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THE IMPACT OF THE MOTHERS' ATTACHMENT STYLE ON THEIR
CHILDREN'S PSYCHOPATHOLOGY AND ITS INTERCONNECTEDNESS
WITH PERCEIVED SECURITY IN PARENTS

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A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULLFILMENT OF THE
REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF ARTS TO THE
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL AND BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES AT
HAIGAZIAN UNIVERISTY

CARLA CHEDID

BEIRUT, LEBANON

JUNE 2010

Carla Maurice Chedid

Signature

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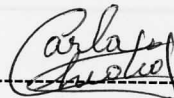
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Approved by

Dr. Marwan Ghannouchine, Ph.D., Advisor

Dr. Harine Hout, Ed.D., Reader

Dr. David Towil, Ph.D., Reader



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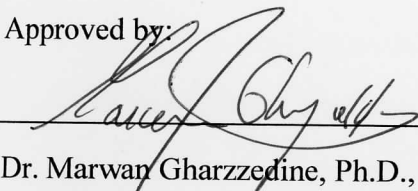
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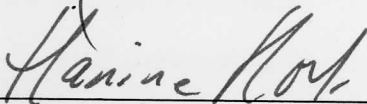
"To whom I am attached, thank you"

Carla Chedid

Approved by:



Dr. Marwan Gharzzedine, Ph.D., Advisor



Dr. Hanine Hout, Ed.D., Reader



Dr. David Tawil, Ph.D., Reader

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'To whom I am attached, thank you'

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ABSTRACT

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ABSTRACT

Attachment style of humans could explain a wide variety of their personality traits, especially behavioral maladjustments. The purpose of the study was to determine the effect of attachment style of mothers on the exhibition of externalizing and internalizing behaviors in their children. Further investigations were done to verify how children behave when they perceive their parents as an insecure attachment figure and if this perceived security will be associated to the mother attachment style. The sample was composed of 139 mothers and their adolescents' children. Mothers completed a revised version of the Attachment Style Questionnaire and the Children behavioral Checklist. Adolescents completed the Inventory of Parent and Peer attachment. Findings supported that children of fearful and preoccupied mothers have exhibited internalizing and externalizing behaviors. In addition, perceived security in parents affects adolescents' behaviors.

CHAPTER 1

The impact of mothers' attachment style on their children's psychopathology and its interconnectedness with perceived security in parents

All of us, from the cradle to the grave, are happiest when life is organized as a series of excursions, long or short, from the secure base provided by our attachment figures (Bowlby 1988).

Bowlby observed that separated children from their mothers went through intense distress. This phenomenon captured his mind and he wanted to know why the mother is so important to her child. Back then, only explanations for such inquiries were given by psychoanalytic theorists. Attachment to the mother was explained by the role of the mother as a food provider and in return the pleasure felt by the child for satisfying his hunger drives, the Freudian drive theory (Burns & Bernard, 1995). But this theory was controversial with the experiment of infant rhesus monkeys. This experiment showed that monkeys in time of stress preferred the warm mother (simulated monkey covered with cloth) and not the feeding mother covered with wire mesh (Harlow, 1958). After similar observation on humans, John Bowlby (1969) developed the theory of attachment. He explained that secure attachment happens when a child has a mental image of the attachment figures as available and responsive during crisis moment.

Attachment style is a stable personality variable and is usually installed during the first year of life. As an outcome mother-child dyads were examined in previous studies and showed that the child is affected by the degree of security his parents are experiencing (Crandall, Fitzgerald, Whipple, 1997). But they proved based on the resiliency theory that children can learn to be more secure and adapt to stressors, especially with the emergence of adolescence.

Proceeding research demonstrated that adolescent insecurely attached to parents, showed more signs of anxiety and depression (Muris & Al. 2003). Due to clinical observation, I decided to reflect more specifically on the impact of mothers' attachment style on their childrens' psychopathology and its interconnectedness with perceived security of parents.

Background of the study

We live in a society where the number of students with behavioral problems is increasing and students are being expelled from schools specifically for these problems. Despite the presence of several factors that are inducing behavioral maladjustment such as divorce, death of one parents, or presence of learning disabilities, there must be another origin for the increased presence of behavioral problems in our society. Students are not able to cope with stressors and use coping strategies, but why? To what extent is failure in developing coping strategies related to style of attachment? And if children are insecure and did not succeed to countenance distress, what is the effect of resiliency theory on changing attachment style and learning from positive relationships not to withdraw into avoidance or anxious behavior?

The topic of intergenerational attachment is the interest of psychologists nowadays. Parenting behaviors are being transmitted from generation to another through modeling and learning processes. The transfer is affecting both the development of personality traits and the development of behavioral problems. Previous studies examined how children were affected by the attachment style of their mother or father and how they developed the same attachment of style of their parents (Crandell & Fitzgerald & Whippel, 1997; Roelofs, Muris & Meesters, 2007, Muris. & al. 2003). Discontinuity of this style was investigated and researchers noticed that changes could occur during life transmission periods (Grossmann, K.E & Grossmann, K. &

Waters, 2005). In the following study, the impact of the style of attachment of mothers on the perceived security in both parents was studied.

This need emerged from current observations by the researcher in schools. Students are being considered as impolite while they are emotionally disturbed and failing in academic performance. In addition, public schools in Lebanon are very far from understanding the causes of behavioral problems of students. As a consequence, the following study might become an additional resource in understanding one of the causes of behavioral problems in the Lebanese society thereby highlighting on the importance of including counselors in the educational teams of schools.

The Problem Statement

Based on these reflections, we intended to examine how different maternal attachment styles can affect the development of psychopathological disorders in a sample of Lebanese children aged between 10 and 14 years old. Unsecured mothers will induce internalizing and externalizing behavioral problem in their children. In addition we wanted to find if any association between the perceived security in parents and the exhibition of psychopathological behavior in children is present and if this latest is affected by gender. More specifically, the following hypotheses were examined:

- 1- Mothers with insecure attachment style, in particular mothers with preoccupied attachment style, will be associated with the presence of internalizing and externalizing problem in their children.

- 2- Adolescents who show anger and alienation towards their parents are more likely than those who communicate and trust their parents to show externalizing and internalizing problem.
- 3- In term of intergenerational attachment style during adolescence period, the perceived security in parents will not be associated to the style of attachment of mothers.
- 4- Boys tend to show more externalizing behavior than girls during adolescence, and girls tend to show more internalizing behavior than boys.

The professional significance of the study

The following study had enlightened several facts in psychology. It provided help for mothers to learn how their parenting style can affect children's behaviors during early adolescence period. As a consequence, awareness is to be spread among mothers so they auto-regulate their own parenting strategies to promote emotional health in their children, even when mothers are insecurely attached.

Another exploration was done; it concerned the applicability of intergenerational attachment transmission in early adolescence. The findings in this area become a source for psychologist and counselors to apprehend adolescence period with more confidence during counseling. Adolescents at this period are able to differentiate between their parents' fears and their needs and reconstruct their relationships based on new experiences and not based on their parents' insecurity.

When dealing with school students, the specialized teams at school focus much more on the academic part and the presence of learning disabilities. My goal was to highlight this emotional

aspect of the problem in order to be taken into consideration and counseling then becomes part of the healing procedure.

Overview of the methodology

We conducted a quantitative study on a sample composed of 139 students and their mothers aged between 10 and 14 years old. Two types of Self-report questionnaires were used, the Attachment Style Questionnaire (ASQ) and the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA) to collect the data concerning attachment patterns. Respectively, the first instrument, ASQ, is composed of 4 subscales reflecting different styles of attachment, and the second is composed of three subscales describing each the quality of relationship that children have with their parents. The third questionnaire was the Children Behavioral Checklist of Achenbach (CBCL) which was filled out by the mothers to investigate the presence of behavioral problems in children. To measure the variables, correlational matrix and regression methods were used, in addition to comparison of means, using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). P was considered significant if $p < 0.05$ or $p < 0.01$.

Delimitations

Different delimitations concerning all thesis section were detected:

- In the literature review, the thesis lacked theoretical background about the Lebanese population.
- The accessibility to the sample was hard, since mothers were reluctant in sharing personal information.

- The results could not be generalized on the Lebanese population, because the study was composed of a convenient sample and not of a representative sample since it did not include all types of Lebanese Schools.
- The students had difficulty in understanding the Arabic language of the questionnaire and we had to review together each question. Add to that the presence of negative statement made the answering process very conflicted in students' mind. For that reason, and in any further investigations, questions should be straight forward and written in a positive form.
- Since self-report questionnaires were used, the results could be biased because participants may want to give perfect answers.

Definitions of key terms

In the following, we defined the key terms that were encountered in this study.

Attachment behavior: "is any form of behavior that results in a person attaining or retaining proximity to some other differentiated or preferred individual" (Holmes, 1997, p 68).

Intergenerational attachment: transmission of attachment from an earlier generation to the next generation (Bowlby, 1987)

Secure attachment: it describes people who are at ease to become emotionally close to others, comfortable depending on others and having others depend on them. They don't worry to be alone or not to be accepted by others (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Preoccupied attachment: it describes people who want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but they often find that others are reluctant to get as they would like. They

are uncomfortable being without close relationships but they sometimes worry that others don't value them as much as they value others (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Fearful attachment: it describes people who are somewhat uncomfortable getting close to others. They want emotional relationship but they find it difficult to trust others completely, or to depend on them. They worry that sometime they will be hurt if they allow themselves to become too close to others (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Dismissing style: they are comfortable without close emotional relationships. It is very important for them to feel independent and self-sufficient and they prefer to depend on others or have others depend on them (Bartholomew & Horowitz, 1991).

Internalizing behavior: it is a cluster of specific behavior; it includes aggression, oppositional disorders, delinquency and school problem. (Achenbach, 2004)

Externalizing behavior: it is a cluster of specific behavior; it includes depressions, anxiety, withdrawal, somatic complaints and eating disorders. (Achenbach, 2004)

Proximity maintenance: the longing to stay close to the person that we are attached to;

CHAPTER 2

Review of Literature**Theoretical framework**

The following chapter consisted of the literature review concerning the different constructs of attachment. It started with an explanation of the basic theoretical frames of the theory of attachment followed by empirical studies conducted in this field.

Bowlby's theory. Attachment is not only a human characteristic. It exists in animals who exhibit a natural tendency to stay with the primary care provider and attachment is being reinforced by the feeding process. Several theories explained the core of attachment style in human; John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth were the pioneers in this field. Bowlby described the attachment as "a lasting psychological connectedness between human beings" (Bowlby, 1969, p. 194). This connection takes place between the mother and her child long before his birth; from the first day of pregnancy. He believed that these bonds that happen during early infancy will affect the person throughout his life. This reminds us of the Freudian theory and the impact of childhood experiences on emotional development. Freud (1938) basic assumption was that mothers who respond accordingly to each child call will develop in their children a secure base. This latest will permit them to explore and confront the world. If something threatening happened during this exploration, a child will know that his mother is here to protect him so he will return into her arms to receive comfort. The components of Bowlby attachment theory are (Bowlby, 1969):

- Proximity maintenance: the longing to stay close to the person that we are attached to;

- Safe haven: when a person faces a threat he will return to his attachment figure to find security and comfort;
- Secure base: the attachment figure is considered a secure base which will provide him with courage to go and explore the world;
- Separation distress: the anxiety felt when a person is separated from the attachment figure.

Based on Bowlby's theory, we can consider that emotional disturbance in adolescence or in adult seeks its origins from early family experiences.

Ainsworth's theory. Mary Ainsworth (Ainsworth & Blehar & Waters & Walls, 1978) developed a more advanced theory and categorized the attachment into three types. She conducted an experimental research and developed a 'strange situation' where she observed the child's behavior towards a specific situation. The child is left alone by his mother for a brief moment in an unfamiliar room. The way the child will behave while seeing his mother leaving the room and how he will react when she comes back, will disclose his attachment style. She was able to specify three types of attachment (Holmes, 1997, p. 105):

-secure attachment: a secured child will be upset to see his mother leaving the room and will start crying but when the figures return he will seek comfort and physical closeness and resume playing.

- Ambivalent-insecure attachment: is characterized by an anxious child even in the presence of his mother. When the adult leaves the room, he becomes distressed. When the adult comes back, he will stay close to the adult but resentful to adult attention

- Avoidant-insecure attachment: the child will not care for the departure or the return of the adult and will show little emotion.

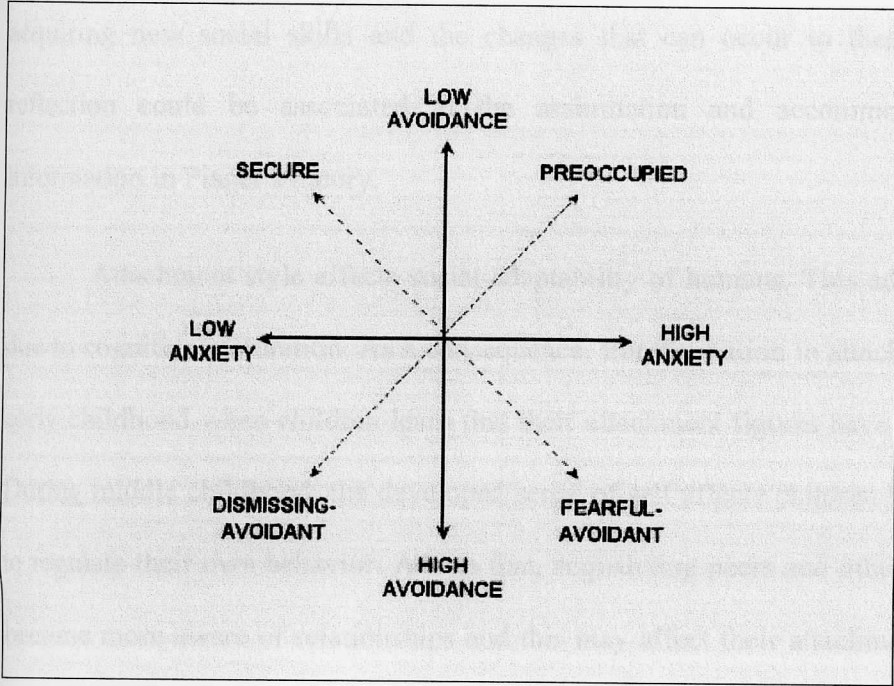
Children may develop an insecure attachment style when they go through an anxious situation and miss their secure base. As a result they will inhibit their attachment system and develop an avoidant or ambivalent insecure attachment style. Based on the attachment style, people will frame their interactions and relationships. These models are generated through constant interaction between the mother and her child (Bowlby, 1969). Children who have a secure internal model are confident that their parents will be present and available when they face obstacles in opposite with children who have insecure internal models.

Enlargement of attachment theories. Several authors enlarged the field of attachment and developed different instruments to assess attachment style based on Ainsworth theory. The Adult Attachment Interview innovated new types of attachment: secure, dismissing and fearful (avoidant) and preoccupied (anxious) (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007). This instrument was followed by others like ASQ which was used in this study.

Shaver and Hazan (1987) conducted a study to measure attachment in adults. Results showed that 60% were securely attached, 25% were classified as avoidant, 15% were considered as anxious avoidant characterized by a fear of losing the attachment figure.

Kelly Brennan and her colleagues (1998) constituted a continuum for attachment style. They reflected on two variables for attachment style: 1- attachment related anxiety, 2- attachment related avoidance. They described people with low anxiety and avoidance as securely attached and people who are highly anxious and avoidant to have a fearful attachment style.

Figure 1: Attachment pattern (Fraley, 2004)



Working models. Working models constitute one of the most important components of the attachment theory. Working models are internal schemas that reflect individual adopted patterns in relationships that seek its origins from early interaction with maternal and paternal figures (Collins & Read, 1990). These schemas contain information about the person perception of relationships and they will affect the way the individual will cope with emotional problems in relationships. Early findings suggested that these working models will be stable across life (Koback & Sceery, 1988). In addition, these working models will contribute to the installation of personality traits which will affect the social behavior of individuals. But how could human adaptability to life stressors is explained?

Changes in working models. Bowlby (1969) considered these working models as templates and emphasized the stability of attachment working models. But in 1988 and after a

wide reflection on his theory, he re-emphasized this stability and illustrated the impact of acquiring new social skills and the changes that can occur to these working models. This reflection could be associated to the assimilation and accommodation concept of new information in Piaget's theory.

Attachment style affects social adaptability of humans. This adaptation varies with time due to cognitive maturation. As a consequence, transformation in attachment style takes place in early childhood when children learn that their attachment figures have also their personal goals. During middle childhood, the developed sense of self affects children behavior. They learn how to regulate their own behavior. Add to that, acquainting peers and other adults will help them to become more aware of relationships and this may affect their attachment style (Holmes, 1997). The capacity to separate from attachment figures and to form new attachments represents the developmental challenge of adolescence period and young adulthood (Holmes, 1997). This process is also applicable to parents when their children reach adolescence; parents have to let go of them after being attached to them.

What happens exactly during the adolescence period? Adolescence is the period of changes in both physiological and emotional domains. Children are not children anymore and yet not adult, their status inside the family dynamism has changed and all their relationships are subjected to a new functioning. Parental attachment goes through a new organization, if this attachment was secure and constructive, adolescent boys and girls will have a less tormented transition period from childhood to adulthood (Kobak & Sceery, 1998). Boys will have to split the close ties formed with the mother and identify with the father. Girls will switch from a dependant relation with the mother to a mature identification relationship with her (Blat &

Besser, 2007). Secure attachment will facilitate the individuation process. The absence of the identification figure could lead to the emergence of behavioral problems.

Transmission of attachment style. When parents transmit their attachment style to their children, we talk about intergenerational attachment. This happens because the attachment style of parents is translated in the parenting behaviors. Through the parenting style of mothers, they implant in their children some of their fears and strengths. As a consequence and as Ainsworth (1978) demonstrated in her experiment, the attachment patterns of parents are transmitted to children. But due to resiliency theory and cognitive maturation, children learn during adolescence to restructure their personality and distance with their parents emerges (Capozzi & al. 2007).

Cowan & Cowan (2009) reviewed the literature that explained intergenerational attachment. They illustrated four theories. The first one explained how parents and children share biological and genetic resources which induce the presence of some identical patterns in relationships. The second theory was related to psychoanalysis and it explained that children through identification with the parent of the same sex incorporate the same behavioral and parenting patterns. The third theory reflected on the construction of 'working-models' in each person. The internal model is a scheme based on the interaction that took place between both partners: parent- children. These working models will provoke the installment of internalizing or externalizing behavior in children whether they have developed secure, preoccupied or fearful working models. The forth theory was based on social learning principals. They ignored the psychoanalytical theory or the working models explanation and based the definition of attachment construct on reinforcement and punishment of exhibited behavior in their children.

Through their meta-analysis of previous studies, they noticed that parents who function together as a secure base will induce less internalizing behavior in their adolescent children (Cowan A. & Cowan, 2009)

Attachment and behavioral problems. Researchers throughout the history of psychopathology have demonstrated that 2 factors induce the exhibition of behavioral problems: environmental factors and biological predispositions. Bowlby (1969) started his work on attachment theory after he wondered about the causes of juvenile delinquency and the effect of maternal deprivation (Mikulinger & Shaver, 2007). Based on the attachment theory, insecure attachment is considered as a risk factor for the development of emotional disturbance and psychopathology. If children are armed with a secure base, they will use it as a resource to encounter emotional stress and traumatic events. But if children fail to establish a secure internal-working model they will most probably develop a negative self and this will lead children to perceive interpersonal defeat as a personal malfunction (Besser & Priel, 2003).

Review of Empirical studies

In the following sections, many empirical studies were illustrated to review what others researchers have already concluded in the field of attachment so we can put the current study in context.

Attachment across life span. Children experience security when their attachment caregiver is available at any needed time to provide them with love and comfort. As a consequence, attachment security is described by the degree of confidence that a child has about the consistent availability and responsiveness of his secure base (Bowlby, 1973). Longitudinal studies examined the stability of internal working model. Researchers' (Kobak & Sceery, 1988)

arguments focused on the constancy of attachment patterns and their resistance to change from infancy to adulthood. These arguments were contradicted and researchers noted that absence of attachment continuity is noticed between early and late adolescence (Grossmann, K.E & Grossmann, K. & Waters, 2003). This discontinuity was explained by the cognitive maturation. In middle childhood, the ability to communicate increases just like the capacity to auto-regulate behaviors. Children start to rely more on themselves, but still demand their parent security when they face anxiety of separation and fearful circumstances (Dwyer, 2005). Shaver and Hazan (1988) conceptualized 'Love relationships' in terms of attachment and investigated its origin. They hypothesized and confirmed that people with secure attachment style emerged from families who had a secure attachment style and through their parenting they transferred their style of attachment.

Intergenerational attachment. Internal working model of attachment or the mental representation of attachment in human beings develops during infancy depending on the quality of relation that was established between the child and his mother and father. These secure internal working models provide the child and later as adult with the trust so he can engage in close relationships. When this child reaches adult life, he organizes his own family. His parenting behavior will be affected by his attachment style and this latest will be transmitted to his child.

Crandell & Fitzgerald & Whippel (1997) wanted to assess the impact of attachment style of mothers on their children's interaction. 36 mothers and children were recruited and invited to engage in a game with their children. These dyadic interactions were videotaped and analyzed. Then the mothers answered the Adult Attachment Interview. Results showed that children of

secure mothers probed for close contact and were more compliant compared to children of insecure mothers. This study encouraged more research on parent-child relationships patterns across generations.

To continue the investigation about the intergenerational attachment Roefols, Muris & Meesters (2007) conducted a study on 237 children aged between 9 and 12 years old. They hypothesized that parental romantic attachment and parenting behavior will have a contribution on the development of attachment style in children. In this study, results emphasized the nonexistence of relation between attachment style of the mother and her child. In addition it turned out to be that children who were insecurely attached to the father did not have an authoritative father. 94% of children were securely attached to their mothers and 88% are to their fathers. To explain the absence of this intergenerational attachment, they postulated that the temperament of children and environmental factors could affect the development of attachment.

In this perspective Massimo & al. (2000) wanted to question this stability based on the concept that the passage from childhood to adolescence will emphasize the detachment from parents, and young children would like to become more autonomous and as a consequence the transition from childhood to adolescence might affect the restructuring of attachment style. The goal of this study was to understand the evolution of internal working models of attachment between late childhood and adolescence and to research about the transfer of the same attachment style between generations. The sample was composed of 31 young adolescents who were interviewed twice at 10 years old and at 14 years using the Attachment Interview for Childhood and Adolescence (Ammaniti et Al. 1990). Results showed that an acceptable stability is present in attachment security style (6 participants only moved to the insecure category), but

this stability was not present in the preoccupied category which was constituted of a small number of participants making the drawing of conclusion a bit skeptical. In conclusion, the most important finding was related to the dismissing category, where participants of this group tended to become more dismissal due to the escalating need to become more independent from parents during adolescence.

Attachment and behavioral problems. Different factors play a role in the emergence of behavioral problems. Family connectedness and patterns of attachment are with no doubt an important resource. Studies have showed that insecure attachment is linked with the display of anxiety and depressive symptoms in children (Roelofs , Muris & Meesters, 2007). Muris. & al. (2003) concluded that adolescents with insecure attachment perceived their parents as overprotective and less emotionally involved with them. These insecure attached children have a negative self-image. Those with fearful and preoccupied attachment failed in regulating negative affect. They exhibited externalizing behavior such as bullying and aggressiveness (Kennedy J. & Kennedy C., 2004).

Muris & Van Den Burg (2003) studied the relation between attachment style of the mothers and the display of depression and anxiety symptoms in their children. They used a sample of 91 students aged 12 years old. They hypothesized that unsecured adolescents will show more signs of depression and anxiety. Results showed that 79.1% of students were securely attached and 20.9% of children classified themselves as insecurely attached. The latest group showed an elevated level of anxiety symptoms and depression compared to students who were securely attached. These findings implied that ambivalent and avoidant styles are positively correlated with depression and anxiety symptoms.

To get more information about the effect of attachment style on behavioral manifestation, Capozzi & al. (2007) conducted a research to evaluate how parenting and attachment style of parents will affects the development of psychopathological behavior in children with Learning Disabilities. Their sample was composed of 72 students presenting learning difficulties and aged between 7 and 12 years old. Using the Children Behavioral Checklist (CBCL), the attachment style questionnaire (ASQ) and family attitude questionnaire (AFQ) to measure their hypothesis, observed results indicated that 60% of children had symptoms related to one of the two behavioral maladjustments: externalizing or internalizing symptoms. They concluded that the insecure attachment style of the parents induces maladaptive behaviors in their children. This issue put children at risk of developing later behavioral-emotional disorders. Another conclusion was given; preoccupied mothers will induce the presence of internalized or externalized behavior in their children.

In this perspective Abela & al. (2009) wanted to study precisely the effect of negative attachment working models on the presence of depression symptoms in both parents and children. This interest emerged from the idea that there was a positive association between the diagnosis of the mother and her child in the domain of psychopathology but it lacked the explanation for this connection. 140 children aged between 6 and 14 years old completed the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment scale (Armsden & Greenberg 1987) during the first phase and an interview with the parents was maintained to assess the level of depression in their children using the Schedule for Affective disorders and Schizophrenia for School Aged children (K-SADS) and the Children Depressive Inventory (CDI, Kovacs, 1987). In parallel, parents completed the Beck questionnaire for depression. The same analyses were done every 6 weeks. Results showed that children presenting a negative attachment model had a higher correlation

with depressive symptoms in comparison with children with secure attachment style. And this relation between both constructs was not affected by age. They noticed that if the child has a secure attachment towards his parents he will not be affected by their depressive symptoms in comparison with a child who has anxious attachment style.

If the attachment style of mothers was proven by scientific studies that it affects the development of internalizing and externalizing behavioral problems in children will it be the same concerning the effect of attachment style of children?

Further investigations were done to study the presence of any relation between attachment style of children and their emotional adjustment. Muris & Van Den Burg (2003) conducted a study on a huge sample, 742 non referred adolescents, to measure the effect of attachment style on the exhibition of internalizing and externalizing behaviors. Results showed that adolescents who classified themselves as insecurely attached (avoidant or ambivalent) scored higher on the externalizing and internalizing scale than adolescents with secure attachment style.

Gender and behavioral problem discontinuity. The observation of behavioral adjustment during early and later adolescence revealed the continuity and the discontinuity of psychopathology. This development is affected by many factors: gender, age and genetics. We considered the effect of gender and analyzed this dimension. Most of the adolescent problems were classified into two groups: internalizing and externalizing behavior. Studies showed that boys tend to show more externalizing behavior than girls during childhood and adolescence, whereas girls tend to show more internalizing behavior through adolescence (Angold & Rutter, 1992).

From where do these gender differences come? Girls show more susceptibility to interpersonal concerns and become more aware of auto-regulation for the sake of socialization. This vulnerability induces more in girls the installation of internalizing behavioral problem. In contrast, boys demonstrate needs of self-assertion in their environment and underestimate the needs for auto-regulation. This equation explains the dominance of externalizing behavior in boys more than in girls during adolescence. Adolescent girls become overly sensitive towards their communication skills, their self-image and too critical about their appearance. Their self-esteem might be affected and girls get stuck into negative cognitive schemata.

Leadbeater & Kuperminc & Blatt & Hertzog (1999) based their research on two models. The first illustrated how girls were much more sensitive to their relationship with others and showed difficulty in expressing anger. As a consequence, the internalizing behaviors were more present among girls. The second model illustrated how boys were eager for assertiveness and societal competence during adolescence. This self-assertion induced the presence of aggression and externalizing problem.

Frigerio & al. (2004) conducted a research to standardize the CBCL (4-18 years old) on the Italian population. They were able to draw the following conclusions: Boys had high scores than girls on the externalizing subscale. No difference was noticed between both genders on the internalizing scale. In comparison with age, internalizing problems tended to increase and externalizing problem tended to decrease.

Interplay between styles of attachment, behavioral problem and intergenerational attachment. Attachment internal working models are activated when a person faces a distressful situation. These working models were described by a wide variety of authors as being stable

across life span, but could go through adaptation. Few contradicted this assumption and refused the theory of intergenerational attachment. Studies showed that children in early childhood are affected by the style of attachment of their mothers. Children of insecure mothers apprehend new situation with fear and anxiety (Crandell & Fitzgerald & Whipple, 1997). An inconsistent cold mother had insecurely attached children. In conclusion, the mental representation of attachment is formed based on the parental care-giving quality.

These discoveries were not applied on early adolescence and for that reason it was one of the goals of the current study. In a clearer way, we tried to investigate if the insecure attachment style of mothers was associated with an absence of trust and communication from their children toward the couple formed, i.e., mother and father together and not only with the mother.

Attachment in adulthood is associated with romantic relationships and parental strategies. In adolescence, attachment takes another direction. Adolescent, boys and girls try to reorganize themselves to adapt with their societal environment. It is not anymore a question of biological attachment to the secure base as it was described during childhood. But this security that was nourished during infancy will affect the perception of the self and frame social relationships. The proposal that the insecure style of attachment of mothers will affect the display of maladaptive strategies in children and these latest will not be able to face life stressors is still questioned, despite the large body of research (Ruiter & Marinus & Ijzendoorn, 1993).

Psychopathological outcomes are the result of maladaptive strategies affected by the genetic vulnerability of the child and the environmental factors. This genetic vulnerability could be transmitted through parenting style and more precisely it will explain the intergenerational transmission of attachment style. The transmission was explored by the verification of the

presence of connection between child and parent attachment through the Attachment Adult Interview and the Strange-Situation (Main & Kaplan & Cassidy, 1985). Insecure attachment of parents could constitute a risk factor in the appearance of psychopathological behavior in children, an angle that was discussed in this study. More precisely, the following four hypotheses were declared:

- 1- Mothers with insecure attachment style, in particular mothers with preoccupied or fearful attachment style, will be associated with the presence of internalizing and externalizing problem in their children.
- 2- Adolescents who show anger and alienation towards their parents are more likely than those who communicate and trust their parents to show externalizing and internalizing problem.
- 3- In term of intergenerational attachment style during adolescence period, the perceived security in parents will not be associated to the style of attachment of mothers.
- 4- Boys tend to show more externalizing behavior than girls during adolescence, and girls tend to show more internalizing behavior than boys.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

We intended to examine how different maternal attachment styles can affect the development of psychopathological disorders in a sample of Lebanese children aged between 10 and 14 years old. Unsecured mothers induced internalizing and externalizing behavioral problem in their children. In addition we wanted to find if any association between the perceived security in parents and the exhibition of psychopathological behavior in children is present and if this latest is affected by gender

Participants

Participants were recruited from two private schools, the 'Beirut Baptist School' and the 'Colleges des Freres Unis'; both provide English education. The sample was composed of 139 students (80 males and 59 females) aged between 10 and 14 years old ($M= 11.9$; $ST= 1.12$) and their mothers aged between 30 and 63 ($M= 40.6$; $ST= 6.14$). The students were enrolled in grades five, six, seven and eight. All participants were living with both parents. The study did not include divorced parents.

Instruments

Three standardized scales were used to test the four hypotheses.

Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment, IPPA. The IPPA was developed by Armsden and Greenberg in 1987 to assess the 'positive and negative affective/cognitive dimension of relationships with their parents and close friends (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987) which are considered as a figure of security. The theoretical framework of this inventory was based on

Bowlby's attachment theory. This inventory does not evaluate the attachment style of children but it reflects the degree of perceived parental security by adolescents.

It is a self-formulated questionnaire and answers are provided based on five points Likert-scale format. It was standardized on a sample of adolescent aged between 16 and 20 years old. It was revised in 2005 by Gullone and Robinson, and was adapted to include children between 9 and 16 years old. The revision included a slight modification of some words to make the understanding of English accessible to younger population and was made in three versions assessing mother, father and peer attachment. Each scale is divided into three subscales, trust, communication, anger and alienation. Respectively, the trust subscale measures the mutual respect and understanding in attachment relationship. It is composed of 10 questions. The communication subscale assesses the degree of spoken communication and is composed of 9 questions. The alienation subscale measures the degree of anger and disaffection in relationships, and is formed of 8 questions. In this study we used the revised version of Eleonora and Gullone (2005) which contains the same items and subscales but the answers are provided on three levels: never, sometimes, and always. The test reported a good test-retest reliability (mean $r = 0.78$). The score of each subscale is obtained by summing the items and dividing them by the number of items of each subscale.

The IPPA-R was administered in Arabic language, and answers were given based on three choices: 1= never, 2= sometimes and 3= always. As a consequence a back translation was done for the Arabic version and was corrected by the author of the IPPA scale, giving his agreement to use the Arabic version (Appendix A).

Child Behavioral Checklist. It is a checklist composed of 113 questions rated on 3 points scale (1= *not true*, 2= *sometimes true*, 3= *always true*) and written by Achenbach (1991). It reflects eight constructs: I= anxious/depressed, II= withdrawn/depressed, III= somatic complaints, IV= social problem, V= thought problems, VI= attention problem, VII= rule-breaking behavior, VIII= aggressive behavior. The behavioral construct could be grouped into two categories, the first one is internalizing subscale (anxious/depressed, withdrawn/depressed, and somatic complaints) and the second is externalizing subscale (rule-breaking behavior and aggressive behavior). The CBCL proved its reliability worldwide, even in Arabic countries. The instrument demonstrated a good test-retest reliability (mean $r=0.89$).

To complete the study, we received an authorization from the author to use the CBCL checklist and it was already translated into Arabic language (Appendix B).

The Attachment Style Questionnaire. The instrument was based on the two-dimensional models of adult attachment theory (Van Oudenhoven, Hofsta & Bakker, 2003). It illustrates the presence of two models, the self and others where they interact in reversible ways inducing four types of attachment: secure, preoccupied, fearful and dismissing. The scale is composed of 22 questions and divided into four subscales. Participants indicated on a 5 points Likert scale (1 strongly disagree, 5- strongly agree) their convictions. The scale was translated to Arabic (Appendix C). The scores were obtained by calculating the mean of each subscale.

Procedure

In both schools the administration of the questionnaires to students and mothers followed a unified process. The consent was taken first from the principal of the school, after he revised the items of the three questionnaires. Both principals had some concern about the items since they

touched the personal life of mothers. But the presence of the cover letter that explained the goal of the study and the freedom to answer the questionnaire released their anxiety and they accepted to distribute the questionnaires. We sent two questionnaires to the mothers, the CBCL and the ASQ in a sealed envelope. 400 questionnaires were distributed but only 166 were returned and 139 were considered for the current study. Not all were included in the study, because some replied that they prefer not to participate, other did not answer the whole questionnaires. Concerning students, the IPPA-R was distributed during academic periods. All students accepted to respond except three. Only the questionnaires of the students whom the mother replied were used.

The SPSS was used to compute descriptive statistics, to compare means (ANOVA's), to correlate coefficients, to analyze logistic regressions and t-test. Attachment style of the mothers and the children and the gender were the independent variables of the sample and the externalizing and internalizing behaviors were the dependant variables. The results were significant if $p<0.05$ and $p<0.01$.

The Attachment Style Questionnaire. The ASQ consisted of four subscales. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was above 0.5 for all subscales except the distancing ($\alpha = 0.48$). When item analysis was computed, it turned out that the question number 17 was affecting the internal reliability of this subscale. For that reason it was not considered in this study.

CHAPTER 4

Results

Reliability Analysis

Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment. The three subscales of the IPPA were examined for reliability. Cronbach alpha coefficients for the three subscales were superior to 0.6 except for the trust subscale which was 0.411. An analysis was done to view which item is affecting the reliability of the scale; it turned out to be item number two: “my parents are good parents”. For that reason the item number two was not included in the trust subscale and the coefficient alpha for the trust subscale became $\alpha = 0.68$.

Table 1: Reliabilities of the scale used in the current study and in previous researches

Subscale	Cronbach’s α in the current Study	Cronbach’s α in previous Study
Trust	.68	.85
Communication	.66	.79
Alienation	.70	.81

The Attachment Style Questionnaire. The ASQ consisted of four subscales. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was above 0.5 for all subscales except the dismissing ($\alpha = 0.48$). When item analysis was computed, it turned out that the question number 17 was affecting the internal reliability of this subscale. For that reason it was not considered in this study.

Table 2: Reliabilities of the scale used in the current study and in previous research

Subscale	Cronbach's α in the current Study	Cronbach's α in previous Study
Secure	.52	.75
Fearful	.67	.79
Preoccupied	.65	.80
Dismissing	.50	.62

Children Behavioral Checklist. Two subscales were used from the CBCL, the externalizing and internalizing subscales. Both revealed to have a high reliability $\alpha > 0.8$.

Table 3: Reliabilities of the scale used in the current study and in previous research

Subscale	Cronbach's α in the current Study	Cronbach's α in previous Study
Externalizing	.89	.94
Internalizing	.84	.90

Descriptives

Sample Descriptives. Participants from BBS (Beirut Baptist School) and CFU (College des Frères Unis) constituted the convenient sample. Among 400 distributed questionnaires to mothers only 139 were collected. Table 4 provides the descriptive statistics of the sample. The mothers' age range was between 30 and 63 years old ($M= 40.64$, $SD= 6.14$). The children age range was between 10 and 14 years old ($M= 11.9$, $SD= 1.12$).

Table 4: Sample descriptive statistics

		Frequency	Percentage %
Gender	Male	80	57.6
	Female	59	42.4
Grades	5	28	20.1
	6	62	44.6
	7	16	11.5
	8	33	23.7
Ages	10	9	6.5
	11	45	32.4
	12	42	30.2
	13	26	18.7
	14	17	12.2

Scale Descriptives. The means and standards deviation of all variables are listed in table 5.

Table 5: Scale descriptives

Variables	Number	Mean	Standard deviation
Security	133	3.83	0.52
Fearful	131	3.30	0.83
Preoccupied	134	2.61	0.73
Dismissing	137	3.89	0.79
Trust	137	2.50	0.32
Communication	135	2.41	0.36
Alienation	135	2.40	0.41
Internalizing	138	11.9	6.97

Externalizing	133	9.47	7.49
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Note: all subscale were scored on an ascending scale, higher scores means a greater endorsement of the variable.

Hypothesis testing

Hypothesis 1: Mothers with insecure attachment style, in particular mothers with preoccupied or fearful attachment style, will be associated with the presence of internalizing and externalizing problem in their children.

The following hypothesis suggested that the preoccupied attachment style of mothers will be associated with externalizing and internalizing problems of their children. A comparison of means was conducted using ANOVA test. Results showed that significance is present between the internalizing and fearful style of mothers among boys, $F(15,60) = 1.47, p = 0.018$. Another significance was present; in the female group both fearful, $F(12,40) = 1.47, p = 0.018$ and preoccupied attachment style of mother were associated to internalizing behavior $F(15,41) = 2.78, p = 0.005$.

When bivariate correlational was computed, the following results were noted; fearful attachment style and internalizing behavior were positively correlated in boys group $r(76) = .486$. Preoccupied attachment style of mother and internalizing behavior of girls were positively correlated $r(57) = 0.425$. Fearful attachment style of mothers was also positively correlated with both internalizing $r(53) = 0.411$ and externalizing behavior of girls $r(54) = 0.551$. Add to that internalizing and externalizing behavior in both girls and boys were respectively positively correlated $r(55) = 0.661$ and $r(77) = 0.355$. Furthermore positive correlation were observed between fearful and preoccupied attachment style for mother in both groups boys and girls respectively $r(74) = 0.357$ and $r(55) = 0.376$. For the male and female group, positive correlation

existed between externalizing and internalizing behavior respectively, $r(77) = 0.355$ and $r(55) = 0.661$. (The results are present in appendix D).

To examine which type of attachment style is the predictor variable in the exhibition of internalizing or externalizing behavior in both and girls, linear regression was computed. Results showed that the fearful attachment style is the only predictor in the exhibition of externalizing behavior in girls ($r = 0.487$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.003$). Concerning internalizing behavior, fearful attachment was the significant predictor in boys' group ($r = 0.499$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.001$) but for the female group, two predictors were obtained, fearful ($r = 0.613$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.001$) and preoccupied attachment style of mothers ($r = 0.613$, $df = 4$, $p = 0.047$). (The results are illustrated in appendix E).

Hypothesis 1 is confirmed for both genders.

Hypothesis 2: Adolescents who show anger and alienation towards their parents are more likely than those who communicate and trust their parents to show externalizing and internalizing problems.

The following hypothesis suggested that students who have anger towards their parents and do not trust or communicate with them will be associated with externalizing and internalizing problem. To test this hypothesis, analysis of variance was computed using ANOVA test. Results showed that boys who trust their parents exhibited externalizing problems $F(11,63) = 2.53$, $p = 0.010$, also those who communicates with them $F(12,61) = 2.18$, $p = 0.024$.

For further investigation, correlational bivariate was computed. In the male group, we had the following results. Exhibition of externalizing behaviors is negatively correlated with children who perceived their parents as trustworthy $r(75) = -0.271$ and as a good communication figures $r(74) = -0.232$. In contrast, a positive correlation $r(75) = 0.354$ was noticed between

externalizing behavior in boys' adolescents and sentiment of alienation towards parents. Positive correlations were obtained between the two secure perceived images of parents' trust and communication $r(76) = 0.466$. The two subscales, communication and trust, were respectively negatively correlated with the alienation subscale $r(75) = -0.633$ and $r(76) = -0.471$. These findings tended to verify our hypothesis in the male group. (Results are described in Appendix F)

In the female groups we had similar results. Externalizing behaviors are negatively correlated with parents perceived as trustworthy $r(56) = -0.270$. Trust and alienation were negatively correlated $r(58) = -0.813$ just like communication and alienation $r(56) = -0.784$. The results are as well supportive of our hypothesis in the female group. (Results are shown in Appendix G)

To define which variable is the predictor of maladaptive behaviors, regression analysis was computed. It turned out that alienation, in the female group, was the predictor for the exhibition of internalizing behavior ($r = 0.349$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.046$) and it was also alienation the predictor of exhibition of externalizing behavior in the male group ($r = 0.414$, $df = 3$, $p = 0.031$).

Hypothesis 2 is confirmed for both genders. (Results are shown in Appendix H)

Hypothesis 3: In term of intergenerational attachment style during adolescence period, the perceived security in parents will not be associated to the style of attachment of mothers.

To investigate if the perceived security in parents is not affected by the style of attachment of mothers, we computed the correlation test. Results showed the absence of significant result between the two variables in the male group. But in the female group, we noted a negative correlation between fearful attached mothers and the perception of parents as being trustworthy $r(55) = -0.305$. As a conclusion, hypothesis 3 is partially confirmed, only in the male

group. In the female group, when mothers' tended to have more fearful attachment styles, their daughters tended to perceive their parents as less trustworthy. (Results are present in Appendix I)

Hypothesis 4 Boys tend to show more externalizing behaviors than girls during adolescence, and girls tend to show more internalizing behaviors than boys.

To study the effect of gender on the exhibition of internalizing and externalizing, T-test independent sample was computed. Results showed that in externalizing behavior there were difference in means between both genders. The mean for externalizing behavior ($M = 10.37$, $SD = 6.9$) was higher in the male group than the mean in the female group ($M = 8.23$, $SD = 8.05$) but this difference was not significant. Since we had a difference in means we computed ANOVA test to find if the components of the externalizing scale are linked with gender. Results showed that rule breaking behaviors is a characteristic of male behavior $F(1,134) = 7.12$, $p = .008$. Concerning internalizing behavior the difference of means between boys ($M = 11.37$, $SD = 5.68$) and girls ($M = 12.63$, $SD = 8.41$) was significant $t(136) = -1.052$, $p = 0.017$. This means that girls tend to show more internalizing behaviors than boys. Our hypothesis was confirmed for the female group and partially verified in the male group (Results are shown in Appendix J)

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

This study aimed to review and interrogate how the attachment style of mothers affected the exhibition of pathological behaviors in their children. It was hypothesized that adolescents who perceived their parents as an insecure figure exhibited internalizing and externalizing behaviors in contrast with adolescents who perceived their parents as trustworthy and had good capacity to communicate with them. Add to that, another hypothesis was drawn and it reflected that children were not be affected by the attachment style of the mother to perceive the parents as secure or insecure figures. Females were predicted to show more internalizing behaviors while males were predicted to show more externalizing behaviors than girls.

Gender differences in pathological behaviors

Hypothesis 4 predicted that girls will exhibit more internalizing behaviors than boys. The documented results in chapter IV tended to support the cited hypothesis only in the female group. This result was supported by previous studies for the female group (Leadbeater & al. 1999). I believe that adolescent girls tend to show more depression, anxiety and somatic symptoms due to several factors: pubertal changes, interpersonal vulnerability and inability to express her desires in the Lebanese society.

The first factor is puberty. Girls reach puberty at an earlier age than boys. This transition may induce more stress in girls than boys. Negative comments on their sexual maturation may lead to a negative body image and makes coping with this maturation event very stressful. Similar studies showed that high level of stressors are associated with internalizing behaviors (Scaramella, Conger, & Simons, 1994).

The second factor is interpersonal vulnerability. Their status in the society changes and their need for socialization increases. They become more self-conscious and work on auto-regulating their behaviors to fit the society demands. This pressure and vulnerability would be an indicator for the exhibition of internalizing behaviors. They are vigilant to inter-personal relationships and become overwhelmed with the needed effort to cope with life stressors. Leadbeater (1995) reported that girls tend to experience sentiments such as guilt, hopelessness, worthlessness and inadequacy on a higher level than boys. These feelings were associated with internalizing behavior. Add to that adolescent girls are in always need for excessive close relationships. They are in permanent hunt for closeness due to their fear of abandonment (Leadbeater & al. 1999). This need to sustain close relationships prevents them from expressing frustration and anger overtly. They repress their feelings and express their resentment through depressive symptoms and anxiety. To explain the results by its contrast, boys tend not to internalize their behaviors as much as girls. This could be explained by the need of boys for self-assertion. This assertiveness is maintained by aggressive behaviors and power conflict. As a consequence they score higher on externalizing behavioral scale.

Our findings were similar to the Italian study that used the CBCL questionnaire to measure to which extent gender can affect the exhibition of pathological behaviors in adolescent boys and girls (Frigerio & al. 2005).

Concerning Lebanese culture, girls are being more repressed in their families and do not have the liberty to express their feelings the way boys do. The fact that boys are allowed to express their anger in our oriental mentality gives them the possibility not to repress their feelings and as a consequence, do not score high on the internalizing scale. On the other hand, anger and aggressive behaviors are accepted if displayed by boys. In addition, aggression is

becoming an accepted trend in our society and it reflects masculinity traits. As a consequence mothers may have not overestimated aggressive behaviors due to its increased presence when answering the CBCL questions. In contrast, girls have to be submissive and obey the father and the mother even when being offended. The outcome will be that adolescents' girls scored higher on the internalizing scale. Boys showed a significant result on the rule-breaking, a component of the externalizing scale. This proves that permissive parent exist, and boys tend to break limits more than girls. These findings go along with previous researches (Frigerio & al. 2005; Leadbeater & al. 1999).

Attachment style of mother and psychopathology in children

Despite the large body of studies that confirmed the presence of relation between the attachment style of mothers and the psychopathology of children, I wanted to prove further its relevance in the Lebanese culture.

Results in chapter four tended to confirm the following hypothesis: mothers with an insecure attachment style, in particular mothers with preoccupied or fearful attachment style, will be associated with internalizing and externalizing problem in their children. Fearful and preoccupied attachment styles of mothers turned to be the two predictors of the exhibition of externalizing and internalizing behavioral problems in both genders. These results were similar to those found in previous studies (Capozzi, & al.2007, Abela J.Z., & al. 2009).

I stated that attachment styles of mothers affect their parenting skills. It varies from being overprotective to careless. These attitudes affect the child's behaviors due to the insecure internal working models that have developed during childhood. When facing stressors, adolescents will

not be armed with the right defenses. As a consequence, internalizing and externalizing problems are exhibited.

Ainsworth (1978) classified attachments into three categories, secure, avoidant and ambivalent. She attributed to each style a cluster of characteristics reflecting the attitude that a mother will hold towards rearing her children. Baumrind (1966) associated these attachment styles to parenting style: authoritative, authoritarian and permissive. Authoritarian parents were associated with avoidant attachment, while the permissive style was associated with ambivalent attachment. As a consequence, we reviewed how attachment style will affect parenting styles and in parallel inducing behavioral maladjustment in children.

Fearful and preoccupied mothers are described as unresponsive towards their children, used harsh punishment, inconsistent and lacked unconditional love (Neal & Frick-Horbury, 2001). In return their children tend to be aggressive, isolate themselves from peers, become anxious and stay immature. The following theoretical framework provide a solid explanation to our results; the positive correlation between preoccupied attachment style and internalizing behaviors (for boys, $r = .486$ and for girls $r = .411$)

Bowlby (1988) mentioned that attachment behavior is an evolutionary adaptive process because it assured the protection of offspring from predators. Attachment figure, who could be the mother, taught infant various survival skills to overcome distressing situation (Ruiter & Marinus & Ijzendoorn, 1993). Our results suggest that preoccupied and fearful mothers did not teach their children the required skills to face emotional problem and as a consequence they are suffering from emotional and behavioral maladjustments.

Attachment perceived security and psychopathology in adolescence

We demonstrated previously how gender was considered a predictor factor in the development of psychopathology in adolescence. Our aim was to define other factors that can affect the display of behavioral problems in adolescence. For that reason, we considered the following variable: perceived security in parents. In the result section, we noticed that alienation was the predictor variable in the exhibition of externalizing problem in boys ($r=.349$, $df=3$, $p=.046$) and externalizing behaviors in girls ($r=.414$, $df=3$, $p=.031$). The following results go hand in hand with other relative studies (Muris & Van Den Burg, 2003). Even though the use scale of IPPA measures the perceived security in parents and not children attachment style, we had similar results with other studies (Ronnlund & Karlsson, 2006). Adolescents who do not perceive their parents as a secure base have developed a negative internal working model. The negative schema makes them perceive the other as a threatening source and in return they do not know how to handle relationships and life stressors. The results in the following study indicated that adolescent female slips into negative affect such as depression, withdrawal and anxiety, while adolescent male exhibits aggression and rule breaking behaviors.

Greenberg and Armsden (1987) conducted a study to look for the reliability of the IPPA questionnaire. The obtained results back then were consistent with the following study. Peer and parent attachment were positively correlated with subject well-being, self-esteem and life satisfaction. Individuals who scored high on the alienation subscale showed a high detachment from their family and were more vulnerable to the changes in the well-being. These findings provide a good theoretical framework to understand the results. Adolescents who scored high on the alienation subscale are more prone to show externalizing and internalizing behaviors. On the

opposite adolescents who were securely attached to their parents did not show any emotional maladjustment.

Another explanation to our results could be provided based on the work of Engels, Finkenauer & Deković (2001). Using the same instrument, the IPPA, they measured the quality of parental attachment and anxiety in performing social skills. They remarked that adolescents who scored high on both subscales trust and communication were not worried to engage in social activities and had a higher level of self-esteem and reported low scores on the depression scale. Once again, another confirmation was given indicating that attachment towards parents is a highly reliable predictor for psychopathology in children.

Parents are the providers of the secure base where children and adolescents go back each time they face life stressors to receive comfort and security. When Winnicott (1957) talked about holding, handling and the 'enough good mother', he emphasized the importance of physical warmth and the installation of a secure base that promote later individuation and separation. The provided security arms children and help them later on during adulthood to confront life while having high levels of resiliency. Adolescents who perceived their parents as an insecure base may have not experience a good holding and their mothers were not accurately responsive to their cries and needs.

Intergenerational attachment

In term of intergenerational attachment style during adolescence period, the perceived security in parents was associated with the style of attachment of mothers. In the previous section, results showed a non significant relation between the two variables in the male group,

but we had one exception in the female group. Daughters tend to perceive their parents as less trustworthy when the mothers show fearful style.

Literature review noticed two points of view. Crandell & al. (1997) showed that children have the same style of attachment of their mothers during early childhood. Then Roefols., Muris & Meesters (2007) assessed this dimension during adolescence. Results showed that there was a differentiation between styles of attachment. Our results were consistent with Roefols' study.

How could I explain that during childhood, children have the same attachment style of their mothers but this conclusion is not applicable to adolescence period? For that reason Massimo & al. (2000) demonstrated the presence of instability in attachment style. And here we may go back to Bowlby's work who emphasized in an advanced stage, the possibility of changes in internal working model of attachment during life transition periods.

What could be the theoretical components that have contributed to the following results? I believe that the period of adolescence has affected the transmission of attachment and I will develop this point from different perspectives.

From the psychodynamic perspective, the sample age range was between 10 and 14. During this period, a group of participants was going through the industry vs. inferiority in Erickson psycho-social stage, and another group was going through the stage of identity vs. role confusion. In both stages, participants are preparing themselves to reach adulthood period. During this period, identity transformation takes place and they seek for a definition of who they are and what they want to be, reaching equilibrium between what they want to be and what the society expect from them to be. This new identity could be different from what they have acquired during childhood. They are currently exploring a more independent self, to become

more differentiated and to establish a distance with their family of origins. They are seeking security from other figures, which could be their friends.

From the cognitive perspective, teenagers reach formal operational thinking which includes abstract and logical thinking. This cognitive development allows adolescents to restructure their childhood experiences and modify their state of mind concerning attachment (Cassidy & Shaver, 2008). They become able to define themselves apart from their figure of attachment due to their increased capacity of abstract thinking. As a consequence, the adolescents become able to view their attachment figures as a separate entity and draw critical thinking, seeing their parents in both positive and negative way. Their meta-cognitive skills become sufficient to perform a re-evaluation of their attachment styles.

Attachment processes in adolescence are totally different from those in childhood. Many factors contributed to this variation such as: individuation, gender identity, developed sexuality, becoming a care provider, self-criticism and openness to new relations with peers. They might have developed ego-resiliency and ego-control due to their cognitive maturation. It means that they have the capacity now to overcome stressful events seeking strength from their own flexibility to view the same situation as bad or good depending on their perspectives.

But why did I find a specific relation between fearful mothers and daughters' incapacity to trust their both parents. Why was this group of females not able to benefit from cognitive development and restructure their attachment styles? A similar finding was noticed in Kilman & Vendemia & Parnell & Urbaniak study (2009). Fearful mothers have difficulty in trusting others, relying on them and being scared to engage in close relationships. Adolescents' daughters who are overwhelmed with their pubertal changes and emotional instability could be affected by their mothers' insecurity putting them in a difficult position to overcome their identification figures

characteristics. Fearful mothers may have not introduced the father as a secure base since they are having difficulties in trusting their closest partner and as a consequence, girls will perceive their parents as untrustworthy.

Recommendations for further studies

For further studies in the domain of attachment, several proposals could be taken into consideration to avoid some methodological errors and open new domains of exploration. Concerning the sample, it will be better to use random sampling to be able to generalize the results. The sample age could be modified so the same study could be repeated on younger children to inspect similarity in results. Concerning the questionnaire, it could be interesting to use the IPPA in its three forms, one that assesses the perceived security in mothers, one in fathers and one in friends and then look for the type of attachment that could be established with each person.

This study inferred an important number of questions. In terms of understanding the absence of relation of mothers' attachment style on the perceived security in the couple, it would be interesting to find out the components that encouraged these changes? Could it be the presence of the father as a moderator in the couple? Or easier than that, is it the use of an inadequate instrument which should be replaced by a questionnaire that evaluates the same style of attachment in mothers such as secure, preoccupied, fearful and dismissing style?

Another conclusion was drawn: insecurely attached mothers induce in their children psychopathological problems. During the literature review, studies showed through neuro-imaging that the brain circuits are activated when a person sees the photo of his offspring or his

love partner (Shaver & Cassidy, p. 794). These activated brain circuits are the same that explained the process of addiction. It could be interesting in further studies to quest for a specific association between style of attachments and different types of addiction, since in neurosciences, attachment was linked to addiction.

Adolescent provided with a secure base will have the courage to explore the world and will be armed with high resiliency to face problem and solving it. An association between style of attachment of adolescents and cognitive development could be examined in up-coming studies. A hypothesis could be drawn saying that secure adolescents will achieve higher in solving problem and will be more willing to persist on solving a hard task.

Conclusion

Adolescence constitutes with no doubt a transition period escorted with several changes, physiological and emotional. During early adolescence, children start to function independently from their attachment figures. They go through a profound transformation from being a care beneficiary to a self-sufficient pre-adult who can engage in attachment relationships outside the circle of their close family. As a result, the perceived security in parents will not be affected by the mother's felt security.

In general, this study showed that even in the Lebanese culture, insecure internal working models of mothers affect children behaviors'. Preoccupied and fearful attachment styles of mothers are associated with maladaptive behavioral strategies. The inadaptability will induce the presence on internalizing and externalizing behaviors in both genders. In addition, adolescents who were not able to trust and communicate with their parents, showed alienation towards parents and had behavioral problems.

This study will help counselors to understand more the origins of behavioral problems of adolescents and make the therapy more oriented toward providing a secure base to these adolescents, teaching them resiliency skills and auto-regulating behaviors. It will help in understanding that the parents as a couple provide their children with the needed security and not the mother alone.

Finally, this study will increase the awareness concerning family dynamics and highlight the effect of parenting on children's development. Children do not inherit the genetic account but also the emotional and behavioral heritage as well, leaving for environmental factors, cognitive development and resiliency processes a large space to insure discontinuity of psychopathology.

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Inventory of peer and parent attachment (English version)

Scoring the IPPA-R

- All items are scored as 1 = Never True, 2 = Sometimes True, 3 = Always True
- Reversed items are reverse scored.
- Factors are as follows: [A = Alienation; C = Communication; T = Trust; * = On subsequent factor analyses item did not load sufficiently highly for inclusion]

Parent Scale Items

1. My parents respect my feelings - T
2. My parents are good parents - T
3. I wish I had different parents *
4. My parents accept me as I am. T
5. I can't depend on my parents to help me solve a problem. *
6. I like to get my parents' view on things I'm worried about. C
7. It does not help to show my feelings when I am upset. *
8. My parents can tell when I'm upset about something. C
9. I feel silly or ashamed when I talk about my problems with my parents. A
10. My parents expect too much from me. *
11. I easily get upset at home. A
12. I get upset a lot more than my parents know about. A
13. When I talk about things with my parents they listen to what I think. T
14. My parents listen to my opinions. T
15. My parents have their own problems, so I don't bother them with mine. *
16. My parents help me to understand myself better. C
17. I tell my parents about my problems and troubles. C
18. I feel angry with my parents. A

APPENDIX A

Inventory of peer and parent attachment (English version)

Scoring the IPPA-R

- All items are scored as 1 = Never True, 2 = Sometimes True, 3 = Always True
- Italicized items are reverse scored.
- Factors are as follows: [A = Alienation; C = Communication; T = Trust; * = On subsequent factor analyses item did not load sufficiently highly for inclusion].

Parent Scale Items

1. My parents respect my feelings - T
2. My parents are good parents - T
3. *I wish I had different parents* *
4. My parents accept me as I am. T
5. *I can't depend on my parents to help me solve a problem.* *
6. I like to get my parents' view on things I'm worried about. C
7. *It does not help to show my feelings when I am upset.* *
8. My parents can tell when I'm upset about something. C
9. *I feel silly or ashamed when I talk about my problems with my parents.* A
10. *My parents expect too much from me.* *
11. *I easily get upset at home.* A
12. *I get upset a lot more than my parents know about.* A
13. When I talk about things with my parents they listen to what I think. T
14. My parents listen to my opinions. T
15. *My parents have their own problems, so I don't bother them with mine.* *
16. My parents help me to understand myself better. C
17. I tell my parents about my problems and troubles. C
18. *I feel angry with my parents.* A

19. I don't get much attention at home. A *and poor attachment - Arabic version*

20. My parents support me to talk about my worries. C

21. My parents understand me. T

22. I don't know who I can depend on. A

23. When I am angry about something, my parents try to understand. T

24. I trust my parents. T

25. My parents don't understand my problems. A

26. I can count on my parents when I need to talk about a problem. C

27. No one understands me. A

28 If my parents know that I am upset about something, they ask me about it. C

1-	يستمع أباي لمشاكلي
2-	أبلي أهل جديين
3-	أبلي لو كان لدي أهل آخرين
4-	يتفاني أباي مثلاً
5-	لا أستطيع أن أتعهد على أباي ليساعدني على حل مشاكلي
6-	أحب أن أسمع وجهة نظر أباي في الآراء التي تفتني
7-	لا يساعدني أن أطلب مشاكلي عندما أأصعب
8-	يستطيع أباي أن يتحدثوا معي فكون غاضب من شيء ما
9-	أشعر بالأسف أو بالذنب عندما أتكلم عن مشاكلي مع أباي
10-	يتوقع أباي الكثير مني
11-	أأصعب بسرعة في البيت
12-	أأصعب كثيراً لكن أباي لا يلتفتون يوماً
13-	عندما أتكلم عن شيء ما مع أباي ينعصرون إلى أفكاره
14-	يستمع أباي إلى رأائي
15-	أباي لديهم الكثير من المشاكل لذا لا أزعجهم بمشاكلي
16-	يساعدني أباي لأنهم نفس أكثر
17-	أطلع أباي على مشاكلي
18-	أشعر بالأسف مع أباي
19-	لا أحصل على اهتمام كبير في المنزل
20-	يساندني أباي لأنكم عن مشاكلي

Inventory of parent and peer attachment - Arabic version

حضرة التلميذ الكريم

الرجاء الإجابة على الاسئلة التالية معبرا عن قناعتك تجاه اهلك.

دائما	أحيانا	أبدا	
			1- يحترم أهلي مشاعري
			2- أهلي أهل جبين
			3- أتمنى لو كان لدي أهل آخرين
			4- يتقبلني أهلي مثلما أنا
			5- لا أستطيع أن اعتمد على أهلي ليساعدوني على حل مشاكلي
			6- أحب أن أسمع وجهة نظر أهلي في الأشياء التي تقلقني
			7- لا يساعدني أن أظهر مشاعري عندما أغضب
			8- يستطيع أهلي أن يحددوا متى أكون غاضب من شيء ما
			9- أشعر بالسخر أو بالخجل عندما أتكلم عن مشاكلي مع أهلي
			10- يتوقع أهلي الكثير مني
			11- أغضب بسرعة في البيت
			12- أغضب كثيرا لكن أهلي لا يلاحظون دوما
			13- عندما أتكلم عن شيء ما مع أهلي يستمعون إلى أفكاري
			14- يستمع أهلي إلى آرائي
			15- أهلي لديهم الكثير من المشاكل لذا لا أعجبهم بمشاكلي
			16- يساعدني أهلي لأفهم نفسي أكثر
			17- أطلع أهلي على مشاكلي
			18- أشعر بالغضب مع أهلي
			19- لا أحصل على اهتمام كبير في المنزل
			20- يساندني أهلي لأتكلّم عن مشاكلي

			21- أهلي يفهموني
			22- لا ادري على من أعتمد
			23- عندما أكون غاضب من شيء ما يحاول أهلي تفهمي
			24- أثق بأهلي
			25- لا يفهم أهلي مشاكلي
			26- أستطيع الإعتماد على أهلي عندما أريد التكلم عن مشكلة
			27- لا احد يفهمني
			28- إذا علم أهلي أنني غاضب من شيء ما , يسألونني عنه

APPENDIX B

The attachment style questionnaire

The Attachment Style Questionnaire (Van Oudenhoven, Hofstra, & Bakker, 2003) used in the present research (items 3, 7, 15 were reversely keyed).

Secure attachment style

- 1. I feel at ease in emotional relationships
- 3. I feel uncomfortable when relationships with other people become close
- 7. I avoid close ties
- 9. I trust other people and I like it when other people can rely on me
- 12. I find it easy to get engaged in close relationships with other people
- 13. I feel at ease in intimate relationships
- 16. I think it is important that people can rely on each other
- 20. I trust that others will be there for me when I need them

Fearful attachment style

- 2. I would like to be open to others but I feel that I can't trust other people
- 4. I would like to have close relationships with other people but I find it difficult to fully trust them
- 18. I am afraid that I will be deceived when I get too close with others
- 21. I am wary to get engaged in close relationships because I am afraid to get hurt

Preoccupied attachment style

- 6. I often wonder whether people like me
- 8. I have the impression that usually I like others better than they like me
- 10. I am often afraid that other people don't like me
- 15. I don't worry whether people like me or not
- 19. I usually find other people more interesting than myself
- 22. It is important to me to know if others like me

Dismissing

- 5. I prefer that others are independent of me and I am independent of them
- 11. It is important to me to be independent
- 14. I like to be self-sufficient
- 17. I don't worry about being alone: I don't need other people that strongly

Attachment style questionnaire - Arabic version

حضرة الام الكريمة

أرجو من حضرتك الإجابة على هذه الاسئلة محوقة الرقم الذي يدل على قناعتك. شكرا لتعاونك.

الرقم:-----

العمر:-----

1- لا أوافق بشدة 2- لا أوافق 3- لا أوافق ولا أقبل 4- اوافق 5- اوافق بشدة

5	4	3	2	1	
					1- اشعر بالراحة في العلاقات العاطفية مع أهلي، أصدقائي، عائلتي.
					2- ارجب بالإفتاح على الآخرين لكن اشعر بأنني لا استطيع الوثوق بهم
					3- اشعر بعدم الإرتياح عندما تصبح العلاقات مع الآخرين وثيقة
					4- أرجب بالحصول على علاقات وثيقة مع الآخرين لكن أجد صعوبة بالوثوق بهم كليا
					5- افضل أن أكون مستقلة عن الآخرين وهم أيضا مستقلين عني
					6- اتسأل دوما إن كان الناس يستلطفونني
					7- اتجنب الروابط الوثيقة
					8- لدي إنطباع أنني استلطف الآخرين أكثر مما هم يستلطفونني
					9- أثق بالآخرين ويعجبني عندما يعتمدون عليّ
					10- انا أخائف دائما من أن يكون الآخرين لا يحبونني
					11- من المهم بالنسبة لي أن أكون مستقلة
					12- أجد أنه من السهل أن أنمي علاقات وثيقة مع الآخرين
					13- أشعر بالارتياح في العلاقات الحميمة مع الاشخاص المقربين مني مثل أهلي، أصدقائي، عائلتي.
					14- احب أن يكون لدي اكتفاء ذاتي
					15- لا أكثرث إن كان الآخرين يستلطفونني أم لا
					16- أعتقد أنه من المهم أن يعتمد الناس على بعضهم البعض
					17- لا أقلق من البقاء وحيدة: لا احتاج للآخرين
					18- أخاف من أن يخيب ظني عندما أقرب من الآخرين
					19- غالبا اجد الآخرين شيقين أكثر مني
					20- أثق بأن الآخرين سيكونون بجانبني عندما أحتاجهم
					21- انا حذرة من الدخول بعلاقات حميمة (مقربة) مع من هم حولي خوفا من التعرض للأذى
					22- من المهم بالنسبة لي أن اعرف إن كان الآخرين يستلطفونني

APPENDIX C

حضرة الام الكريمة

هذه لائحة من العبارات التي تصف الأطفال والشباب. الرجاء وضع دائرة لكل عبارة تصف طفلك في الوقت الحالي أو تصف تصرفاته خلال الأشهر الستة الماضية. الرجاء وضع دائرة على رقم 0 1 2 بحسب مدى انطباقها على طفلك. الرجاء الإجابة بدقة على الاسئلة. **0-لا تنطبق** **1-تنطبق احيانا** **2-تنطبق دائما**

الرقم:-----

عمر الام:-----

الصف:-----

عمر الطفل:-----

2	1	0	18 يؤدي نفسه عمدا أو يحاول الإنتحار	2	1	0	1 تصرفاته اصغر من سنه
2	1	0	19 يطلب الكثير من الاهتمام	2	1	0	2 يشرب الكحول
2	1	0	20 يتلف أو يكسر الأشياء التي يمتلكها	2	1	0	3 يجادل كثيرا
2	1	0	21 يتلف أو يكسر الأشياء التي تمتلكها الاسرة أو الأشخاص الآخرين	2	1	0	4 لا ينهي الشيء الذي بدأ فيه
2	1	0	22 غير مطيع في المنزل	2	1	0	5 هناك أشياء قليلة يستمتع بالقيام بها
2	1	0	23 غير مطيع في المدرسة	2	1	0	6 لا يبرز في المكان المناسب
2	1	0	24 اكله أو شهيته ضعيفة	2	1	0	7 يتباهى بافتخار وتبجح
2	1	0	25 يجد صعوبة في التعامل مع الاطفال الآخرين	2	1	0	8 لا يستطيع التركيز والانتباه لوقت طويل
2	1	0	26 لا يشعر بالذنب أو الندم بعد أن يتصرف تصرفا خاطئا	2	1	0	9 لا يستطيع التخلص من افكار معينة هواجس
2	1	0	27 شديد وسهل الغيرة	2	1	0	10 لا يستطيع الجلوس هادئا أو نشاطه زائد
2	1	0	28 يخالف القوانين في المنزل, المدرسة أو الأماكن الاخرة	2	1	0	11 شديد التعلق بالكبار أو كثير الإعتماد على الآخرين
2	1	0	29 يخاف من بعض الحيوانات, المواقف أو الأماكن غير المدرسة	2	1	0	12 يشكو من الوحدة
2	1	0	30 يخاف أو يخشى الذهاب إلى المدرسة	2	1	0	13 مرتبك ويبدو كأنه في حيرة
2	1	0	31 يخشى ان يفكر أو يفعل شيئا قبيحا	2	1	0	14 يبكي كثيرا
2	1	0	32 يشعر بأن عليه أن يكون مثالي	2	1	0	15 يعامل الحيوانات بقسوة
2	1	0	33 يشعر أو يتذمر بأنه غير محبوب من	2	1	0	16 قاسي , يضايق الآخرين أو يتنمر على

من هو اضعف منه			الآخرين							
0	1	2	17 يعيش في الخيال لمدة طويلة ويحلم باليقظة	0	1	2	34 يشعر بأن الآخرين يلاحقونه	0	1	2
0	1	2	35 يشعر أن لا قيمة له أو أنه اقل قيمة من زملائه	0	1	2	د- مشاكل نظر	0	1	2
0	1	2	36 كثير الإصابات ومعرض للحوادث اكثر من العادي	0	1	2	هـ- طفح جلدي أو أمراض جلدية	0	1	2
0	1	2	37 يدخل في مشاجرات كثيرة	0	1	2	و- مغص في المعدة	0	1	2
0	1	2	38 يميل الآخرين إلى إغاظته كثيرا	0	1	2	ز- استفراغ	0	1	2
0	1	2	39 يرافق اولاد كثيري المشاكل	0	1	2	57 - يهاجم الناس جسديا	0	1	2
0	1	2	40 يسمع أصوات غير موجودة	0	1	2	58 - يضع اصبعه في أنفه, ينكش جلده, أو مواقع أخرى في جسمه	0	1	2
0	1	2	41 مندفع ويتصرف من دون تفكير	0	1	2	59 - يلعب في أعضائه الجنسية في الاماكن العامة	0	1	2
0	1	2	42 يفضل الوحدة على التواجد مع الآخرين	0	1	2	60 يلعب في أعضائه الجنسية كثيرا	0	1	2
0	1	2	43 يكذب أو يغش	0	1	2	61 ضعيف التحصيل في المدرسة	0	1	2
0	1	2	44 يقضم اظافره	0	1	2	62 حركاته غير منسقة	0	1	2
0	1	2	45 عصبي أو حد المزاج	0	1	2	63 يفضل المكوث مع أولاد أكبر من سنه	0	1	2
0	1	2	46 حركات عصبية أو رفات أو رعشات	0	1	2	64- يفضل المكوث مع أولاد أصغر من سنه	0	1	2
0	1	2	47 يحلم بالكوابيس	0	1	2	65 يرفض التكلم	0	1	2
0	1	2	48 غير محبوب من قبل الأطفال الآخرين	0	1	2	66 يقوم بتكرار حركات معينة	0	1	2
0	1	2	49 عنده امساك	0	1	2	67 يهرب من المنزل	0	1	2
0	1	2	50 كثير الخوف والقلق	0	1	2	68 يصرخ كثيرا	0	1	2
0	1	2	51 يشعر بالدوخة	0	1	2	69 يفضل ان يحتفظ بأسراره	0	1	2
0	1	2	52 لديه شعور شديد بالذنب	0	1	2	70 يرى اشياء غير موجودة	0	1	2
0	1	2	53 يأكل اكثر من اللازم	0	1	2	71 يرتبك ويخلج بسهولة امام الآخرين	0	1	2
0	1	2	54 كثير التعب والإرهاق من دون سبب	0	1	2	72 لديه ميل لاشعال الحرائق	0	1	2

واضح							
2	1	0	73 مشاكل جنسية	2	1	0	55 وزنه فوق المعدل الطبيعي
2	1	0	74 يحب التهريج ليلفت النظر اليه	56 يعاني مشاكل صحية من دون سبب طبي معروف:			
2	1	0	75 خجول	2	1	0	أ- الام واوجاع غير الصداع والمغص
2	1	0	76 ينام اقل من معظم أطفال	2	1	0	ب- صداع
2	1	0		2	1	0	ج- دوخة غثيان

2	1	0	102 غير نشيط, بطيء وفاقد الحيوية	2	1	0	77 ينام أكثر من اللازم أثناء الليل أو النهار
2	1	0	103 غير سعيد مكتئب أو حزين	2	1	0	78 قليل الإنتباه أو سهل صرف إنتباهه
2	1	0	104 يحدث الضوضاء بصورة شاذة	2	1	0	79 مشاكل في الكلام
2	1	0	105 يأخذ مخدرات لأسباب غير طبية	2	1	0	80 يحملق سارحا
2	1	0	106 تخريب متعمد للممتلكات العامة أو الخاصة	2	1	0	81 يسرق في المنزل
2	1	0	107 يبول على نفسه أثناء النهار	2	1	0	82 يسرق خارج المنزل
2	1	0	108 يبول على نفسه أثناء الليل	2	1	0	83 يخزن ويحتفظ بأشياء لا يحتاجها
2	1	0	109 يئن ويئن أثناء البكاء	2	1	0	84 سلوكيات غريبة وشاذة
2	1	0	110 يتمنى ان يكون من الجنس الآخر	2	1	0	85 أفكار غريبة وشاذة
2	1	0	111 منطوي وانعزالي لا يختلط مع الآخرين	2	1	0	86 عنيد, نكدي أو سريع التهيج
2	1	0	112 كثير القلق	2	1	0	87 تحدث له تغيرات فجائية في مزاجه أو مشاعره
				2	1	0	88 عابس ومتجهم كثيرا
				2	1	0	89 كثير الشك
				2	1	0	90 يشتم ويستخدم الفاظ قبيحة
				2	1	0	91 يتكلم عن الإنتحار
				2	1	0	92 يتكلم أو يمشي في النوم دون ان يشعر
				2	1	0	93 يتكلم كثيرا
				2	1	0	94 كثير المضايقة من حوله
				2	1	0	95 نوبات غضب أو مزاج حاد

2	1	0	96 يفكر في الجنس كثيرا
2	1	0	97 يهدد الناس
2	1	0	98 يمص ابهامه او اصابعه
2	1	0	99 يدخن سجائر
2	1	0	100 نومه مضطرب
2	1	0	101 يهرب من المدرسة أو يتغيب عنها

Authorization to use the CBCL questionnaire

9. General

- (a) Each party acknowledges that it has read this Agreement, it understands it, and agrees to be bound by its terms, and further agrees that this is the complete and exclusive statement of the Agreement between the parties, which supersedes and merges all prior proposals, understandings and all other agreements, oral and written, between the parties relating to this Agreement. This Agreement may not be modified or altered except by written instrument duly executed by both parties.
- (b) Dates or times by which Licensor is required to make performance under this license shall be postponed automatically to the extent that Licensor is prevented from meeting them by causes beyond its reasonable control.
- (c) This Agreement and performance hereunder shall be governed by the laws of the State of Vermont.
- (d) No action, regardless of form, arising out of this Agreement may be brought by Licensee more than two years after the cause of action has arisen.
- (e) If any provision of this Agreement is invalid under any applicable statute or rule of law, it is to the extent to be deemed omitted.
- (f) The Licensee may not assign or sub-license, without the prior written consent of Licensor, its rights, duties or obligations under this Agreement to any person or entity, in whole or in part.
- (g) Licensor shall have the right to collect from Licensee its reasonable expenses incurred in enforcing this agreement, including attorney's fees.
- (h) The waiver or failure of Licensor to exercise in any respect any right provided for herein shall not be deemed a waiver of any further right hereunder.

Accepted and Agreed to:

LICENSOR:

Thomas M. Achenbach, Ph.D.

signature: T.M. Achenbach / RS

Title: Professor

Date: February 25, 2010

For License # 443-02-22-10

Accepted and Agreed to:

LICENSEE:

Carla Chedid

Signature: [Signature]

Print name: CARLA CHEDID

Title: MA Clinical Psychology

Address: LEBANON

Date: 24 - 2 - 2010

APPENDIX D

Table 1: Correlational table for hypothesis 1

Correlations: male group

		EXTERNALIZING	INTERNALIZING	SECURE	FEARFUL	PREOCCUPIED	DISMISSING
EXTERNALIZING	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.355**	.050	.087	.063	.006
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.002	.670	.460	.599	.958
	N	77	77	74	74	73	75
INTERNALIZING	Pearson Correlation	.355**	1.000	-.179	.486**	.208	.190
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.	.120	.000	.072	.097
	N	77	80	77	76	76	78
SECURE	Pearson Correlation	.050	-.179	1.000	-.324**	.029	-.041
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.670	.120	.	.005	.803	.723
	N	74	77	77	74	74	76
FEARFUL	Pearson Correlation	.087	.486**	-.324**	1.000	.357**	.355**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.460	.000	.005	.	.002	.002
	N	74	76	74	76	74	76
PREOCCUPIED	Pearson Correlation	.063	.208	.029	.357**	1.000	.145
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.599	.072	.803	.002	.	.213
	N	73	76	74	74	76	76
DISMISSING	Pearson Correlation	.006	.190	-.041	.355**	.145	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.958	.097	.723	.002	.213	.
	N	75	78	76	76	76	78

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations: female group

		EXTERNALIZING	INTERNALIZING	SECURE	FEARFUL	PREOCCUPIED	DISMISSING
EXTERNALIZING	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.661**	-.094	.411**	.207	.282*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.500	.002	.129	.036
	N	56	55	54	53	55	56
INTERNALIZING	Pearson Correlation	.661**	1.000	-.067	.551**	.425**	.158
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.626	.000	.001	.235
	N	55	58	55	54	57	58
SECURE	Pearson Correlation	-.094	-.067	1.000	.059	-.099	-.149
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.500	.626	.	.676	.470	.273
	N	54	55	56	53	56	56
FEARFUL	Pearson Correlation	.411**	.551**	.059	1.000	.376**	-.007
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.676	.	.005	.962
	N	53	54	53	55	55	55
PREOCCUPIED	Pearson Correlation	.207	.425**	-.099	.376**	1.000	.205
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.129	.001	.470	.005	.	.122
	N	55	57	56	55	58	58
DISMISSING	Pearson Correlation	.282*	.158	-.149	-.007	.205	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.036	.235	.273	.962	.122	.
	N	56	58	56	55	58	59

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix E

Table 2: Regression table for hypothesis 1

Coefficients^a

gender	Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
			B	Std. Error	Beta		
male	1	(Constant)	3.227	8.641		.373	.710
		SECURE	.136	.213	.084	.641	.524
		FEARFUL	.248	.314	.118	.788	.433
		PREOCCUPIED	4.887E-02	.222	.029	.220	.826
		DISMISSING	-8.47E-02	.391	-.029	-.217	.829
female	1	(Constant)	-13.679	10.475		-1.306	.198
		SECURE	-.113	.242	-.060	-.469	.641
		FEARFUL	.997	.319	.431	3.122	.003
		PREOCCUPIED	-5.86E-02	.276	-.030	-.212	.833
		DISMISSING	1.015	.512	.259	1.983	.053

a. Dependent Variable: EXTERNALIZING

Coefficients^a

gender	Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
			B	Std. Error	Beta		
male	1	(Constant)	2.197	5.705		.385	.701
		SECURE	-6.53E-02	.142	-.052	-.459	.648
		FEARFUL	.729	.211	.450	3.463	.001
		PREOCCUPIED	7.113E-02	.141	.059	.506	.615
		DISMISSING	4.212E-02	.251	.019	.168	.867
female	1	(Constant)	-14.177	11.200		-1.266	.212
		SECURE	-.101	.252	-.047	-.403	.689
		FEARFUL	1.212	.325	.462	3.729	.001
		PREOCCUPIED	.580	.284	.256	2.043	.047
		DISMISSING	.386	.520	.087	.741	.462

a. Dependent Variable: INTERNALIZING

Appendix F

Table 3: Correlational table for hypothesis 2

Correlations: male group

		EXTERNA LIZING	INTERNA LIZING	TRUST	COMMUNI CATION	ALIENATI ON
EXTERNALIZING	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.355**	-.271*	-.232*	.354**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.002	.018	.046	.002
	N	77	77	75	74	75
INTERNALIZING	Pearson Correlation	.355**	1.000	.046	.085	-.034
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.	.691	.462	.768
	N	77	80	78	77	77
TRUST	Pearson Correlation	-.271*	.046	1.000	.466**	-.471**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.018	.691	.	.000	.000
	N	75	78	78	76	76
COMMUNICATION	Pearson Correlation	-.232*	.085	.466**	1.000	-.633**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.046	.462	.000	.	.000
	N	74	77	76	77	75
ALIENATION	Pearson Correlation	.354**	-.034	-.471**	-.633**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.768	.000	.000	.
	N	75	77	76	75	77

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlations: female group

		EXTERNA LIZING	INTERNA LIZING	TRUST	COMMUNI CATION	ALIENATI ON
EXTERNALIZING	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.661**	-.270*	-.124	.234
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000	.044	.370	.086
	N	56	55	56	54	55
INTERNALIZING	Pearson Correlation	.661**	1.000	-.152	-.050	.239
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.	.255	.713	.073
	N	55	58	58	56	57
TRUST	Pearson Correlation	-.270*	-.152	1.000	.827**	-.813**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.044	.255	.	.000	.000
	N	56	58	59	57	53
COMMUNICATION	Pearson Correlation	-.124	-.050	.827**	1.000	-.784**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.370	.713	.000	.	.000
	N	54	56	57	57	56
ALIENATION	Pearson Correlation	.234	.239	-.813**	-.784**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.086	.073	.000	.000	.
	N	55	57	58	56	53

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix G

Table 4: Regression table for hypothesis 2

Coefficients ^a							
gender	Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
			B	Std. Error	Beta		
male	1	(Constant)	16.168	11.752		1.376	.173
		TRUST	-.172	.311	-.077	-.554	.582
		COMMUNICATION	4.143E-02	.290	.022	.143	.887
		ALIENATION	-.128	.272	-.076	-.471	.639
female	1	(Constant)	-20.019	22.185		-.902	.371
		TRUST	-.395	.696	-.147	-.567	.573
		COMMUNICATION	1.029	.576	.456	1.787	.080
		ALIENATION	1.348	.661	.501	2.041	.046

a. Dependent Variable: INTERNALIZING

Coefficients ^a							
gender	Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
			B	Std. Error	Beta		
male	1	(Constant)	8.692	13.850		.628	.532
		TRUST	-.402	.359	-.145	-1.120	.267
		COMMUNICATION	5.890E-02	.333	.026	.177	.860
		ALIENATION	.726	.330	.337	2.204	.031
female	1	(Constant)	13.061	21.531		.607	.547
		TRUST	-1.193	.681	-.466	-1.752	.086
		COMMUNICATION	.742	.543	.341	1.366	.178
		ALIENATION	.340	.631	.134	.538	.593

a. Dependent Variable: EXTERNALIZING

Appendix H

Table 5: Correlational table for hypothesis 3

Correlations: male group

		TRUST	COMMUNI CATION	ALIENATI ON	SECURE	FEARFUL	PREOCU PIED	DISMISSI NG
TRUST	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.466**	-.471**	-.132	.195	-.045	.075
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.258	.096	.706	.520
	N	78	76	76	75	74	74	76
COMMUNICATION	Pearson Correlation	.466**	1.000	-.633**	-.053	.127	-.104	.068
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.656	.283	.382	.565
	N	76	77	75	74	73	73	75
ALIENATION	Pearson Correlation	-.471**	-.633**	1.000	.079	-.096	.056	-.144
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.502	.420	.640	.218
	N	76	75	77	74	73	73	75
SECURE	Pearson Correlation	-.132	-.053	.079	1.000	-.324**	.029	-.041
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.258	.656	.502		.005	.803	.723
	N	75	74	74	77	74	74	76
FEARFUL	Pearson Correlation	.195	.127	-.096	-.324**	1.000	.357**	.355**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.096	.283	.420	.005		.002	.002
	N	74	73	73	74	76	74	76
PREOCCUPIED	Pearson Correlation	-.045	-.104	.056	.029	.357**	1.000	.145
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.706	.382	.640	.803	.002		.213
	N	74	73	73	74	74	76	76
DISMISSING	Pearson Correlation	.075	.068	-.144	-.041	.355**	.145	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.520	.565	.218	.723	.002	.213	
	N	76	75	75	76	76	76	78

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Correlations: female group

		TRUST	COMMUNI CATION	ALIENATI ON	SECURE	FEARFUL	PREOCU PIED	DISMISSI NG
TRUST	Pearson Correlation	1.000	.827**	-.813**	-.082	-.305*	.012	.022
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.547	.023	.929	.869
	N	59	57	58	56	55	58	59
COMMUNICATION	Pearson Correlation	.827**	1.000	-.784**	-.052	-.126	.078	.072
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.710	.369	.566	.594
	N	57	57	56	54	53	56	57
ALIENATION	Pearson Correlation	-.813**	-.784**	1.000	-.035	.231	.038	.019
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.802	.093	.781	.838
	N	58	56	58	55	54	57	58
SECURE	Pearson Correlation	-.082	-.052	-.035	1.000	.059	-.099	-.149
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.547	.710	.802		.676	.470	.273
	N	56	54	55	56	53	56	56
FEARFUL	Pearson Correlation	-.305*	-.126	.231	.059	1.000	.376**	-.007
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.023	.369	.093	.676		.005	.962
	N	55	53	54	53	55	55	55
PREOCCUPIED	Pearson Correlation	.012	.078	.038	-.099	.376**	1.000	.205
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.929	.566	.781	.470	.005		.122
	N	58	56	57	56	55	58	58
DISMISSING	Pearson Correlation	.022	.072	.019	-.149	-.007	.205	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.869	.594	.888	.273	.962	.122	
	N	59	57	58	56	55	58	59

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix I

Table 6: Independent Samples Test, hypothesis 4

Group Statistics

gender		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
EXTERNALIZING	male	77	10.3766	6.9775	.7952
	female	56	8.2321	8.0589	1.0769
INTERNALIZING	male	80	11.3750	5.6823	.6353
	female	58	12.6379	8.4182	1.1054

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
EXTERNALIZING	Equal variances assumed	.191	.663	1.639	131	.104	2.1445	1.3085	-.4441	4.7330
	Equal variances not assumed			1.602	108.072	.112	2.1445	1.3387	-.5090	4.7979
INTERNALIZING	Equal variances assumed	5.889	.017	-1.052	136	.295	-1.2629	1.2005	-3.6370	1.1111
	Equal variances not assumed			-.991	93.514	.324	-1.2629	1.2749	-3.7945	1.2686