the answer scripts along with the questionnaires were collected from them. And the Head of the school was given also thanks for their helpful attitude and co-operation.

CHAPTER-3

RESULT

RESULT

The objectives of the present study were to investigate, whether there is any difference between stepmothers and biological mothers in childrearing pattern and between the adolescents living with stepmothers and with biological mothers in adjustment. The study also investigated the relationship between the childrearing pattern of stepmother and the adjustment of the adolescent. Lastly, staying with them an attempt was made to investigate gender difference in childrearing pattern of mothers and in adolescent adjustment. 200 adolescents (100 boys and100 girls) were selected as sample of the study. The scales used for the present study were adapted Bangla version(Mili and Afrose-2006) of the Reynolds Adolescent Adjustment Screening Inventory-RAASI (Reynolds, 1998) and adapted Bangla version (Kaniz and Afrose-2008) of the Parental Acceptance/ Rejection Questionnaire-Child(PARQ)- of the short version by Rohner, (2004). The data were analyzed employing Pearson Product Moment correlation and Independent Sample t-test. The obtained results are presented in the following order.

3.1 Correlation of Coefficients

The correlation coefficients were used to find the relationship between child rearing pattern of stepmother and adolescent's anti social behavior, anger control problems, emotional distress, positive self and adjustment total and the results are presented in tables 10 to 14.

3.2 t-tests

Mean, standard deviation and t-values were used to find difference between stepmothers and biological mothers in childrearing pattern (table 15), between the adolescents living with stepmothers and with biological mothers in adjustment (table 16), for gender difference in total child rearing pattern of mothers of boys and girls (table 17) and for gender difference in total adjustment of boys and girls (table 18).

3.1 Correlation of Coefficients

Table-10

Correlation of Stepmother's Warmth Behavior with Adolescent Adjustment.

Subscales of Adolescent Adjustment	Stepmother's Warmth behavior
Anti-social behavior	-.79*
Anger control problems	-.85*
Emotional distress	-.77*
Positive self	.79*
Adjustment total	.88*

N=100   *P<.01

Table -10 shows significant negative correlations between the warmth behavior of stepmother and adolescent anti social behavior (-.79), anger control problems (-.85) and emotional distress (-.77). It also shows significant positive correlations between the warmth behavior of stepmother and adolescent positive self (.79) and adjustment total (.88). All of the correlations are significant at .o1 level.

Table-11
Correlation of Stepmother's Hostility with Adolescent Adjustment.

Subscales of Adolescent Adjustment	Stepmother's hostility
Anti social behavior	.69*
Anger control problems	.85*
Emotional distress	.87*
Positive self	-.75*
Adjustment total	-.85*

N=100   *P<.01

Table –11 reveals significant positive correlation between the hostility of stepmother and adolescent anti social behavior (.69), anger control problems (.85) and emotional distress (.87). It also shows significant negative correlation between the hostility of stepmother and adolescent positive self (-.75) and adjustment total (-.85). All of the correlations are significant at .o1 level.

Table-12

Correlation of Stepmother's Neglect Behavior with Adolescent Adjustment.

Subscales of Adolescent Adjustment	Stepmother's neglect behavior
Anti social behavior	.89*
Anger control problems	.65*
Emotional distress	.84*
Positive self	-.85*
Adjustment total	-.75*

N=100   *P<.01

From table -12 it is evident that there is significant positive correlations between stepmother's neglect behavior and adolescent anti social behavior (.89), anger control problems (.65), and emotional distress (.84). It also shows significant negative correlations between stepmother's neglect behavior and adolescent positive self (-.85) and adjustment total (-.75). All of the correlations are significant at .o1 level.

Table-13

Correlation of Stepmother's Undifferentiated Rejection with Adolescent Adjustment.

Subscales of Adolescent Adjustment	Stepmother's undifferentiated rejection
Anti social behavior	.75*
Anger control problems	.85*
Emotional distress	.80*
Positive self	-.75*
Adjustment total	-.65*

N=100   *P<.01

Table -13 indicates that there is significant positive correlations between stepmother's undifferentiated rejection and adolescent anti social behavior (.75), anger control problems (.85) and emotional distress (.80). It also shows that there is significant negative correlation between stepmother's undifferentiated rejection and adolescent positive self (-.75) and adjustment total (-.65). All of the correlations are significant at .o1 level.

Table-14:

Correlation of Total Child Rearing Pattern of Stepmother with Adolescent Adjustment.

Subscales of Adolescent Adjustment	Total child rearing pattern of stepmother
Anti social behavior	.75*
Anger control problems	.85*
Emotional distress	.80*
Positive self	-.75*
Adjustment total	-.65*

N=100   *P<.01

Table -14 shows significant positive correlation between total child rearing pattern of stepmother and adolescent anti social behavior (.75), anger control problems (.85) and emotional distress (.80). It also shows significant negative correlation between total child rearing pattern of stepmother and adolescent positive self (-.75) and adjustment total (-.65). All of the correlations are significant at .o1 level.

3.2 t-tests

Table-15

Mean, Standard Deviations and t-value for Childrearing Pattern Scores of Biological Mothers and Stepmothers.

Groups	N	M	SD	t
Biological Mothers	100	86.52	30.03	
				1.97*
Step Mothers	100	84.02	28.06	

*p<.05, df = 198

Table-15 reveals that biological mothers significantly differ from stepmothers in childrearing pattern (t =1.97, df =198, p<.05). It is also evident from the results that the mean child rearing pattern score of biological mothers ($\overline{X}$=86.52) is higher than that of the step mothers ($\overline{X}$=84.02). The graphical presentation of the mean difference in childrearing pattern scores of biological mothers and step mothers is presented in figure1.
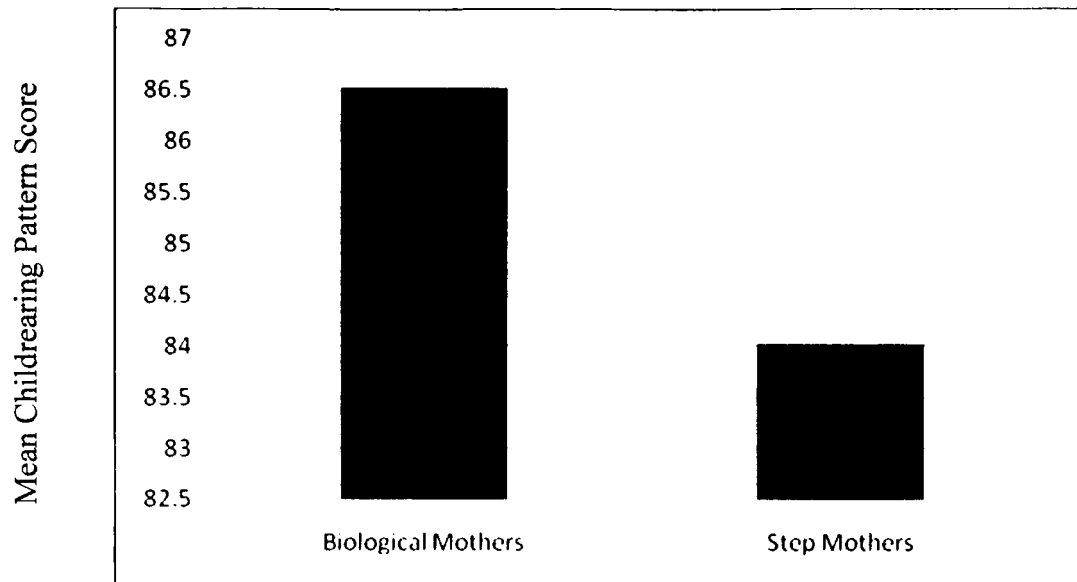
Figure 1: *Mean Difference in Childrearing Pattern Scores of Biological Mothers and Step Mothers.*

Table-16

Mean, Standard Deviations and t-value for Adolescent Adjustment Scores of Adolescents Living with Stepmothers and with Biological Mothers.

Groups	N	M	SD	t
Adolescents Living with Biological mothers	100	77.52	20.04	
				1.98*
Adolescents Living with Stepmothers	100	75.02	18.07	

*p<.05, df = 198

Table-16 shows that the adolescents living with biological mothers significantly differ from the adolescents living with step mothers in adjustment (t =1.98, df=198, p<.05). It is also evident from the results that the mean adolescent adjustment score of the adolescents living with biological mother($\overline{X}$=86.52) is higher than that of the adolescents living with step mothers ($\overline{X}$=84.02). The graphical presentation of the mean difference in adjustment scores of the adolescents living with biological mother and with step mothers is presented in figure 2.
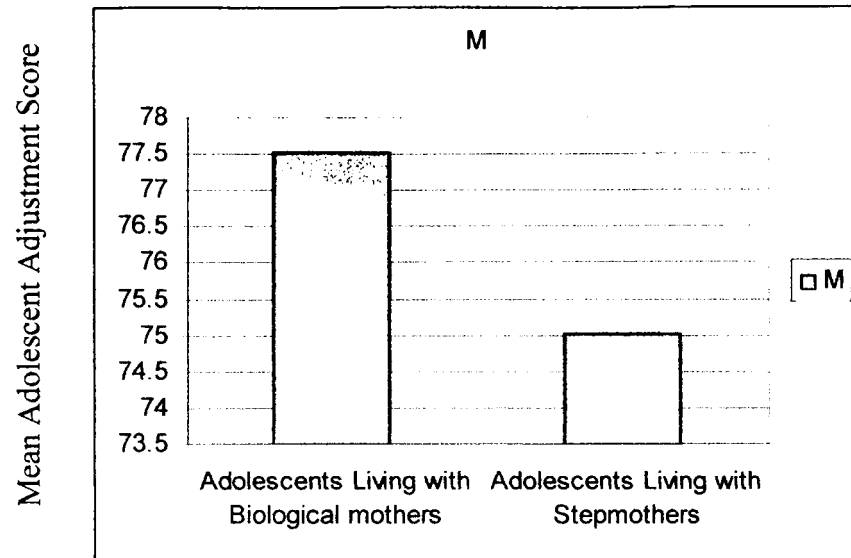
Figure 2: *Mean Difference in Adolescent Adjustment Score of the Adolescents Living with Biological Mother and with Step Mothers.*

Table-17

Mean, Standard Deviations and t-value for Total Child Rearing Pattern Scores of Mothers of Boys and Girls.

Groups	N	M	SD	t	Significance level
Boys	100	46.53	11.04		
				.325	NS
Girls	100	46.03	11.02		

Table-17 shows that there is no significant difference between mothers of boys and girls in the total child rearing pattern.

Table-18

Mean, Standard Deviations and t-value for Total Adjustment of Boys and Girls.

Groups	N	M	SD	t	Significance level
Boys	100	56.96	11.04		NS
				.231	
Girls	100	56.75	11.10		

Table-18 shows that there is no significant difference between boys and girls in total adjustment.

CHAPTER-4

DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION

Present study findings propagated for the relationship of child rearing pattern of step mother and adolescent adjustment. The objectives of the present study were to investigate, the child rearing pattern of stepmothers and biological mothers in and the adjustment of the adolescents living with stepmothers and with biological mothers. The study also investigated the relationship between childrearing pattern of stepmother and adolescent adjustment. Lastly, an attempt was made to find out whether mothers are different in childrearing pattern for boys and girls and whether there is gender diference in adolescent adjustment. The data were analyzed employing Pearson Product Moment correlation and Independent Sample t-test. The Correlation Coefficients have showed significant relation ship between the child rearing pattern of step mother and adolescent adjustment. The Independent Sample t-tests have showed significant difference in childrearing pattern of biological mothers and stepmothers and in adolescent adjustment between the adolescents living with stepmothers and with biological mothers. It was also found from the Independent Sample t-tests there is no significant gender difference in childrearing pattern of mothers and in adolescent adjustment.

For the sake of convenience of discussion of the findings are organized in the following sections:

4.1 Relationship of Child Rearing Pattern of Stepmother with Adolescent Adjustment.

In the present study significant negative correlation between stepmother's warmth behavior and adolescent anti-social behavior, adolescent anger control problems and emotional distress and significant positive correlation between stepmother's warmth behavior and adolescent positive self and adjustment total were found. Further significant positive correlation between stepmother's hostility and adolescent anti-social behavior, anger control problems and emotional distress and significant negative correlation between stepmother's hostility and adolescent positive self and adjustment total were found. Significant positive correlation between stepmother's neglect behavior and adolescent anti-social behavior, anger control problems and emotional distress and significant negative correlation between stepmother's neglect behavior and adolescent positive self and adjustment total were found. Further more significant positive

correlation between stepmother's undifferentiated rejection and adolescent anti-social behavior, adolescent anger control problems and emotional distress and significant negative correlation between stepmother's undifferentiated rejection and adolescent positive self and adjustment total were found. Lastly significant positive correlation between total child rearing pattern of stepmother and adolescent anti-social behavior, adolescent anger control problems, emotional distress and significant negative correlation between total child rearing pattern of stepmother and adolescent positive self and adjustment total were found.

It was found that adolescents whose stepmothers are more involved in their life were found to be more intentionally oriented and had higher level of self concept compared to those adolescents whose stepmothers were less involved. Similarly, significant negative correlation between stepmothers involvement and conduct behavior problem score indicates that more positively involved stepmothers also had adolescents who had less conduct behavior problem and vice versa. The findings are substantiated by many of the previous research which show that mothers whose attitude and behavior are more child-centered, who take time to interact with their children, are more responsive to child's need, accepting of their children, and nurturing. One well recognized facet of warmth, responsiveness to a child's need relates to the formation of secure attachment. Zah Waxler , Radke-Yarrow and King (1979) in their study found that children are more responsive to the need of other people when their mothers are more responsive to their needs . School age children with warmer parents are higher in self-esteem (Coppersmith, 1967) and better behaved at school (Bradely, 1989). Ainsworth and Bowlby (1991) in their contemporary attachment theory proposed that human infants become attached to the one or few persons with whom they interact most frequently. Infants with secure attachments show a highly balance between staying close to their mother and exploring their environment. Infants of responsive and supportive mothers view themselves as worthy of support (Bretherton, 1985). Secure attachments are the foundation for healthy development (Sroufe, 1979). Mothers involvement is also linked with the positive aspect of control, the consistent enforcement of rules maintained by frequent monitoring of a child's behavior. Uninvolved mothers cannot do this monitoring and the children are the sufferer (Conger, Conger, 1993; Franz, 1991). Mothers who spend little time with their

children, who place their desire ahead of their children's need, often have children who are impulsive and aggressive. Gerald Patterson (1982) suggested that uninvolved mothers seem unattached to their children because they are mothers because do not want to be mothers. Becoming a mother changes a person's life brings many new responsibilities to mother's lives. Becoming a mother is one of the important decisions that people ever make. Yet some people do not give the matter serious thought until the baby arrives. Mothers who are not personally ready for parenthood often face the challenges of parenting with frustrations and fears they may be torn in two directions by the demands of their children. These conflicts are reflected in their lack of confidence, wariness, intolerance and inconsistency in behavior while caring the child. The study of Begum (1995) on parental deprivation and parental availability among problem and non-problem children also implies the importance of parental involvement in the psychosocial development of the children of Bangladesh.

4.2 Child Rearing Pattern of Biological Mothers and Step Mothers.

The obtained t-test for the significant difference childrearing pattern of biological mothers and step mothers indicates that the biological mothers and stepmothers varies in chilrearing pattern (Sroufe, 1996). Evidence indicates that early, extensive, and continuous nonmaternal care is associated with less harmonious parent-child relations and elevated levels of aggression and noncompliance suggests that concerns raised about early and extensive child care 15 years ago remain valid. No longer is it tenable for developmental scholars and child-care advocates to deride the notion that early and extensive non-maternal care of the kind available in most communities poses risks for young children and perhaps the larger society as well. Importantly, even some one-time critics of this proposition have come to acknowledge that there is something about lots of time in non-maternal care beginning in the first year of life that poses risks for children that may not be entirely attributable to the quality of care they receive (Belsky, 2001).The most important relationship in a child's life is the attachment to his or her primary caregiver, optimally, the mother. This is due to the fact that this first relationship determines the biological and emotional 'template' for all future relationships. Healthy attachment to the mother built by repetitive bonding experiences during infancy provides

the solid foundation for future healthy relationships. In contrast, problems with bonding and attachment can lead to a fragile biological and emotional foundation for future relationships (Bruce, 1999). The one most significant factor that neutralizes the advantages of remarrying is the psychological dilemma the child goes through over whom to love. The child seems to be polarized, for example, between loving the woman (the mother) who is now, as it usually happens, hated by the father, and the new woman (the stepmother) whom the father deeply loves. Rutter (2002) describes this conflict as "divided loyalty". She further explains that the child feels torn because their parents are pulling them in opposite directions. The symptoms of this divided loyalty are that they brew up bad behavior or depression, a forced psychological path to resolve the conflict between the parents, Rutter (2002). On the other hand children whose parents remain single do not experience this because no new figure (stepparent) is introduced to trigger that psychological trauma (Rutter 2002).It has been consistently found that stepfamilies are not as close as nuclear families (Kennedy, 1985; Pill, 1990) and that stepparent-stepchild relationships are not as emotionally close as parent-child relationships (Ganong & Coleman, 1986; Hetherington & Chlingempeel, 1992, Hobart, 1989) Many clinicians and researchers assume that stepfamilies tend to become closer over time. However, previous longitudinal studies conducted on stepfamilies have found little empirical support for this (Hetherington & Clingempeel, 1992; Kurdek, 1991). Children raised in families with stepmothers are likely to have less health care, less education and less money spent on their food than children raised by their biological mothers, three studies by a Princeton economist have found. The studies examined the care and resources that parents said they gave to children and did not assess the quality of the relationships or the parents' feelings and motives. But experts said that while the findings did not establish the image of the wicked stepmother as true, they supported the conclusion that, for complex reasons, stepmothers do invest less in children than biological mothers do, with fathers, to a large extent, leaving to women the responsibility for the family's welfare (Petter, 2000).Stepmothers are also found to have more problematic relationship with stepchildren; while children, particularly girls, also experience higher stress when they are living with their stepmothers. (Jacobson, 1987 in Visher & Visher, 1993). Visher & Visher (1979) suggested that teenage daughters identify strongly with their mothers and

resent any woman who replaces their mother for the father's affection. Teenage daughters also exhibit much competitiveness with their stepmothers for their father's affection. These findings suggested that there are strong situational dynamics at work that create special relationship problems for stepmother families. Difficulty between the children's mother and stepmother has also been mentioned as a possible contribution to the greater stress in stepmother families. (Visher & Visher 1988).Research suggests that being a stepparent is more difficult than raising one's own biological children, especially for stepmothers, and that stepmothers may compete with the child for the father's time and attention (Pasley,2004).

4.3 Adjustment of the Adolescents Living with Biological Mothers and with Step Mothers.

Adolescents living with biological mother were found to be better adjusted than the adolescents living with step mothers. Children experiencing multiple transitions, experiencing them later in childhood, and those living in stepfamilies fared poorly in comparison with those living their entire childhood in stable single-parent families or moving into two-parent families with biological or adoptive parents. Other studies show benefits of stable single-parent living arrangements for children's socioemotional adjustment and global wellbeing (Acock & Demo, 1994), and deleterious effects of multiple transitions (Capaldi & Patterson, 1991; Kurdek, Fine, & Sinclair, 1995), supporting a life-stress perspective. Adolescents in single-father families report the highest level of delinquency, followed by those in father-stepmother and single-mother families. The gender of the single parent is significant; adolescents from single-father families are more delinquent than are those from single-mother families. Single-father families are characterized by somewhat lower levels of direct and indirect parental controls than are single-mother families (Brown, 2004).Children's residing in single mother households was associated with a double risk of incarceration, but youths from stepparent families are even more vulnerable to the risk of incarceration, especially those in father-stepmother households, which suggests that the re-marriage may present even greater difficulties for male children than father absence (Cynthia, 2007). Stepmothers have the most difficulty building a relationship with stepdaughters. There is generally

less affection, less respect, and less acceptance in this relationship than in other stepfamily relationships. The daughter may resent the stepmother's closeness with her father. Attempts by the stepmother to fulfill her role in the stepfamily may be perceived by the stepdaughter as efforts to replace her mother (Young,1995).

Gender may be irrelevant, but motherhood isn't, children residing without biological mothers fare worse than those without biological fathers, across most outcomes. In addition, only longitudinal measures of mother absence directly influence school outcomes. The time lived away from the biological mother is related to adolescents' grades and school discipline, while the number of mother changes significantly reduces adolescents' college expectations (Young,1977).

4.4 Gender of Adolescents and Child Rearing Pattern of Mothers.

The findings of this study show that mothers of boys and girls do not differ in childrearing which reflects that it does not varies with gender. This reflects that the meaning or impact of mother - child interaction does not varies with gender (Sroufe, 1996). Conversely like temperament of child (Macoby1984), the gender and age variability in locus of control (Travers, 1982; Haye2003) Self-concept (Cobb, 2001) may exert influence on the degree of parental involvement.

4.5 Gender difference and Adolescent Adjustment.

The results indicate no gender difference in adjustment of the adolescents.This finding is supported by previous findings of Dunn(1994); Larson and Verma(1999).

Limitations:

Although the present study tried to maintain a sound methodology and analysis of data, nevertheless it is not free from certain draw backs and limitations. Following are said to be the major limitations of the study:

1) Some of the questionnaires were not filled up directly in a face to face manner.

2) The sample was not representitive.

3) The study could not control some of the extraneous variables like socio-economic condition, parental education and other that could have affected the result of study.

4) The non significant findings of the present research could not be justified properly by the findings of the other research.

There fore it is suggested that further research can carried on replicating the present research.

Besides its limitations, it can be said that the study is an eye opener to the fathers of adolescent living with stepmothers, especially concerned with the healthy and sound development of their children.

Conclusion:

In conclusion, it may be said that the findings of the present study focuses on the importance of good mothering on the psychosocial development of the adolescents that sound motherhood style is highly positively correlated with adolescent adjustment. Nevertheless, keeping an open mind towards the arguments on parenting style, it could be stated that readiness for parenthood is crucial to the child's development as well as parent's wellbeing. Maintaining a balance between the need of the child and the parent's own is a skill that can be learned and practiced. Providing help and assistance in this respect will be undoubtedly beneficial for the total development of the children as well as the later development of the adolescent. Parenting factors also may affect children's adjustment to stepfamilies. Children are more likely to have problems adjusting to stepfamilies. Because parents tend to have closer relationships with their biological children. Stepchildren perceive the closer relationships between stepparents and their biological children as differential or nonequal treatment and resent their stepsiblings.

Adolescents in stepfamilies are still more likely than adolescents in intact families to experience mother-adolescent disagreements and low levels of supervision. Stepfathers typically initially assume a polite, nondisciplinarian role in stepfamilies partly because stepchildren (especially stepdaughters) tend to reject stepfathers' attempts at discipline. Eventually, stepfathers and stepdaughters may become involved in conflict focused on the stepfathers' authority. Consequently, stepfathers often become less supportive, less positive, and less involved in discipline than fathers in intact families. Stepfathers' disengagement from parenting is associated with poor child and adolescent adjustment. The most positive outcomes occur with younger children (especially boys) when the stepfather initially forms a warm relationship with the child and supports the mother's discipline, and later begins to provide authoritative discipline (warmth with moderate control). Early adolescents adjust best when stepfathers begin immediately to establish a warm, supportive relationship with moderate amounts of control.

In contrast, stepmothers often immediately become more involved in discipline. If the biological father supports the stepmother's discipline attempts, children generally receive more effective parenting from both parents. Stepmothers perceive parenting as more challenging than mothers in intact families, although research suggests that stepmothers are actually less negative and coercive in their interactions with their stepchildren than mothers in intact families. Stepmothers who provide authoritative parenting, providing warmth and moderate control, have stepchildren who are better adjusted than the step-children of stepmothers who provide authoritarian or neglectful parenting.

It may be said that stepmother's child rearing pattern and adolescent adjustment is too vast a problem to be dealt with in such a short research. However, it throws light into the area, which needs further studies and exploration.

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APPENDICES

Appendix-A

ব্যক্তিগত তথ্যাবলী

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১.   নাম (ঐচ্ছিক)

২.   বয়স

৩.   লিঙ্গ. ক) ছেলে   খ) মেয়ে

৪.   জন্মক্রম

৫.   ভাইবোন

৬.   সৎভাইবোনের সংখ্যা

৭.   সৎমায়ের সাথে অবস্থানকাল

৮.   প্রকৃত মাতা জীবিত কিনা

৯.   শ্রেনী

১০.   স্কুল বা প্রতিষ্ঠানের নাম

১১.   আর্থ-সামাজিক অবস্থা ঃ ক) উচ্চবিত্ত   খ) মধ্যবিত্ত   গ) নিম্নবিত্ত

১২.   বসবাসের স্থান

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Appendix-B

প্রশ্নমালা নং-১

নির্দেশনা

এই প্রশ্নমালাটি বিভিন্ন ধরণের সমস্যা বের করতে তৈরী করা হয়েছে যা মানুষের মাঝে মাঝে বা প্রায় সবসময় হয়। এই নির্দেশিকার বিবৃতিগুলো মানুষ নিজের সম্বন্ধে, অন্যদের সম্বন্ধে এবং তার চারপাশের বিশ্ব সম্পর্কে কি অনুভব করে তা বর্ণনা করে। এই বিবৃতিগুলো গত ৬ মাসে তুমি কেমন অনুভব করেছিলে তা জিজ্ঞেস করে। যখন বিবৃতিগুলোর উত্তর দিবে, দয়া করে গত ৬ মাসের কথা মনে রাখবে। প্রতিটি বিবৃতিতে, যেটা তোমার উত্তর নির্দেশ করে সেটাতে গোল করবে। যেমন-যদি তুমি টিভি দেখা উপভোগ করেছ গত ৬ মাসে প্রায় সব সময় তাহলে তুমি নিম্নের পদ্ধতিতে উত্তরকে (O) গোল করবে।

উদাহরন স্বরপ -

"গত ৬ মাসে   কখনোই না, মাঝে মাঝে, প্রায় সবসময়।

আমি টিভি দেখা অনুভব করেছি   ১   ২   ৩

এই প্রশ্নমালায় কোন শুদ্ধ বা ভুল উত্তর নেই। শুধুমাত্র কি অনুভব করেছো তার উত্তর দিতে হবে। প্রতিটা বিবৃতির উত্তর সৎভাবে দিবে। যদি তুমি কোন বিবৃতি সম্পর্কে নিশ্চিত না হও তাহলে তুমি কি অনুভব করছো যা তোমাকে ভালভাবে বর্ণনা করে তা তুমি নির্বাচন করবে। দয়া করে সর্তকভাবে প্রশ্নের উত্তর দিবে। কোন প্রশ্ন বাদ দিবে না।

যদি তোমার কোন উত্তর পরিবর্তনের প্রয়োজন হয় মুছবে না। ভুল উত্তরে x দিবে শুদ্ধ উত্তরে গোল (O) করবে।

"গত ৬ মাসে"   কখনোই না, মাঝে মাঝে, প্রায় সবসময়।

আমি টিভি দেখা অনুভব করেছি।   ১   ২   ৩

গত ৬ মাসে

		কখনোই না	মাঝে মাঝে	প্রায় সবসময়
১	আমার মনে হয় আমার জীবনে সব কিছু ঠিক ছিল।	১	২	৩
২	আমি আমার শিক্ষক অথবা বাবা মার সাথে যুক্তিতর্ক করেছি।	১	২	৩
৩	আমি নেশার দ্রব্য ব্যবহার করেছি বা মদ সেবন করেছি।	১	২	৩
8	আমি আমার বন্ধুদের বা পরিবারের সাথে একত্রিত হতে আনন্দ পাই।	১	২	৩
৫	আমি আমার মেজাজ ঠিক রাখতে পারিনি।	১	২	৩
৬	আমি নিজের সম্বন্ধে ভাল অনুভব করেছি।	১	২	৩
৭	আমি বড়দের সাথে যুক্তি তর্ক করেছি।	১	২	৩
৮	বড়রা আমাকে যা করতে বলেছে আমি তাই করেছি।	১	২	৩
৯	আমি এমন কাজ করেছি যা মানুষকে বিরক্ত করেছে।	১	২	৩
১০	কেই আমাকে কিছু করতে বললে আমি তার বিপরীত করেছি।	১	২	৩
১১	আমি খুব রাগান্বিত বোধ করছি।	১	২	৩
১২	আমার অন্যদের উপর প্রতিশোধ নিতে ইচ্ছে করত।	১	২	৩
১৩	আমি স্কুল অথবা বাড়িতে নিয়ম ভেঙ্গেছি।	১	২	৩
১৪	রাতে যে সময়ের মধ্যে আমার ঘরে ফেরার কথা তার পরেও বাইরে থেকেছি।	১	২	৩
১৫	আমি এতই ক্ষিপ্ত হয়েছিলাম যে বাড়িতে অথবা স্কুলে জিনিসপত্র ছুড়ে ফেলেছি।	১	২	৩
১৬	আমি নতুন নতুন মানুষের সাথে মিশতে স্বাচ্ছন্দবোধ করেছি।	১	২	৩
১৭	আমি আইন বিরোধী কাজ করেছি	১	২	৩
১৮	আমি খুব নিংসঙ্গ ছিলাম	১	২	৩
১৯	আমি বন্ধুদের সাথে মজা করেছি।	১	২	৩
২০	আমি খুব মানষিক চাপ অনুভব করেছি।	১	২	৩
২১	আমি স্কুলে অথবা কাজে ঝামেলায় পড়েছি।	১	২	৩
২২	আমি বিচলিত অনুভব করেছি।	১	২	৩
২৩	আমি বিষন্নতা অথবা দুঃখিত অনুভব করেছি।	১	২	৩
২৪	আমি কোথায় ছিলাম তা বাবা মাকে না বলে বাড়ির বাইরে থেকেছি।	১	২	৩
২৫	আমি পড়াশুনা করিনি ও বাড়ির কাজ জমা দেইনি।	১	২	৩
২৬	আমি অনেকগুলো বিষয়ে দুশ্চিন্তা করেছি।	১	২	৩
২৭	আমি ভবিষ্যৎ নিয়ে অনেক দুশ্চিন্তা করেছি।	১	২	৩
২৮	আমার ঘুমাতে সমস্যা হতো।	১	২	৩
২৯	আমি বিচলিত বোধ করছি।	১	২	৩
৩০	আমার মনোনিবেশ করতে সমস্যা হতো।	১	২	৩
৩১	কোন কারণ ছাড়াই আমার কাঁদতে ইচ্ছা করেছে।	১	২	৩
৩২	আমি এমন কিছু করেছি যা আমি জানতাম যে খারাপ।	১	২	৩

Appendix-C

প্রশ্নমালা নং-২

নির্দেশনা

এই বিবৃতিগুলো বাবা এবং মারা মাঝে মধ্যে তাদের সন্তানদের সাথে কি ধরনের ব্যবহার করে তা ব্যাখ্যা করে। আমি চাই তোমার মা তোমার সাথে কি ধরনের ব্যবহার করে তা এই বিবৃতিগুলো হতে চিন্তা করে বল। প্রতিটি ব্যক্যের পর চারটি ছক আঁকা আছে তোমার বাবা/মা তোমার সাথে যেমন ব্যবহার করে সে প্রেক্ষিতে যদি উক্তিগুলো সত্য হয় তবে তুমি নিজেকে প্রশ্ন কর, "উক্তিটি কি সর্বদা পুরোপুরি সত্য" অথবা "উক্তিটি কি শুধুমাত্র মাঝে মাঝে সত্য" যদি তুমি মনে করো তোমার মা প্রায় সব সময় তোমার সাথে ঐভাবে করে তবে সর্বদা পুরোপুরি সত্য সম্বলিত ছকটিতে ✔ চিহ্ন দাও। যদি উক্তিটি তোমার সাথে তোমার মার ব্যবহার সম্পর্কে মাঝে মাঝে সত্য হয় তবে উক্তিটি মাঝে মাঝ সত্য সম্বলিত ছকটি চিহ্নিত কর। যদি তুমি মনে কর তোমার সাথে তোমার মায়ের ব্যবহার সম্পর্কে উক্তিটি মুলত অসত্য, তবে তোমার নিজেকে প্রশ্ন কর এটা কি খুব কম ক্ষেত্রে সত্য অথবা এটা কি কখনোই পুরোপুরি সত্য নয়। যদি এটা তোমার সাথে তোমার মায়ের ব্যবহার সম্পর্কে শুধু কমক্ষেত্রে সত্য হয়, তবে খুব কমক্ষেত্রে সত্য সম্বলিত ছকে চিহ্ন দাও, যদি তুমি মনে কর উক্তিটি কখনই পুরোপুরি সত্য নয়, তবে কখনই পুরোপুরি সত্য নয় সম্বলিত ছকটিকে চিহ্নিত কর। মনে রাখবে, কোন উক্তির ক্ষেত্রে সঠিক বা ভূল উত্তর বলে কিছু নেই। সুতরাং যতটা পার সত্যবাদী হবে। উত্তর গুলো এমনভাবে দিয়ে যেন তোমার মা সম্পর্কে তোমার সত্যিকার অনুভূতির প্রতিফলন ঘটে। তুমি তোমার মাকে যেমন হতে পছন্দ কর সে ধরনের অনুভূতির প্রতিফলন যেন না ঘটে, উদাহরনস্বরুপ।

আমি যখন ভাল তখন আমার মা আমাকে আলিঙ্গন করেন এবং চুমো দেন	আমার মায়ের ক্ষেত্রে সত্য		আমার মায়ের ক্ষেত্রে সত্য না	
	প্রায় সব সময় সত্য	মাঝে মাঝে সত্য	খুব কম সত্য	একদমই সত্য নয়

	আমার মা	আমার মায়ের ক্ষেত্রে সত্য		আমার মায়ের ক্ষেত্রে সত্য নয়	
		প্রায় সব সময় সত্য	মাঝে মাঝে সত্য	খুব কম সত্য	একদমই সত্য নয়
১	আমার সম্পর্কে ভাল ভাল কথা বলেন				
২	আমার প্রতি কখনোই মনোযোগ দেন না				
৩	তার কাছে আমার গুরুত্বপূর্ণ বিষয়গুলো সহজে বলা যায়				
৪	আমার প্রাপ্য না হলেও আমাকে আঘাত করেন				
৫	আমাকে একটা বড় ঝামেলা হিসাবে দেখেন				
৬	রাগ হলে আমাকে কঠোর শাস্তি দেন				
৭	এত ব্যস্ত থাকেন যে আমার প্রশ্নের উত্তর দেন না				
৮	আমাকে অপছন্দ করেন বলে মনে হয়				
৯	আমি যা করি তাতে সত্যিকারভাবেই আগ্রহ বোধ করে				
১০	আমাকে অনেক নির্দয় কথা বলেন				
১১	আমি সাহায্য চাইলে সেদিকে খেয়াল করেন না				
১২	আমায় নিজেকে কাঙ্ক্ষিত ও প্রয়োজনীয় ভাবতে সাহায্য করেন				
১৩	আমার প্রতি অত্যন্ত মনোযোগী				
১৪	যে কোন উপায়ে আমার অনুভূতিকে আঘাত করতে চান				
১৫	যে সব গুরুত্বপূর্ণ বিষয় তার মনে রাখা উচিত বলে আমি মনে করি তা ভুলে যান				
১৬	আমি খারাপ ব্যবহার করলে আমাকে বুঝিয়ে দেন যে আমাকে ভালবাসেন না				
১৭	আমাকে উপলব্ধি করতে দেন যে আমি যা করি তা গুরুত্বপূর্ণ				
১৮	যখন আমি কোন ভুল করি তখন আমাকে ভয় দেখান বা হুমকি দেন				
১৯	আমি যা ভাবি তাতে আগ্রহ দেখান এবং চান যে আমি তা নিয়ে কথা বলি				
২০	আমি যাই করি না কেন, অন্য শিশুদের আমার চাইতে ভাল মনে করেন				
২১	আমাকে বুঝতে দেন যে আমি কাঙ্ক্ষিত নই				
২২	আমাকে বুঝতে দেন যে তিনি আমাকে ভালবাসেন				
২৩	আমি যতক্ষন না তাকে বিরক্ত করার মত কিছু করি ততক্ষন পর্যন্ত আমার প্রতি মনোযোগ দেন না				
২৪	আমার সাথে নম্র ও দয়ালু ব্যবহার করেন				