

Will the Real Quality Relationship Please Stand-Up?
Self-Reports of Attachment Type, Parenting-Style, and Conflict
Resolution between Parents
and Young-Adults.

A Thesis
Submitted to the Centre for Research in Human Development
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts

by

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Sudbury, Ontario,
April 1997.

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Acknowledgments

To my Dad,
to confirm what he knew - and did - all along,
and for his successes as a great parent, despite the odds;

To Jessica,
with the hope that this knowledge
will make her Mom and Dad, and others, better parents;

and to my wife and partner, Heidi,
first for our daughter; but mainly for her support
and understanding throughout this long process.

In addition, I would like offer a sincere Thank You to:

The adolescents and young-adults who, through their participation in this research, shared with us the often very personal details about their relationships with their parents.

My Thesis Committee - Dr. Brian Bigelow, Dr. Elaine Porter and Dr. Alan Salmoni - for believing in the theoretical argument, and for their comments on seemingly endless re-writes.

My extended thesis committee - Dr. Mike Pratt (Wilfrid Laurier), Dr. James Youniss (Catholic University of America), Dr. Ellen Greenberger (University of California at Irvine), and Dr. Rashmi Garg (Laurentian University) for their valuable assistance.

My friends Laura Baker, Sara Beck, Craig Borysowich, Cam McRae, Janice Ransom, and others for the late-night phone calls, research assistance, comments on the PAYARQ, and editing (& re-editing) of the manuscript, but mostly for their continued encouragement & friendship.

The Institute of Northern Ontario Research and Development (INORD)
for the supporting this research by awarding the author a Research Grant.

"The greatest emotions are always expressed in silence."

Abstract

This research suggests that the resolution of conflict occurs in only certain types of parent-adolescent/young-adult relationships. Older-adolescents and young-adults (N=252) completed an open-ended and qualitatively informed questionnaire regarding conflicts and conflict resolution strategies with their parents. Results were analyzed by attachment type and parenting-style, and supported all hypotheses. In general, securely attached and authoritatively parented participants reported no differences in total conflicts with parents, but resolved significantly more conflicts by coming to a mutual consensus, compared to insecure/authoritarians who reported that the young-adult usually prevailed. A relationship rapprochement with the parent is more likely to occur in secure/authoritative relationships that have resolved conflicts. A link, from a synthesis of past research and results of this study, was proposed between attachment type and parenting-style, suggesting that these two constructs are parts of a single underlying construct, referred to as relationship quality. The discussion focused on this link, suggestions for improving parent-adolescent/young adult relationships, and the promise of these findings for future research.

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Introduction

“You can choose your friends, but you can’t choose your family.” My grandmother offered those words of advice to me many years ago. Advice that is still true today, for family relationships, by their very nature, are compulsory. So, being ‘stuck with’ one’s family can at times be a blessing, while at other times it can be a curse. This is true particularly during adolescence when the level of family conflict between parents and adolescents has been suggested by some research to be relatively high (Montemayor & Flannery, 1991).

Casual observation tells us that some parents and their adolescents ‘get along’ relatively well with one another, while others do not, and that this trend continues into adulthood, with some parents and their now adult-children ‘getting along’ while others do not. Some have quality relationships while others do not. The question is why. What makes these two heuristically-labeled groups different from one another? How do adolescents and young-adults interact in relationships with parents with whom they do not, or cannot, ‘get along’? What happens to the parent-adolescent/young-adult relationship as a result?

Everyone is involved in many different relationships in their lives, of which the parent-adolescent/young-adult relationship is just one. When any of these other relationships reach a point where the participants are no longer ‘getting along’ with others in the relationship, they have two options. They can address the major issues and resolve them, or they can end the relationship. In either case, the issues usually cease to exist.

Such is not necessarily the case in parent-adolescent relationships. The option of ending this compulsory relationship because participants cannot ‘get along’ does not exist. We can never really end the relationship with our parents. To us, they will always be our parents, and to them we will always, and sometimes even affectionately, be referred to as their children. Thus, if not resolved, the major issues in these relationships do not just go away, rather they carryover into adulthood, becoming the topic of books about ‘making peace’ with one’s parents (e.g., Bloomfield, 1983) and with one’s adult children (e.g., Smith, 1991); “For it is usually not that we want to relate to our parents as little children, but as one adult to another” (Halpern, 1977, p. 220).

Major issues in parent-adolescent relationships often involve conflict, or as Shantz (1987) has put it, competing goals. Indeed, conflict is a component of, and has been used in part to describe many different types of relationships (e.g., friends, teacher-student, employee-employer, parents-children) (Bigelow, Tesson, & Lewko, 1992). Thus, it seems conflict is an inherent part of almost every relationship. Conflict has been operationally defined throughout the literature in various ways (see Laursen & Collins (1994) for a review of this contentious issue). For the present study, conflict refers to issues that participants self-define (cf. Smetana, 1989) as being important to them, or that keep coming up over and over again, in their relationships with their parents.

Some research has found the peak of parent-adolescent conflict to occur in early- to mid-adolescence (Bigelow, Levin, & Cuning, 1994; Furman & Buhrmeister, 1992). By late-adolescence, other research finds that parents and adolescents usually have a more egalitarian, or friend-like relationship (Youniss & Smollar, 1985). So, the question is: "How do those parents and adolescents who were in conflict with one another become friend-like?" To be sure, not everyone becomes friends with their parents. Obviously, something happens in the relationship during adolescence that either reduces the level of conflict or perpetuates it. Laursen and Collins (1994) suggested that it is not conflicts per se, which damage relationships, instead it is those conflicts which remain unresolved over long periods of time. Thus, while studying conflict in parent-adolescent relationships has been useful in the past (e.g., Smetana, 1989), the current study suggested that studying participants' reports of conflict resolution in these relationships might be much more informative, especially with regards to the outcome of these relationships in later-adolescence and early-adulthood. In referring to the time period of late-adolescence and early-adulthood, that is the ages 18 to 26, this study referred to late adolescents and young adults collectively as young adults.

Which parent-adolescent relationships by late-adolescence/early-adulthood achieve the outcome of conflict resolution between the participants? How do these relationships differ from those which do not achieve conflict resolution? What are the key features of these relationships which promote the resolution of conflict, and which features interfere, hinder or prevent conflict from being resolved? The present study is directed at

understanding the parent/young-adult relationship from the differential approaches of attachment type and parenting-style in an effort to uncloak these features and thus ultimately to begin to answer these questions.

Literature Review

Whether or not conflict with parents reaches a peak in adolescence is a hotly debated topic within the literature. Conflict however, is a relational construct (Bigelow, Levin, & Cuning, 1994). That is, we require another person in order to be in conflict; we cannot be in conflict alone. When viewed from a social-relations perspective, which emphasizes developmental continuity and gradual change in the context of maintained close relationships, conflict has a clearly defined developmental pattern. According to Blos (1967), one of the main goals of adolescence is individuation, which is often achieved through conflict between adolescents and parents. The current study addresses the question of why some parent/young-adult dyads resolve the conflicts between them while others do not, by examining conflict, and more importantly the resolution of conflict, in different types of parent/young-adult relationships.

Conflict in Adolescence

Laursen and Collins (1994) reviewed the literature on conflict in adolescence and found a lack of consistent empirical support for heightened conflict levels during adolescence. They concluded that this research is inconsistent largely due to wide variations in methodology. Qualitative methods (e.g., interviews) find this age-related peak, and thus appear sensitive to the changes theorized to occur in parent-adolescent relationships during this time, while quantitative methods (e.g., the number of minutes spent in conflict) do not.

Social relations research shows age-related changes in the intensity of conflict throughout adolescence. Using essays, Bigelow et al. (1994) found that parent-adolescent conflict escalates in early adolescence, as parents initially resist, before they eventually relinquish age-appropriate control over to their children (Maccoby, 1984; Minuchin, 1985). Using questionnaires, Furman and Buhrmeister (1992) found that relational conflict, as well as the perceived power that parents have, both reach their peak in early-to mid-adolescence. Similarly, Youniss and Smollar (1985) indicated that by late-

adolescence, the parent-adolescent relationship has become more peer-like, and that control within the relationship is more egalitarian, or shared, between the participants.

Since conflicts frequently reduce interactions between parents and adolescents (Laursen & Collins, 1994), we can infer from Youniss and Smollar's (1985) finding that conflict levels may have significantly decreased by late-adolescence, as a function of increased closeness, although these authors did not measure conflict directly. These three selected studies, among others examining parent-adolescent relationships, indicate a developmental trend of increased conflict in early adolescence and reduced conflict in late-adolescence.

Consistent with this perspective, Collins and Laursen (1992) suggested that conflict is best understood as a function of (i.e., the interactions between) the participants in the relationship, rather than attributing the source of the conflict to characteristics (i.e., personality, temperament, etc.) of the individuals themselves. It follows then that to best understand conflict and conflict resolution, research might be most successful in looking at the features of relationships. Thus far, research has not done this in sufficient depth, and I contend that it is partly for this reason that Laursen and Collins (1994) found the literature to be inconsistent. I suggest that it is no longer sufficient to examine parent-child/adolescent relationships from the standpoint of gender alone (i.e., mother-son, father-daughter, etc., cf. Youniss & Smollar, 1985). Rather, research has to go further by examining relationships according to their features within these gender subgroups in terms of salient conflict content, and by so doing attend to the different types of relationships which we know (through casual observation) to exist. So, a concern of this thesis was to begin to understand what features of parent-adolescent relationships are likely to contribute to the resolution of parent/young-adult conflict in terms which are meaningful to the participants. Two features which are central to these relationships are parenting-style and attachment type.

Parenting-Style

Elder (1962) first proposed that there may be structural differences in the ways that parents raise their children. Baumrind (1971; 1991) characterized parenting-style on

two dimensions: support and control. Authoritative parents score high on control, but also high in support of their adolescents. They firmly control their adolescents, and warmly respond to their needs, while always encouraging democratic give-and-take in the relationship. Authoritarian parents score high on control, but low in support. They often do not explain their rules, instead expecting adolescents merely to comply. Permissive parents are the opposite, scoring low on control, but high in support. These parents exercise almost no control over their adolescents, often giving them whatever they ask for. Rejecting-neglecting parents score low on both dimensions, and rarely control or respond to their adolescents' needs.

Baumrind (1971; 1972; 1989; 1991), along with other researchers (e.g., Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989), clearly identified differential outcomes in children and adolescents in many areas (e.g., school performance, social competency, self-esteem, etc.) as a function of parenting-styles. In fact, after twenty years of research, Baumrind (1991) concluded that, in general, adolescent development is enhanced by the reciprocal and balanced interactions of authoritative parents, and hindered by the directive or detached interactions of less democratic parents. For example, Fuligni and Eccles (1993) studied conflict in early-adolescence and found that those early-adolescents who perceived their parents as highly controlling, and who found few opportunities to participate in decision making, had an extreme peer orientation. That is, they became overly-involved with their peers, (i.e., spending time, seeking career advice, etc.), in turn distancing themselves from their parents, and rupturing the parent-adolescent relationship somewhat pre-maturely.

For the more verbally (versus behaviourally) based relationships of adolescence and adulthood (cf. Duck, 1995), one of the areas where these parenting-styles differ is in the amount and method of communication between the parent and the adolescent. If adolescents who perceive few opportunities to communicate with their parents regarding family decisions turn to their friends, and this in turn creates conflict within the parent-adolescent relationship (Fuligni & Eccles, 1993; Smetana, 1987); and if conflicts further reduce interactions between parents and adolescents (Laursen & Collins, 1994), then it follows that different types of parenting-styles may influence how conflict is resolved, or not resolved, within the parent/young-adult relationship. I suggest that authoritatively

raised adolescents, by the nature of the democratic and open communication they have with their parents, would be in a relatively advantaged position from which to resolve conflicts with these parents, compared to adolescents raised under other parenting-styles.

Attachment Type

Freud (1923) first suggested that the relationship between a mother and her child has effects which can be seen throughout the lifespan. Bowlby (1969) conceptualized this bond, or connection, between an infant and her caregiver as attachment, and suggested that infants form internal working models of this bond based on their own unique experiences. Ainsworth and her colleagues (Ainsworth, Bell & Stayton; 1971; Ainsworth, Blehar, Walters, & Wall, 1978) indicated that children form either secure, insecure-avoidant, or insecure-ambivalent attachments to their caregivers. Secure attachments are characterized by the infant using the caregiver as a secure base from which to explore their surroundings, and by close affectional ties between caregiver and infant. Insecure-avoidant attachments are characterized by neutral emotions in the infant and few affectional responses by the caregiver. Finally, insecure-ambivalent attachments are characterized by emotional tension and alternating clinging and avoidant behaviours exhibited by the infant.

Attachment is not just an infant developmental concept, which has been borrowed and, perhaps wrongly, applied to children, adolescents and/or adults; rather it has enduring salience for them. In fact, researchers suggest that both infants and children co-regulate (Fogel, 1993) with their caretakers, and are scaffolded (Rogoff, 1990) by them. Co-regulation refers to a continuous process of communication, in which the words and/or actions of one of the participants in a relationship take into account the previous words/actions of the other participant, such that the words/actions of both participants share equally in the process of defining the behaviours and/or meanings within the relationship (Fogel, 1993). Taking a chapter from Vygotsky (1978), Rogoff (1990) suggests that scaffolding, occurs when adults create environments that support children's current skills and/or knowledge, while at the same time challenging these children to push themselves to the next level, thereby gaining a greater degree of competence. These two

interactive processes (co-regulation and scaffolding) have the effect of constructing a model for the child (in which the child is an active participant) of the world in a cultural context, that is in the context of being connected to others.

Hill and Holmbeck (1986) concluded that “secure attachments established in childhood appear to endure through adolescence” (pp. 157). Roberts (1991) extended this finding into early-adulthood, noting that late-adolescents assessed as securely attached upon entering university also completed university as securely attached young-adults. Attachment type has also been shown to be a significant predictor of adult partner choice (Latty-Mann & Davis, 1996) and marital stability (Kirkpatrick & Davis, 1994). Hazan and Shaver (1987) conceptualized adult love relationships in terms of attachment types, concluding that adults were indeed able to classify themselves into one of three attachment types based on paragraph descriptions of these types, and that the best predictor of the type of adult love relationship was the type of attachment relationship that individuals had (or still have) with their parents. Attachment bonds formed in infancy appear to have effects which have an impact well into later life. Freud (1923), it appears, was right. However, as with parenting-style, the influence of attachment on the parent/young-adult relationship has not been adequately explored.

Although the stability of attachment ratings has been called into question recently (Baldwin and Fehr, 1995; Wintre, Yaffee, & Crowley, 1995), Baldwin and Fehr (1995) concluded that attachment ratings appear reliable when measured concurrently with other variables, rather than being used as a screening test to determine group membership for later research. The traditional psychoanalytic perspective of adolescence, that of severing early incestuous relationship ties with family, and replacing them with less-incestuous ties to peers, has not been upheld in the literature (Hill & Holmbeck, 1986). Indeed, Quintana and Lapsley (1990) concluded that “...there is a growing empirical and theoretical consensus that attachment to parents should be incorporated into theories of adolescent individuation” (pp. 373).

Securely attached individuals, in this case young-adults, are (like their infant counterparts) free to explore (cf., Ainsworth et al, 1971; 1978) their environment, but do so more through communication than motor behaviour (cf. Duck, 1995). They know, or

have confidence in the fact, that the relationship they have with their caretaker (their parents), will be there for them, like a secure base (cf. Ainsworth et al., 1971), when they return to it. That is, the parents will be physically, emotionally and communicatively available to openly interact with the young-adult, and the connection between them will be unaltered despite the time spent apart. On the other hand, insecurely attached young-adults either forget the relationship (like their insecure-avoidant infant counterparts) and spend all their time exploring, rarely if ever returning to the base, or alternate between exploring and returning to base in a haphazard and unpredictable manner (like insecure-ambivalent infants), because they are not confident that this relationship will be unaltered if they spent time away. That is, their internal model of the attachment bond (cf. Bowlby, 1969) between themselves and their parents - which is based on their own unique experiences - is inconsistent, such that sometimes their caregivers will be seen to be available to them when they return, and sometimes they will not. If young-adults are unsure of the connection between them and their parents, then it stands to reason that communications between them might be adversely affected, and thus the resolution of conflicts between them might also be affected. I suggest that attachment type might influence how conflict is resolved, such that securely attached young-adults, by the nature of the open and interactive relationship they have with their parents, are in an advantaged position for resolving conflicts, compared to those who are insecurely attached.

Linking Attachment Type and Parenting-style

Thus far, the lines of research referred to as attachment and parenting-style have, for the most part, existed separately within the same body of literature. Attachment type refers to an emotional bond, while parenting-style refers essentially to supportive and directive behaviours, and perhaps this is why they are relegated to separate chapters in many developmental texts (c.g. Bukatko & Dachler, 1992). A synthesis of this literature suggests that attachment type and parenting-style might be addressing a common theme, and thus might somehow be related. From a theoretical perspective, they appear related based on the similarities in the categorical descriptions of secure/insecure and authoritative/authoritarian etc. relationships. From an empirical perspective, they might be

related based on the similarities in findings from separate studies on a wide variety of outcome measures (e.g., social competency, (Waters, Wippman, & Sroufe, 1979), self-esteem, (Loeb, Horst & Horton, 1980); and school performance, (Dornbush, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh 1987), to name only a few), between secure and authoritative on one hand, and between insecure and other parenting-styles on the other. That is, those who are securely attached and authoritatively parented consistently score better than those insecurely attached and authoritarily parented on the above-mentioned measures.

The literature refers to attachment as children forming an emotional relationship of a certain type to their parents, that is, the child attaches to the parent (e.g., Bowlby, 1969). The literature also refers to parenting-style as parents behaving in a particular manner towards their children, that is, the parents parent their children (e.g., Baumrind, 1991). It may be convenient, and even efficient, to converse within the literature in these unidirectional terms, yet researchers acknowledge that certain behaviours (e.g., prompt responding to their child's cries) on the part of parents elicit certain (e.g., secure) attachments (e.g., Chess & Thomas, 1982), and that certain behaviours on the part of children (e.g., non-compliance) elicit certain parenting-style (e.g., authoritarian) behaviours (e.g., Crockenberg & Litman, 1990). Rogoff (1990) put this most succinctly: "...a focus on either actor must be accompanied by the recognition that the other [actor] is also active and that decisions and actions are made in the context of the others' decisions and actions." (pg. 87).

As far as the literature review conducted for this study could determine, researchers have not combined the basic typologies developed by Ainsworth et al. (1971; 1978) and Baumrind (1971; 1973) within a single study. Although it is plausible that the similar findings on outcome measures could be independently attributable, as the above-mentioned research has shown, to either attachment type or parenting-style without these two being necessarily related in any systematic manner, I suggest that their common effects on development reveal a fundamental link. An additional concern of this study is to explore the possibility of the existence of this link, and to attempt a rudimentary understanding of it.

Much of the above-noted literature has suggested the advantages of secure over insecure relationships, and of authoritative over non-authoritative relationships, to the end that the secure and authoritative relationship appears to be the theoretical ideal. That is, the literature suggests that there may be some essential difference in the quality of such a relationship compared to insecure or authoritarian (etc.) ones. If indeed this is the ideal parent-child/adolescent relationship, then adolescents raised in it should be more appreciative of the relationship they have with their parents than those adolescents raised in other relationships. That is, adolescents' ratings of the importance of this relationship and their satisfaction with it should be higher in secure and authoritative relationships. Indeed, Griffin and Bartholomew (1994) found that their secure prototype was positively related to relationship satisfaction, while all three of their insecure prototypes were negatively related to satisfaction.

The Social Construction of Relationships

"If men define situations as real, (then) they are real in their consequences" (Thomas & Thomas, 1928, pg. 572). Thus, what is 'real', in this case conflicts between young-adults and their parents, is socially constructed. Duck (1994) has suggested that the descriptions of a relationship provided by its participants defines its meaning, and further that people respond and act in relationships as much to the meanings that are generated (Duck, 1995) as they do to the behaviours which actually occur in these relationships. That is, a relationship may have a different meaning to each participant based on their own perception, or 'reality', of the relationship. Thus, conflicts in a relationship may not be major issues until participants define them so, that is, until they give the conflicts meaning. By extension then, conflicts are not resolved until participants also define them so, that is, until resolutions are defined by relationship participants as being meaningful to them. Past research (Smetana, 1989) has used this 'conflict as participant-defined' approach to understand the meanings that parents and adolescents give to the common everyday conflicts in their relationships.

Fogel (1993) referred to the process of relationship participants mutually ascribing meanings to events in their relationships as co-construction. Harvey, Weber and Orbuch

(1990) suggest that individuals have accounts - or stories as Steinberg (1995) calls them - of their relationships, which are rich with meaning and which vary between the relationship participants. Meyrowitz (1986) suggested that these stories even vary from one recounting to the next depending upon the audience: "We tell different truths, to different people, at different times" (pg., 4).

Past research (Laursen & Collins, 1994) suggests that qualitative methods (e.g., self-reports) might be the preferred means through which to study the meanings of various conflicts and conflict resolutions in parent-young-adult relationships. Other researchers (e.g., Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991) have supported the validity of self-reports to address the meanings generated in relationships, and further noted that by using adolescents' self-reports, researchers avoid the sampling biases towards an overrepresentation of well-functioning adolescent/parent dyads demonstrated (see Weinberger, Tublin, Ford, & Feldman, 1990) to occur when using parents' self-reports. The present study, focuses on young-adults' self-reports of the social construction of conflicts, and of conflict resolutions, with their parents, and argues that attachment type and parenting-style, as central features of parent-adolescent relationships, and as perceived by the young-adult, are intricately involved in these accounts of conflict resolution. These subjective self-reports may or may not have anything to do with what actually, or objectively, occurs in this relationship. In fact, Laursen and Collins (1994) in their review found that actual conflict behaviours show no significant relationship to age. Nonetheless, as homo narrans (humankind as storyteller, cf. Myerhoff, 1978) we respond in relationships to both meanings and behaviours (cf. Duck, 1995).

Having reviewed attachment type, parenting-style and now the social construction of relationships, it is useful to pause to examine these concepts from a different perspective. The present study asserts that attachment type and parenting-style are involved in parent/young-adult conflict resolution due to the nature of the communication processes which are (or are not) co-constructed within these relationships. To quote Marshall McLuhan (1964): "The medium is the message." (pg., 23). In other words, the message of any communication medium "...is the change of...pattern that it introduces into human affairs." (pg., 24). McLuhan goes on to suggest that all mediums exist with

cultural matrixes, and further that what he describes as hot media (e.g., television) neither requires nor invites audience participation, whereas cool media (e.g., radio) does require that the message be completed by the audience. The point is made when one considers what is involved in listening to a hockey game on the radio versus watching it on TV. In terms of parent/young-adult relationships then, the medium through which messages are delivered (or not delivered) between parents and young-adults becomes the message. Note that McLuhan makes no reference to the content of the message. That is, it matters little what the news-anchor on the television is saying because the message of television (paraphrased) is: “the audience need not participate”. So, the manner in which, or the medium through which parents and young-adults communicate with each other, regardless of the content of their words, becomes the message. This message either encourages co-construction of conflict resolution, or interferes with it. The present study suggests that attachment type and parenting-style are intricately involved in the manner in which parents and young-adults communicate, and therefore intricately involved in the messages both sent and perceived by both participants.

Rapprochement

Rapprochement stems from the French verb rapprocher, meaning to come together. In English, it refers to the establishing, or especially the re-establishing, of friendly and harmonious relations. The term rapprochement refers to the third phase of Mahler, Pine, and Bergman’s (1975) theory of separation-individuation in early-childhood. Recall that Blos (1967) identified adolescence as the second period of individuation. Various researchers (Baumrind, 1991; Blos, 1962; Hill & Holmbeck, 1986; Quintana & Lapsley, 1990) advanced contemporary theories of individuation, or autonomy, that emphasize transformed, but still maintained, family relationships. Josselson (1988) has predicted that “...rapprochement is about preserving the bonds of relationships in the presence of increased autonomy.” (pg. 195). The task of adolescent rapprochement then, is to develop autonomy while still maintaining a connection to parents (Quintana & Lapsley, 1990). Blos (1967) and Greenberger (1974) respectively identified individuation

and psychosocial maturity - or autonomy - as one of the main goals of adolescence, a goal normally achieved by late-adolescence or early-adulthood.

Admittedly, the term *rapprochement* has a certain developmental connotation to it based on both the French and English definitions. Since the present study does not address the developmental changes which may occur in conflict levels between parents and young-adults, the use of the term *rapprochement* in this study will, in keeping with past research (i.e., Mahler et al., 1975; Josselson, 1988), refer only to a state (or phase) of a relationship. Thus, *rapprochement* is a term describing the positive, or higher quality state of parent/young-adult relationships. These relationships, in theory, achieve a state of *rapprochement* if the parent and adolescent/young-adult maintain their connection with each other, while at the same time the adolescent/young-adult becomes autonomous. This relationship has failed to achieve the state of *rapprochement*, according to Josselson's (1988) definition, if either this connection is broken, or if the adolescent/young-adult has not developed their autonomy.

In terms of the present study, three issues speak to the relevance of *rapprochement* in parent/young-adult relationships. First, Youniss and Smollar (1985) found that by late-adolescence, parent-adolescent relationships become more peer-like and egalitarian in nature. Bigelow, et al. (1992) found that egalitarian control is an important aspect of children's friendship relationships. Roberts (1991) identified that late-adolescents desire an egalitarian control structure with their parents. Secondly, Fuligni and Eccles (1993) found that adolescents who perceive there to be a lack of this egalitarian control develop extreme peer-orientations, thus pre-maturely disrupting, or even severing, the parent-adolescent relationship. Third, Laursen and Collins (1994) noted that it is ongoing and unresolved conflict which does the damage in parent-adolescent relationships.

The present study, by distinguishing between different types of parent/young-adult relationships (based on attachment type and parenting-style), predicts that these features, in one of their different configurations (e.g., secure-authoritative) in theory supports the contemporary notion of autonomy in connection, and thus Josselson's (1988) *rapprochement* hypothesis. However, in another configuration (e.g., insecure-authoritarian) these features in theory do not support this hypothesis. Consistent with the

approach of attending to different types of relationships then, this study predicted that only certain (i.e., secure-authoritative) parent/young-adult relationships will achieve the state of rapprochement. However, measures of autonomy and egalitarianism have not been sufficiently defined in the literature in order to allow them to be juxtaposed, that is, to allow Josselson's rapprochement hypothesis to be nullified. Further, based on Laursen and Collins' (1994) finding that conflicts tend to reduce future exchanges between parents and adolescents, the present study suggests that those relationships which have achieved the state of rapprochement have remained close chiefly by resolving conflicts. Although Josselson's prediction does not mention conflict, in light of other above-mentioned research, I suggest that a relative lack of conflict is an integral part of a rapprochement relationship. Accordingly, examining parent/young-adult relationships by attachment type and parenting-style, each which might influence conflict resolution on a variety of issues, has the benefit of examining the rapprochement hypothesis in substantial detail. An additional concern of the present study then, is to test Josselson's (1988) rapprochement prediction in terms of attachment type, parenting-style, and the level of relational conflict.

Purpose of the Study and Hypotheses

The present study used a phenomenological approach, incorporating both a questionnaire which was informed by, and developed from, relational content research, and a retrospective account method, to address three concerns. The first concern was to develop an understanding of the features of parent/young-adult relationships which have an association with the level and methods of conflict resolution in late-adolescence/early-adulthood. The second concern was to begin to understand how the features of these relationships are associated with different methods of conflict resolution. The third concern was to test Josselson's (1988) rapprochement prediction using attachment type, parenting-style, and measures of conflict and conflict resolution.

I predict that an authoritative parenting-style, combined with a secure attachment, produces open verbal give-and-take communication patterns, which in turn produce opportunities to co-construct meanings regarding conflicts in parent/young-adult relationships, and more importantly to co-construct the resolutions of these conflicts,

leading to a relationship which is close, despite the adolescents' need for individuation; in short, a relationship which has achieved a rapprochement. The corollary predicts that insecure, authoritarian relationships stifle open communication and thus prevent the co-construction of conflict resolution. Six individual hypotheses were developed to test these predictions:

1. Young-adult participants who report that their parents use an authoritative parenting-style will report fewer conflicts with their parents, and will resolve a higher percentage of these conflicts than those reporting that their parents use other parenting-styles.

2. Participants who report themselves to be securely attached to their parents (secures) will report fewer conflicts, and will resolve a higher percentage of these conflicts than will those reporting that they are insecurely attached (insecures).

3. Secure participants are more likely to report their parents using an authoritative parenting-style, while insecure participants are more likely to report their parents using an authoritarian or rejecting-neglecting parenting-style.

4. Participants reporting that their parents use an authoritative parenting-style are more likely to report being securely attached than are those reporting their parents use other parenting-styles.

5. Relationships reported to be secure and authoritative will have higher importance and satisfaction ratings compared to other types of relationships.

6. Participants who report having achieved the state of rapprochement with their parents are more likely to report being securely attached, coming from homes where the predominant parenting-style was authoritative, and having fewer ongoing conflicts, than are individuals who report having not achieved the state of rapprochement.

METHODOLOGY

Participants

The data were collected by asking 252 university and college student participants (105 males, 147 females), aged 18-26 years (mean age 20.4), to complete a questionnaire developed for this research. Participants were recruited from English, Kinesiology, Sociology, Engineering, Psychology, and Business classes; 58% from a local university and 42% from a local college. Ethnicity was reported as 40% Canadian/U.S., 18% British, 12% French, 11% European, and 19% other, although English was spoken at home in 93% of the sample. When referring to their parents, participants meant their biological parents 89% of the time, their mom and stepdad 6% of the time, their dad and stepmom 2% of the time, and their adoptive or 'other' parents 3 % of the time. These parents were listed as primarily being married (80%), although 12% were divorced, 5% were separated, and 3% were listed as 'other' (usually widowed). Participants were roughly evenly split between living on their own (53%) and living at home with parents (47%). Forty-one percent of participants reported being the first born, 38% second born, 16% third born, and 5% fourth or later born.

Method

The Parent/Adolescent-Young Adult Relationships Questionnaire (PAYARQ; Roberts 1996) was constructed and tested in a pilot study $N=72$, (see Appendix A), and improved upon, as noted below, based on the results of this pilot study. In the current study, the PAYARQ (see Appendix B) was introduced to participants simply as a relationships questionnaire and was administered in class settings, taking approximately thirty minutes to complete. In each setting, participants were instructed that being involved in the research was completely voluntary and risk free, that they could withdraw at any time, or leave any question blank, and asked to sign a Voluntary Informed Research Consent Form (see Appendix C). While these forms were being passed around, participants were told that the researchers were interested in their long-term and overall view of the relationship they have with their parents, not just over the last while, but rather over the last several years (i.e. over adolescence) and up until today. Participants were

asked to respond to the questions with this in mind. The signed consent forms were collected, and questionnaires distributed, with participants instructed not to put their names on them to ensure confidentiality. Participants were then told that part of the questionnaire dealt with conflicts they might have had, or still may have, with their parents. Conflict was operationally defined in a manner similar to Smetana (1989) and read aloud to participants as follows:

Most people have told us that even when they generally get along well with their parents, there may be times when they don't get along or have conflicts or disagreements. These may be about major decisions or issues, or about everyday responsibilities like feeding pets or doing chores. We would like you to list the kinds of conflicts that come up in your relationship with your parents that were (or still are) really important to you, or that seem to keep coming up over and over again.

No talking was permitted, and questionnaires were collected at the classroom door as individual participants finished. Finally, participants were thanked for their time and reminded that results would be available in a few months. Class participants received general results, where possible and at their professors' discretion, either in a mini-lecture format followed by a question and answer period, or by a summary copy being provided to the professor for them to pass on to students.

Materials

The PAYARQ included both open- and closed-ended questions for participants to respond to. It was informed by qualitative relational content research, as noted below, which Laursen and Collins (1994) suggested is more sensitive to changes in relationships. The questionnaire was designed to provide a time-lapse (or retrospective) and wide-ranging view of the parent/young-adult relationship in terms of a) conflicts, conflict intensity, and conflict resolutions; b) perceived attachment type; c) perceived parenting-style; d) ratings on parent/young-adult relationship friendship, importance and satisfaction, e) relative closeness and psychosocial maturity (autonomy) ratings; and f) general demographic information.

General demographics measures In Part A of the PAYARQ participants checked off appropriate boxes for questions regarding their age, birth order, sex, grade level, mother tongue, ethnicity, expected highest education level and residential location. A question regarding participants' place of residence (Do you live with your parents, or on your own?) was added based on the results of the pilot study. As well, participants indicated who they meant when they referred to their parents, and the marital status, education level, and occupations of these parents.

Conflict measures Part B of the PAYARQ was adapted from Cole and Bradac (1996). Participants were provided with a page of blanks on which they were asked to fill in all the conflicts they could recall having, and those which they still have with their parents. For each conflict, participants were asked to provide information, under column headings, on a) the intensity of this conflict, (on a 5 point scale, 1= mild to 5= angry), b) with which parent(s) they had this conflict, c) whether this conflict is/was resolved (Yes/No), and d) if it was resolved, briefly to explain how.

Attachment type measures The PAYARQ contained two measures of perceived attachment type as past research has suggested (i.e., Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994; Hazan & Shaver, 1987). The first measure, Part C, was a three paragraph (i.e., secure, insecure-avoidant, insecure-ambivalent) forced-choice, adapted from Hazan & Shaver (1987) by changing the word 'partner' to 'parent'. The participant was asked to choose the one paragraph that best described the relationship they actually have with their mother, and then with their father. This provides a measure of what Hazan and Shaver refer to as an attachment type. The order of the paragraphs on the page was counterbalanced between participants. Participants were also asked to indicate which paragraph best described the type of relationship they wish they had with each parent. The second measure, part H, was the Relationship Scales Questionnaire (RSQ), taken directly from Griffin and Bartholomew (1994). Participants responded to thirty statements by ranking on a 5-point Likert scale how much the statement applied to them (1= not at all like me, 5= exactly like me). This provides a measure of what Griffin and Bartholomew referred to as an attachment prototype, which is essentially the same as an attachment type. Due to time constraints, this second measure was not included in the pilot study.

Parenting-style measures Similarly, there were two measures of perceived parenting-style. The first, Part D of the PAYARQ, was also a forced paragraph choice; the four paragraphs (i.e., authoritative, permissive, rejecting-neglecting, authoritarian) were constructed by the author from prototypic sentences taken directly from Baumrind's (1971; 1973) lengthy explanations of each parenting-style. Participants were asked to pick the one paragraph that best described the relationship they actually have with their mother, and then with their father. They were also asked to indicate which paragraph best described the relationship they wish they had with each parent. The order of paragraphs on the page was counterbalanced between participants. The second measure, Part I, was adapted from Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, and Dornbusch's (1991) questionnaire index of parenting-style by altering the wording of some questions, based on the results of the pilot study, and in a manner similar to other researchers (M. Pratt, personal communication, June 7, 1996), so that they would be more applicable to university and college aged participants. Participants indicated to what extent they agreed or disagreed with each statement on an 9-point likert scale (-4= strongly disagree, +4= strongly agree) for each parent.

Relationship importance and satisfaction measures Part E of the PAYARQ was adapted from Parker and Asher (1993). Participants were asked to rate on a 9-point likert scale (0= not important to 9= very important), how important the relationship which they have with their mother, father, same- and opposite-sexed friend was to them, and then to rate how satisfied they were with these relationships on a second identical scale.

Rapprochement measure This measure (Parts F and G of the PAYARQ) was designed to test the rapprochement hypothesis of Josselson (1988) and the hypothesis from the present study that parent/young-adult friend-like relationships are more likely to be reported by participants in secure and authoritative relationships with few unresolved conflicts. Based on their responses, participants were classified into two groups: those who had a rapprochement with their mother/father and those who did not. The rapprochement measure was based on Josselson's (1988) prediction of rapprochement, that is a maintained closeness in the context of the adolescents' increased autonomy. The closeness dimension was assessed by the question, "Do you consider your relationship

with your mother/father to be friend-like?" Participants were asked to respond either "Yes" or "No". The autonomy dimension was assessed using the autonomy subscale from the Psychosocial Maturity Scale (Greenberger, Josselson, Knerr, & Knerr, 1974). This was a thirty item questionnaire (Part G of the PAYARQ), on which participants were asked to respond to each statement on a scale ranging from A= strongly agree to D= strongly disagree. The wording of the thirty items was taken verbatim, with permission (E. Greenberger, personal communication, November 8, 1996), from the three subscales (identity, self-reliance, work-orientation) measuring autonomy. Due to time constraints, the autonomy scale had not been included in the pilot study.

Two additional items were added to this measure of rapprochement based on the dictionary definition (Websters, 1976). The first was the question "How friendly and harmonious is the relationship between you and your mother/father?" Participants responded on a four-point scale (1= very friendly, 4= very unfriendly). The second item was the two-part question "Was there a time when this relationship with your mother/father was not as friendly and harmonious?" and "When, briefly, was this time?". Participants responded yes or no, and those who responded positively, briefly described, in the blank provided, the time frame. Finally, eleven items adapted from Youniss's (1980) friendship inventory, designed to assess the affective and behavioural contents of friendships, were included as an additional measure of the relative closeness of the relationship.

Plan of Analyses

Classifying Attachment Type and Parenting-Style Attachment type and parenting-style classifications were determined first, as further analyses would be differentiated by these relationship features. Griffin and Bartholomew (1994) noted that it is too early to declare a 'winner' in terms of the best measurement devise for assessing attachment, and suggested instead that the theoretical basis of the research be used to define the method of measurement. Following from the phenomenological approach of self-reported verbal descriptions, in account format (e.g., Harvey et al., 1990), of the parent/young-adult relationship, the paragraph measure was chosen to define attachment

type classifications for mothers and fathers separately (cf. Youniss & Smollar, 1985) for further analyses.

Three steps were required to correlate the RSQ measure of attachment with the paragraph measure in order to provide a measure of the concurrent validity of the paragraph measure. First, the thirty statements on the RSQ measure of attachment were scored according to the scoring directions of the authors (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994). Required items were first reverse scored, following which four subscores (one for each attachment prototype) were calculated by taking the mean score across the four (or five) items comprising each prototype. This yielded four means (one for each prototype) for each participant. The participants' dominant, or best-fitting, attachment prototype was the prototype with the greatest of these four means. Second, the attachment prototypes (Griffin & Bartholomew, 1994) were paired with the attachment types (Hazan & Shaver, 1987), based on the descriptions of each type/prototype and the theoretical arguments of the authors. (The 30 statements on the RSQ were derived, in part, from the paragraph descriptions in Hazan and Shaver's attachment measure.) Thus, four prototypes were reduced to three for correlation with the three attachment types. Specifically, the secure prototype was paired with the secure attachment type, the dismissing prototype paired with the insecure-avoidant type, and the preoccupied and fearful prototypes were both paired with the insecure-anxious-ambivalent type. Thirdly, the two measures of attachment classifications (paragraph and RSQ) were then correlated (see Results).

Similarly, the index of parenting-style (Lamborn et al., 1991) was scored and the resulting classifications were correlated with the classifications from the paragraph measure (Roberts, 1996). The index of parenting-style was scored according to the criteria of Lamborn et al., that is, a warmth and strictness score was calculated separately for each parent by taking the mean response across all of the items contributing to each scale. A frequency distribution was examined for each of the four scales (mom-warm, mom-strict, dad-warm, dad-strict) to obtain the sample-specific cutoff scores, which were then used to create a three-level split of each scale. Thus, for example, those scoring in the top one third of the distributions for warmth and strictness for mothers were classified as having authoritative mothers, while those scoring on the bottom third for warmth, and

the top third for strictness for fathers were classified as having authoritarian fathers. Those scoring in the middle third on either of the distributions were discarded from the analysis. Lamborn et al. (1991) used this method to ensure that relative to one another, and specific to the research sample, the four parenting-style classifications were more or less warm and/or more or less strict.

The two measures of parenting-style were then correlated to provide a measure of concurrent validity (see Results) for the paragraph measure. In keeping with the phenomenological approach of this study, classifications based on the paragraph measure were chosen to define parenting-style for further analyses.

Examining Conflict and Methods of Conflict Resolution Participants reported conflict areas, and methods of resolution, with each parent separately were coded by the author and another rater to provide a measure of inter-rater reliability (see Results). An undergraduate student trained in content analysis, but uninformed as to the hypotheses of this study, served as the second rater. The reported conflicts were coded into one of seventeen categories (see Appendix D). Eleven categories were based on past research (Smetana, 1989), while six additional categories were created based on the results from the pilot study (Roberts, 1996). The reported method of resolution for each conflict was coded into one of four possible categories: (a) resolved to a mutual agreement between the parent and young adult, (b) parent prevailed/young-adult withdrew; (c) young-adult prevailed/parent withdrew, and (d) not resolved. Disagreements between category classifications were resolved to consensus between the two raters before proceeding with the analyses.

Even though conflicts were content analyzed into categories, the total number of conflicts that each participant reported was not reduced by this coding. That is, if a participant listed three conflicts in Part B - Conflict Measure of the PAYARQ (i.e., saving money, job, and spending habits), the participant was listed in the data set as having three conflicts even though all three were classified into a single conflict category (i.e., finances). In this way the data were represented and analyzed in a manner which provided for the least amount of interpretation. The data on conflicts and their resolution methods

were entered into a computer statistics package (SPSS-X) on the university computer for analysis.

A 3 x 4 (Attachment x Parenting-Style) analysis of variance (ANOVA) was planned to analyze the total number of reported conflicts (that is conflict with mothers, fathers, and both parents) and the number of unresolved conflicts. A repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) design was considered, however, in theory, the assumption of independence between the dependent variables was violated as the number of unresolved conflicts was a subset of the total number of conflicts reported. That is, a participant could not report having zero total conflicts and then go on to report having two unresolved conflicts.

As well, individual ANOVAs (with significance levels adjusted from $p=.05$ to $p=.01$) were planned for conflicts and unresolved conflicts, to examine any between-group differences which might arise based on attachment type (i.e., secure versus insecure-avoidant versus insecure-ambivalent) and parenting-style (i.e., authoritative versus permissive versus authoritarian versus rejecting-neglecting). To test for any potential developmental trend in conflicts that some research (e.g., Furman & Buhrmeister, 1992) has suggested occurs, a one way analysis of variance was planned to analyze conflicts and unresolved conflicts by age. Chi-square analyses were then planned to analyze the method of conflict resolution by attachment type and parenting-style.

Examining Rapprochement Rapprochement, as it relates to parent/young-adult relationships, was operationalized according to the two dimensions of Josselson's (1988) hypothesis, that is, a connected or close, and an autonomous relationship. Participants were placed into two groups: the rapprochement group, and the no-rapprochement group. Participants were included in the mother/father rapprochement group if they answered "yes" to the question "Do you consider your relationship with your mother/father to be friend-like?" and scored above the 75th percentile on the autonomy measure. All other participants were assigned to the mother/father no-rapprochement group.

The thirty items of the autonomy measure were broken down into the three subscales (work, identity, and self-reliance) from the Psychosocial Maturity Scale (Greenberger et al., 1974) and an overall measure was calculated, following Greenberger

et al.'s scoring directions, by calculating the mean across the items contributing to each of the three subscales, and then adding the three means. (Dr. Greenberger wishes the use of this test to remain restricted, and the reader is advised to contact her for further details and permission to use the scale.)

A discriminant analysis to predict rapprochement group membership, for each parent separately, was performed using attachment type, parenting-style, total reported conflicts, the number of reported unresolved conflicts, parents' education level, participants' residence status, age, and sex.

RESULTS

All analyses were performed separately for mothers and for fathers (cf., Youniss & Smollar, 1985) and are reported as such, with comparisons made where appropriate. A simplified flowchart of the planned and post hoc analyses as well as the results appears in Appendix E.

Preliminary Results, Reliability and Validity

Classifying Attachment Type. The RSQ measure of attachment ($n=252$), after scoring, yielded attachment classifications (without reference to a specific parent due to the nature of the scale) of secure (68%), insecure-avoidant (13%) and insecure-ambivalent (18%). These figures were very close to the 70%/30% secure/insecure split found by other researchers (e.g., Ainsworth et al., 1971, 1973). The paragraph measure yielded attachment type classifications for mothers ($n=248$) of secure (83%), insecure-avoidant (15%) and insecure-ambivalent (2%); and for fathers ($n=246$) of secure (72%), insecure-avoidant (23%) and insecure-ambivalent (5%). There were no significant sex differences in classifications of attachment type for either mothers or fathers. However, participants reported being significantly more securely attached to their mothers (83%) than to their fathers (72%) ($z=2.91$, $p<.01$). Again, these data approximate the 70%/30% split mentioned above, while echoing Youniss and Smollar's (1985) finding that adolescents are closer to their mothers than they are to their fathers.

The correlation between the two attachment measures was significant for attachment relationships with mothers ($r=.2577$, $p<.01$) and fathers ($r=.3875$, $p<.01$), indicating modest concurrent validity. Test-retest reliability was established by asking a psychology statistics class ($n=27$) to complete both attachment measures two weeks apart. The order of presentation for paragraphs and individual items in the RSQ were changed between trials. Results were highly significant (RSQ measure $r=.69$, $p<.01$; paragraph measure: mother $r=.78$, $p<.01$, father $r=.75$, $p<.01$) indicating that both measures were reliable.

Classifying Parenting-Style. In the process of scoring the index of parenting-style, correlations between individual items were examined. These correlations were acceptable

except for the last two items (regarding weeknight and weekend curfews), which did not correlate well with any other items. This is similar to results found by other researchers using this scale (M. Pratt, personal communication, December 6, 1996). When these last two items were removed, the strictness or control dimension was only addressed by three pairs of items, allowing for little range sensitivity in scores. In addition, few participants ($n=84$ for mothers and $n=129$ for fathers, out of a possible $N=252$) properly completed enough items on the scale to compute parenting-style ratings based on the scale. This was due to two factors. Firstly, the Lamborn et al. (1991) scale was originally published for use with high-school students, and it appears that even though some items were reworded (i.e., "My parent knows exactly where I am most afternoons after school" reworded to "My parent really knew where I was after school") they were still not applicable to university/college aged participants. This was evidenced by many participants writing in 'n/a' on one or more items. Secondly, due to the three-way split, participants scoring in the middle third of each scale were removed from the analysis. Thus, based on the index measure of parenting-style, only about 40% of participants were able to be classified, and this would have seriously restricted further analyses. For this reason and, as mentioned above, to be consistent with the phenomenological approach, the paragraph measure of parenting-style was used to classify participants. For those who did complete enough items on the index measure, mothers were classified as being authoritative (81%), permissive (13%), and rejecting-neglecting (6%), and no mothers were classified as authoritarian. Fathers were classified as authoritative (78%), permissive (12%), authoritarian (3%), and rejecting-neglecting (7%).

The paragraph measure yielded parenting-style ratings for mothers ($n=249$) of authoritative (64%), permissive (19%), authoritarian (13%), and rejecting-neglecting (4%); and for fathers ($n=245$) of authoritative (54%), permissive (19%), authoritarian (16%), and rejecting-neglecting (11%). There were no significant sex differences in relationships for either mothers or fathers. However, participants reported their mothers as being significantly more authoritative ($z=2.25$, $p<.05$) and less rejecting-neglecting ($z=2.57$, $p<.01$) than their fathers. Again, these results are similar to those reported in the

literature (e.g., Baumrind, 1971, 1973, 1991; Lamborn et al., 1991), and thus indicate that the paragraph measure has at least good content and face validity.

The correlation between the two parenting-style measures was significant but modest to low for mothers ($n=84$, $r=.3651$, $p<.01$), and for fathers ($n=129$, $r=.1971$, $p<.05$), indicating that the paragraph measure of parenting-style developed for this study has concurrent validity with another established parenting-style scale. Lamborn et al. (1991) did not report a measure of test-retest reliability for their scale, thus participants ($n=27$) in a university psychology statistics class completed both parenting-style measures two weeks apart. The order of presentation of both the individual questions and of the paragraphs was changed between trials. Results (index of parenting-style: mother $r=.76$, $p<.01$, father $r=.85$, $p<.01$; paragraph measure: mother $r=.65$, $p<.01$, father $r=.67$, $p<.01$) were highly significant indicating that both measures were reliable.

Content Analysis. Participants reported conflicts were coded into one of seventeen categories of conflict (see Appendix D) by the author and another rater. Similarly, participants methods of conflict resolution were coded into one of four possible categories (resolved to a mutual agreement, parent prevailed/young-adult withdrew, young-adult prevailed/parent withdrew, and not resolved) by both raters. The overall measure of matching was good at 92%, ranging from 75% (respect and trust) to 100% (bedtime and curfew, and mutual agreement), indicating a strong agreement between raters. While participants reported having conflicts with only their mothers and with only their fathers, most reported conflicts were listed as being with both parents (see Table 5). As such, the dependent variable “total number of conflicts” (or “conflicts” for short) used in the following analyses is the sum of all reported conflicts (with mothers, fathers and both parents). As well, the dependent variable “number of unresolved conflicts” (or “unresolved conflicts”) is treated in the same manner.

ANOVA Results Based on Attachment Type and Parenting-Style Measures

Conflicts and unresolved conflicts, for each parent separately, were analyzed using a 3 x 4 (Attachment Type x Parenting-Style) Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). However, the assumption of variance-covariance was violated due to empty cells (i.e., no participant

reported being insecure-ambivalently attached to a mother whom they also reported to use an authoritative parenting-style). Thus, two options were explored.

Firstly, these data were reconfigured for each parent to provide two levels of attachment (i.e., secure versus insecure) and two levels of parenting-style (i.e., authoritative versus all other styles). These reconfigured data were then analyzed, for conflicts and unresolved conflicts, using a 2 x 2 (Attachment Type x Parenting-Style) ANOVA. No assumptions were violated except the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance (BoxM= 20.33, $F(9,14049)=2.18$, $p=.05$); however, with a large enough sample, in this case $N=252$, ANOVA is typically robust enough to handle this violation (Garg, 1996). Results for mother indicated a significant main effect ($F(2,242)=7.05$, $p=.01$) of attachment. However, the main effect ($F(2,242)=1.84$, $p=.16$) of parenting-style was not significant. For fathers, results indicated a significant main effect ($F(2,240)=11.85$, $p<.001$) of attachment, and a main effect ($F(2,242)=3.08$, $p=.08$) of parenting-style that approached significance. There were no significant interactions between attachment type and parenting-style for either parent. As well, insignificant results were obtained from the 2 x 2 (Attachment Type x Parenting-Style) ANCOVA analysis of conflicts and unresolved conflicts, for each parent, covarying for parents' level of education, and participants' ethnicity, sex, and birth order. The planned one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using age (reconfigured into two levels based on a median split), was insignificant for both conflicts and unresolved conflicts, indicating that there were no significant developmental trends. (These reconfigured data are not represented in any of the following Figures or Tables.)

Secondly, because a good deal of theoretical explanative value was lost by collapsing these data into the 2 x 2 ANOVAs, (similar to comments expressed by Weiss & Schwarz, 1996), these data were left in their original form (i.e., with three levels of attachment and four levels of parenting-style) for the remaining analyses, and separate one-way analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were performed. However, the significance level was adjusted (reduced from $p=.05$ to $p=.01$) to reduce the possibility of Type I errors. Results of these analyses are reported below.

ANOVA Results Based on Parenting-Style

Conflicts were analyzed by parenting-style (four levels) using separate one-way ANOVAs for each parent. Results were insignificant, indicating that participants reported no significant differences in the number of conflicts recalled regardless of the parenting-style they reported their mothers and fathers to utilize (see Figure 1).

Unresolved conflicts were analyzed in the same manner. Results were significant for mothers ($F(3,245)=3.31, p<.001$), and fathers ($F(3,241)=7.41, p<.001$) indicating that participants reported differences in the number of conflicts that remained unresolved depending on the parenting-style reportedly used by each parent (see Table 1). Participants who reported having authoritative mothers resolved 75% of their conflicts, whereas those who reported having non-authoritative (i.e. authoritarian, etc.) mothers resolved, on average, only 61% of their conflicts. Those who reported having authoritative fathers also resolved 75% of their conflicts, whereas participants with non-authoritative fathers resolved, on average, only 64% of their conflicts.

In light of these results, the method of conflict resolution (i.e., mutual agreement, parent prevailed, young-adult prevailed, or not resolved) was examined by parenting-style (four levels, see Figure 2), for each parent separately, using Chi-Square Analysis. Participants who reported their parents used an authoritative style reported resolving 40% of their conflicts to a mutual agreement ($\chi^2(3, N=158)=13.68, p<.01$). In contrast, those who reported that their mothers used a rejecting-neglecting style reported resolving only 15% of their conflicts to a mutual agreement ($\chi^2(3, N=32)=10.16, p<.05$), instead indicating that 37% of their conflicts usually remained unresolved. Those who reported their fathers were rejecting-neglecting reported resolving only 22% of their conflicts to a mutual agreement, instead indicating that 43% usually remained unresolved ($\chi^2(3, N=29)=21.2, p<.01$). Finally, participants who reported that that their parents used a permissive style reported that the resolution of conflicts were usually split between the categories mutual agreement (34-35%) and unresolved (29-34%), as opposed to either the parent or the young-adult prevailing (see Table 1). These results were significantly above the expected even split (25% in each) between the four categories of method of resolution.

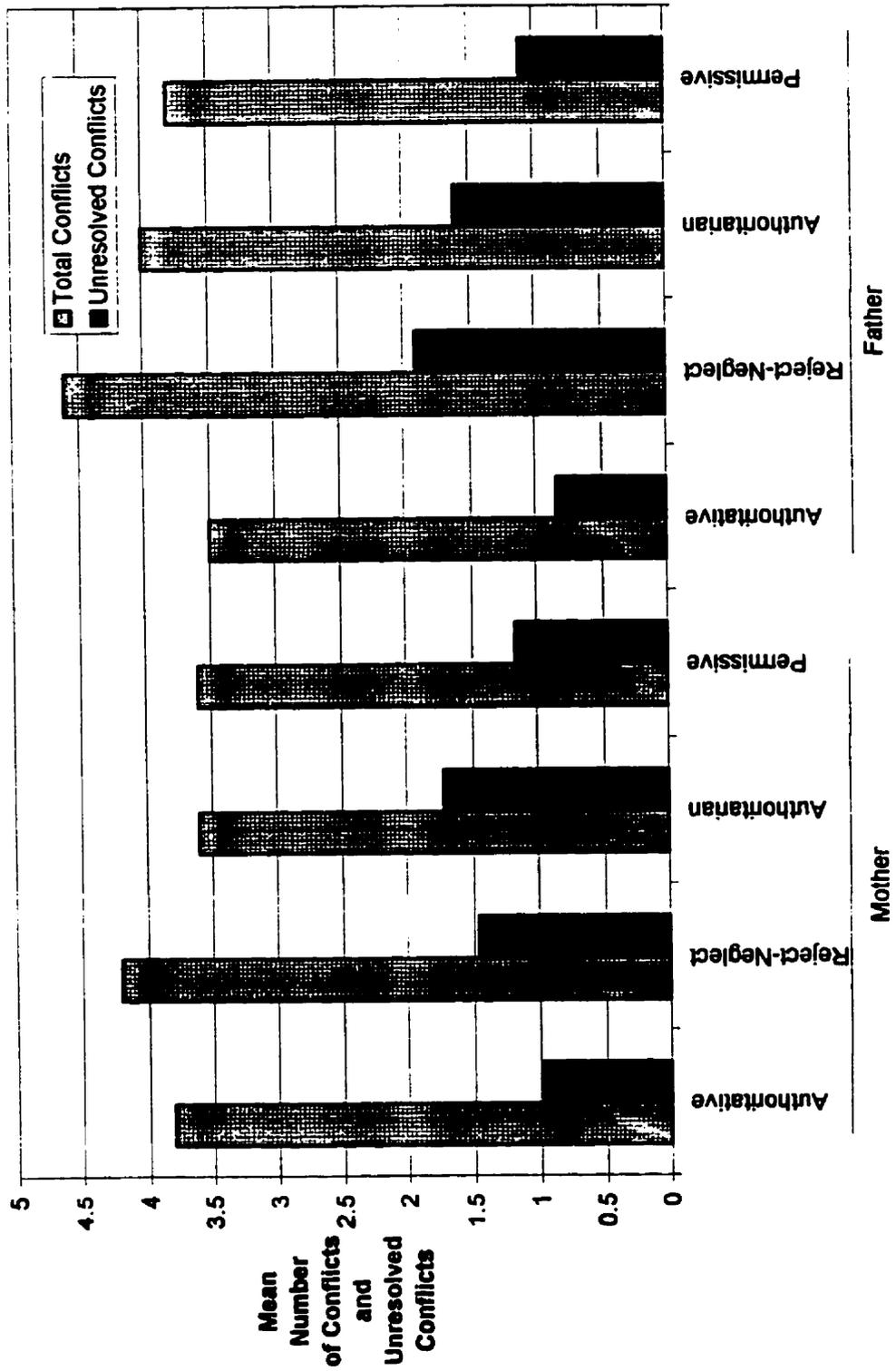
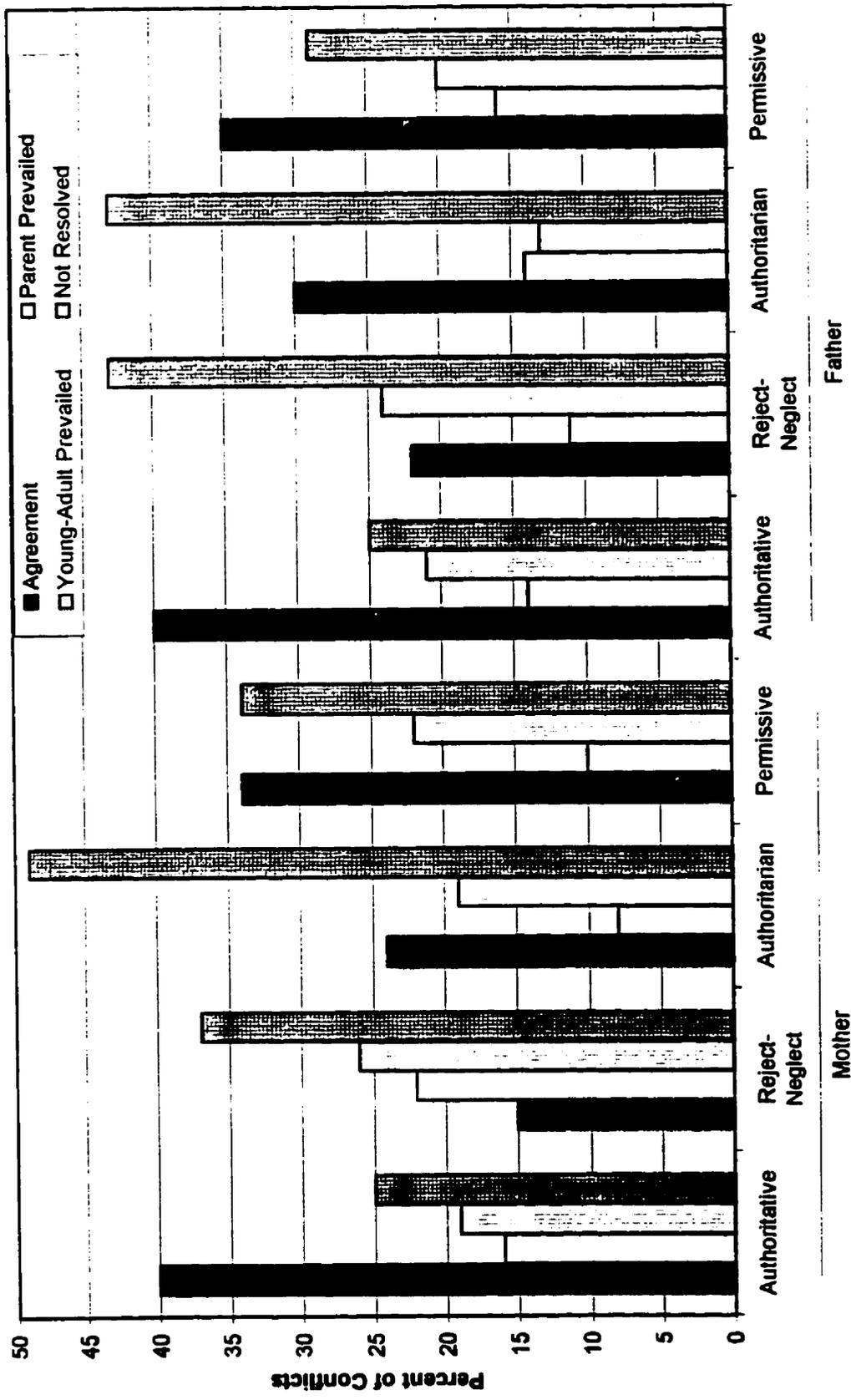


Figure 1 - Conflicts and Unresolved Conflicts by Parenting Style

Table 1
Conflicts and Resolution Methods By Parenting-Style

Parenting Style	# Conflicts (mean)	# Unresolved Conflicts (mean)	Percentage Resolved (%)	Method of Resolution (%)				Total %
				Mutual Agreement	Parent Prevailed	Yng-Adult Prevailed	Not Resolved	
Mother								
authoritative	3.8	0.98*	75	40	16	19	25	100
rejecting-neglecting	4.2	1.46*	65	15	22	28	37	100
authoritarian	3.8	1.71*	52	24	8	19	49	100
permissive	3.6	1.17*	67	34	10	22	34	100
Father								
authoritative	3.5	0.84**	76	40	14	21	25	100
rejecting-neglecting	4.6	1.9**	59	22	11	24	43	100
authoritarian	4	1.6**	60	30	14	13	43	100
permissive	3.8	1.1**	71	35	16	20	29	100

Note: * and ** are sig. at $p < .05$; Bold figures are sig. at $p < .05$ using Chi-Square Analysis



Parenting Style and Parent

Figure 2 - Method of Conflict Resolution by Parenting Style

ANOVA Results Based on Attachment Type

Conflicts were analyzed by attachment type (three levels) using separate one-way ANOVAs for each parent. Results were insignificant for mothers; however, for fathers the results were significant ($F(2,243)=5.21, p=.006$), indicating that participants reported significant differences in the number of conflicts recalled depending upon their type of attachment to each parent (see Figure 3).

Unresolved conflicts were analyzed in the same manner. Results were significant for mothers ($F(2,245)=9.68, p<.001$), and fathers ($F(2,243)=18.29, p<.001$), indicating that participants reported differences in the number of conflicts they resolved depending on their attachment type to each parent (see Table 2). Those who reported being securely attached to their mothers resolved 74% of their conflicts, while those insecurely attached to their mothers resolved, on average, only 55% of their conflicts. Those who reported being securely attached to their fathers resolved 75% of their conflicts, while those insecurely attached to their fathers, on average, only resolved 62% of their conflicts.

In light of these results, the method of conflict resolution was examined by attachment type (two levels, see Figure 4) for each parent separately, using Chi-Square Analyses. (Due to low cell numbers, insecure-ambivalent and insecure-avoidant attachments had to be grouped together as 'insecures' for this analysis only.) Participants who reported being securely attached to their mothers also reported resolving their conflicts to a mutual agreement 38% of the time ($\chi^2(3, N=205)=12.56, p<.01$), and 41% of the time if they reported being securely attached to their fathers ($\chi^2(3, N=175)=16.08, p<.01$). In contrast, participants reported that their conflicts were resolved to a mutual agreement only 19% of the time if they reported being insecurely attached to their mothers ($\chi^2(3, N=42)=32.96, p<.01$) and only 23% of the time if they were insecurely attached to their fathers ($\chi^2(3, N=70)=20.88, p<.01$). Instead, these insecure participants usually reported that their conflicts remained unresolved 44-49% of the time (see Table 2). These results were significantly above the expected even split (25% in each) between the four categories of method of resolution.

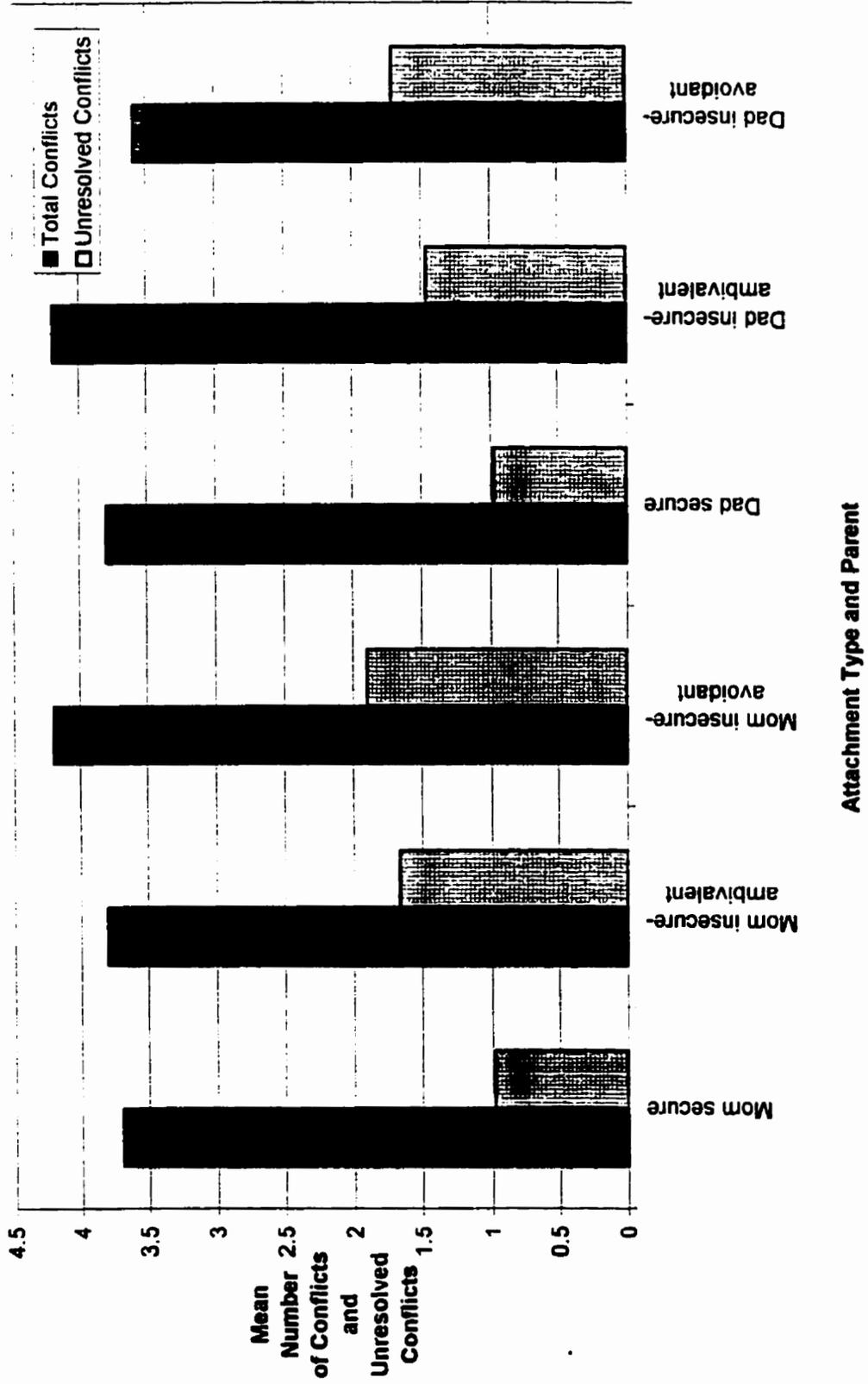


Figure 3 - Conflicts and Unresolved Conflicts by Attachment Type

Table 2
Conflicts and Resolution Methods By Attachment Type

Attachment Type	# Conflicts (mean)	# Unresolved Conflicts (mean)	Percentage Resolved (%)	Method of Resolution (%)				Total %
				Mutual Agreement	Parent Prevailed	Yng-Adult Prevailed	Not Resolved	
Mother								
secure	3.7	0.98*	74	38	15	19	28	100
insecure-ambivalent	3.8	1.67*	56	19	11	21	49	100
insecure-avoidant	4.2	1.9*	55					
Father								
secure	3.4	0.84**	75	41	14	20	25	100
insecure-ambivalent	4.4	1.5**	66	23	14	19	44	100
insecure-avoidant	4.5	1.9**	58					

Note: * and ** are sig. at $p < .05$; Bold figures are sig. at $p < .05$ using Chi-Square Analysis

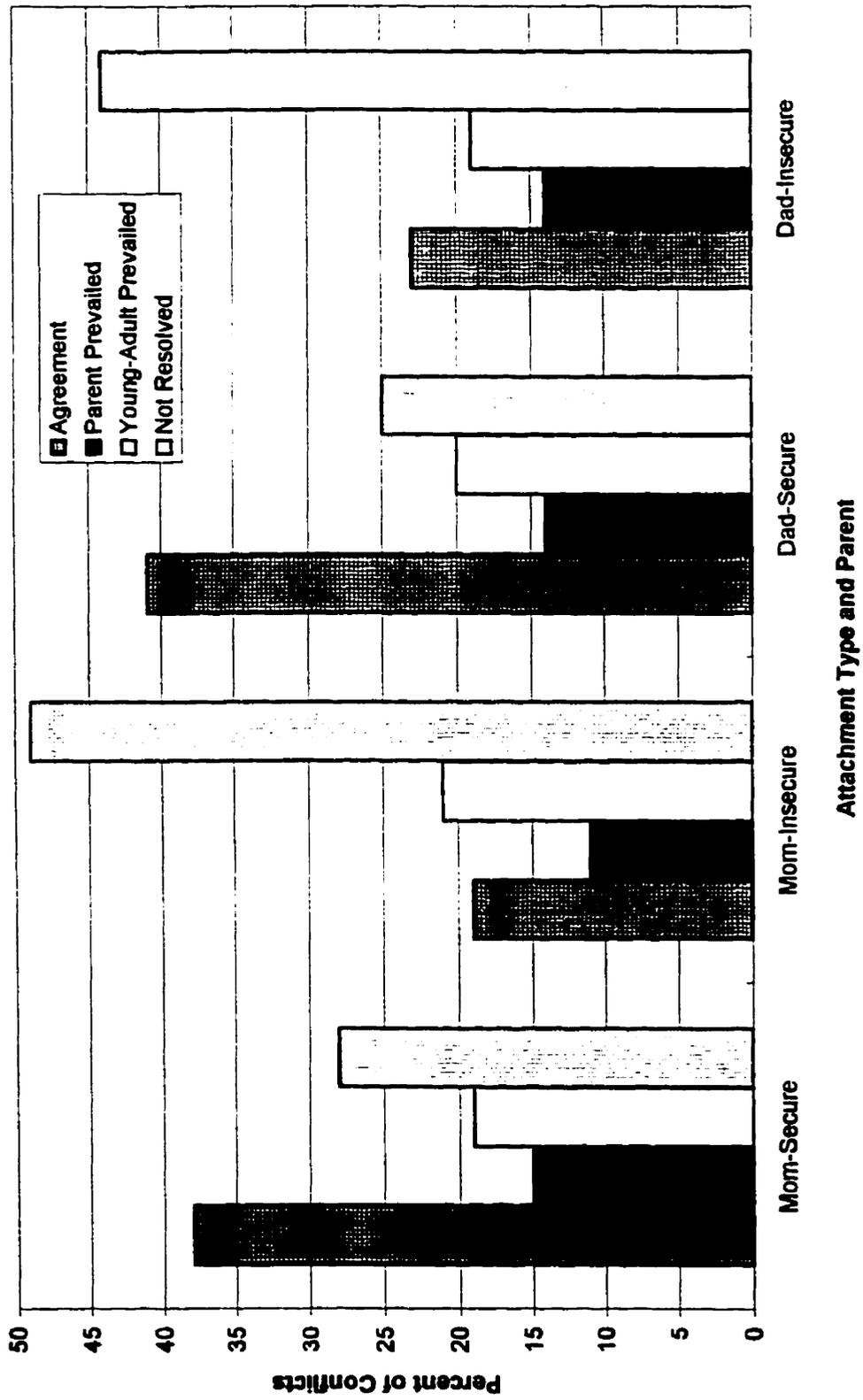


Figure 4 - Method of Conflict Resolution by Attachment Type

The Link Between Attachment Type and Parenting-Style

Considering attachment type, results indicated that of those participants ($n=205$) who reported being securely attached to their mothers, 70% also reported their mothers used an authoritative parenting-style (see Table 3) and 82% reported being securely attached to their fathers. Results were similar for fathers. Of those ($n=175$) reporting they were securely attached to their fathers, 64% reported that their father used an authoritative parenting-style, and almost all (95%) reported being securely attached to their mothers. Mothers and fathers attachment type classifications were significantly correlated ($r=.50$, $p<.01$).

Considering parenting-style, of the participants ($n=158$) who reported that their mothers used an authoritative parenting-style, 91% reported being securely attached to these mothers, 78% reported being securely attached to their fathers, and 75% reported that their fathers also used an authoritative parenting-style (see Table 4). Again, the results were similar for fathers. Of those ($n=131$) who reported that their fathers used an authoritative parenting-style, 85% reported being securely attached to these fathers, 89% reported being securely attached to their mothers, and 88% reported that their mothers also used an authoritative parenting-style. Mothers and fathers parenting-style classifications were significantly correlated ($r=.54$, $p<.01$).

Importance and Satisfaction Ratings

One way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were used, again with adjusted significance levels, to examine differences in satisfaction and importance ratings based on attachment type (three levels) and parenting-style (four levels) separately for each parent. Regarding attachment type, participants who reported themselves as securely attached to their mothers reported significantly higher ratings of the importance ($F(2,229)=42.7$, $p<.001$), and satisfaction ($F(2,234)=30.48$, $p<.001$) of the relationship they had with their mothers, when compared to insecurely attached participants (see Table 3). Similarly, the importance ($F(2,229)=8.94$, $p<.001$), and satisfaction ($F(2,226)=11.87$, $p<.001$) ratings were significantly higher for those reporting they were securely attached to their fathers, compared to insecurely attached participants.

Table 3
Attachment Type Comparisons

Mothers		Attach	Mom	Dad	Dad	Mom	Mom	Dad	Dad		
Attachment Type	Type %	Par-Sty	%	Par-Sty	%	Att-Type	%	Import.	Satis.	Import.	Satis.
secure (n=205)	83**	tative	70	tative	57	secure	82	8.57	7.72	8.09	6.81
		rej-neg	2	rej-neg	9	ins-amb	3				
		tarian	9	tarian	13	ins-avoid	15				
		perm	19	perm	21						
insecure-ambivalent (n=6)	2	tative	0	tative	33	secure	17	6.33	5	7.17	5.33
		rej-neg	33	rej-neg	33	ins-amb	33				
		tarian	50	tarian	33	ins-avoid	50				
		perm	17	perm	0						
insecure-avoidant (n=36)	15	tative	36	tative	34	secure	20	6.11	4.73	6.4	5.29
		rej-neg	19	rej-neg	26	ins-amb	11				
		tarian	31	tarian	29	ins-avoid	69				
		perm	14	perm	11						
Fathers		Mom	Dad	Mom	Mom	Mom	Mom	Dad	Dad		
Attachment Type		Par-Sty	%	Par-Sty	%	Att-Type	%	Import.	Satis.	Import.	Satis.
secure (n=175)	72**	tative	70	tative	64	secure	95	8.36	7.51	8.53	7.47
		rej-neg	2	rej-neg	6	ins-amb	1				
		tarian	10	tarian	8	ins-avoid	4				
		perm	18	perm	22						
insecure-ambivalent (n=13)	5	tative	46	tative	15	secure	54	7.54	6.77	5.85	3.69
		rej-neg	7	rej-neg	46	ins-amb	15				
		tarian	23	tarian	23	ins-avoid	30				
		perm	23	perm	15						
insecure-avoidant (n=57)	23	tative	49	tative	30	secure	53	7.51	6.42	6.11	4.47
		rej-neg	14	rej-neg	23	ins-amb	5				
		tarian	21	tarian	37	ins-avoid	42				
		perm	0	perm	10						

Note: ** = sig. at $p < .01$; Bold figures are sig. at $p < .05$ using Chi-Square; Italics figures are sig at $p < .05$

TABLE 4
Parenting-Style Comparisons

Mothers		Parent-Style %	Dad Par-Sty %	Mom Att-Type %	Dad Att-Type %	Mom Import.	Mom Satis.	Dad Import.	Dad Satis.		
authoritative (n=158)	64*	tative rej-neg tarian perm	75 7 10 9	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	91 0 9	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	78 4 18	8.48	7.61	8.12	6.73
rejecting-neglecting (n=13)	4**	tative rej-neg tarian perm	15 54 7 23	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	31 15 34	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	31 7 62	6.15	4.7	6.08	5.14
authoritarian (n=32)	13	tative rej-neg tarian perm	19 22 50 9	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	56 10 34	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	53 9 38	7.03	5.9	6.7	6.44
permissive (n=46)	19	tative rej-neg tarian perm	16 11 14 59	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	87 2 11	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	73 7 20	8.3	7.59	7.98	6.33
Fathers		Mom Par-Sty %	Mom Att-Type %	Dad Att-Type %	Mom Import.	Mom Satis.	Dad Import.	Dad Satis.			
authoritative (n=131)	54*	tative rej-neg tarian perm	88 2 5 5	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	89 1 9	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	85 2 13	8.35	7.49	8.46	7.36
rejecting-neglecting (n=29)	11**	tative rej-neg tarian perm	35 24 24 17	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	62 7 31	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	35 20 45	7.41	5.83	6.8	4.17
authoritarian (n=38)	16	tative rej-neg tarian perm	40 3 42 16	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	68 5 26	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	37 8 55	7.73	7.16	6.54	5.29
permissive (n=47)	19	tative rej-neg tarian perm	30 7 6 57	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	91 0 9	secure ins-amb ins-avoid	83 4 13	8.19	7.38	7.75	6.89

Note: * = sig. at $p < .05$; ** = sig. at $p < .01$; Bold figures are sig. at $p < .05$ using Chi Square Analysis; Italics figures are sig. at $p < .05$

Regarding parenting-style, importance ($F(3,222)=10.86, p<.001$) and satisfaction ($F(3,219)=13.64, p<.001$) ratings of the relationship participants had with their authoritative mothers were significantly higher when compared to those reporting their mothers did not use an authoritative parenting-style (see Table 4). Similarly for fathers, the importance ($F(3,222)=21.89, p<.001$) and satisfaction ($F(3,219)=13.72, p<.001$) ratings of the relationship participants had with their authoritative fathers were significantly higher when compared to those reporting their fathers did not use an authoritative parenting-style.

Rapprochement

In addition to the self-report measure based on the “friend-like” question, a composite measure of relationship closeness for each parent was obtained from Part F, the Rapprochement Measure of the questionnaire, by calculating the mean response across the first eleven items. A frequency distribution of these means was examined to obtain sample specific cut-off scores for a median split into two groups: a close relationship with the parent, and a not-so-close relationship. This reconfigured friendship scale correlated significantly (mothers $r=.44, p<.01$, fathers $r=.54, p<.01$) with the self-report measure. Although most participants indicated that their relationship with their mothers (73%) and fathers (58%) were “very friendly”, most participants also (mothers 60%, fathers 55%) indicated that the “teenage/high-school years” was the time when this relationship was not as friendly and harmonious.

The mother/father rapprochement group was initially operationally defined (following Josselson’s (1988) hypothesis) as those participants who answered “yes” to the “friend-like” question and scored above the 75th percentile on the autonomy measure. An examination of the frequency distribution for autonomy scores and the scoring materials from the Psychosocial Maturity Scale (Greenberger et al., 1974) showed a large ceiling effect with all but two participants in this study scoring at or above the 70th percentile for autonomy. This finding possibly indicates that participants had, for the most part, achieved autonomy from their parents, although ceiling effects are notoriously difficult to interpret. Thus, the mother/father rapprochement group was subsequently defined only by

participants' self-reports on the "friend-like" question, and instead autonomy was included as an independent variable in the discriminant analysis.

Klecka (1980) stated that a discriminant analysis is "the method of choice when it is not known how well the proposed variables discriminate between the two groups" (pg., 345). This study was interested in determining which variables discriminated between those young-adults who had achieved a rapprochement with their parent and those who had not achieved a rapprochement. Thus, the dependent variable was the level of rapprochement (achieved or not achieved). Two separate discriminant analyses were performed, one for each parent. There were nine independent variables entered into each analysis: the reported attachment (two levels - secure versus insecure) to each parent, the reported parenting-style (two levels - authoritative versus all others) of each parent, the number of conflicts, the number of unresolved conflicts, the participants' living status (away versus at home) and autonomy score (as mentioned above), parents' level of education, and participants' age and sex. A cross-validation method was used, that is half the data were chosen at random by the computer program, and the discriminant function was built and tested on this half, and tested again on the other half. This method reveals the strengths or weaknesses in the function.

Results for mother ($n=246$) indicated that one function significantly (Wilks Lamda =.67, df= 5, $p<.001$) discriminated between rapprochement groups in the first half of these data. No assumptions were violated except for the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance ($\text{BoxM}= 53.4$, $F(15,22258)=3.36$, $p<.001$); however, the ratio of largest to smallest group size was 2.1:1, and the discriminant analysis is robust enough to handle this violation (Garg, 1996). Canonical R^2 showed that the function explained 33% of the total variance in group membership (rapprochement with mother or no rapprochement). The function classified 81% of the cases correctly, well above the chance probability of 56%. The function, identified by correlations between the variables and the function, was defined by mom-secure ($r=.84$), dad-secure ($r=.51$), and unresolved conflicts ($r=-.33$), indicating that participants were likely to report having achieved a state of rapprochement with their mothers if they also reported being securely attached to their

mother and to their fathers, and having few unresolved conflicts. This function, when applied to the second half of the data, again correctly classified 81% of the cases.

Results for father ($n=233$) indicated that one function significantly (Wilks Lamda =.78, $df= 5$, $p<.001$) discriminated between groups in the first half of these data. Again, no assumptions were violated except for the homogeneity of variance-covariance (BoxM= 35.65, $F(15,28105)=2.25$, $p<.01$); however the ratio of largest to smallest group size was an acceptable 1.75:1. Canonical R^2 showed that the function explained 22% of the total variance in rapprochement group membership with fathers. The function when applied to the first half of the data, classified 75% of the cases correctly, well above the chance probability of 53%. The function, identified by correlations between the variables and the function, was defined by dad-secure ($r=.79$), unresolved conflicts ($r=-.54$), and dad-authoritative ($r=.52$), indicating that participants who reported having achieved a state of rapprochement with their fathers were also likely to have reported being securely attached to their fathers, having few unresolved conflicts, and having a father who used an authoritative parenting-style. This function, when applied to the second half of the data, correctly classified 73% of the cases, again well above the 53% chance classification.

Additional Findings

Content Analysis of Conflict Categories and Conflict Resolution Methods:

Although this study made no hypotheses regarding conflict areas or conflict resolution methods, the results were nonetheless interesting. These data were analyzed without reference to the type of relationship (attachment or parenting-style) between participants and their parents. As well, only highlights of the results are mentioned here. Overall, as mentioned above, the number of conflicts that participants reported they had with both parents was higher than with either parent individually (see Table 5), although the number of conflicts with mothers were higher than with fathers. The top five areas participants reported being in conflict with their mothers were household chores, curfews, sexual activities, finances, and interpersonal activities. With respect to their fathers, the top five conflict categories were the regulation of family assets, finances, sexual activities,

Table 5
Rankings of Conflict Categories for Mothers, Fathers, and Both Parents

<i>Mothers</i>			<i>Fathers</i>			<i>Both Parents</i>		
Conflict Area	N	%	Conflict Area	N	%	Conflict Area	N	%
Household Chores	40	12.7	Reg. of Family Assets	27	12.7	Hmwk/School Achieve.	35	9.9
Bedtime and Curfew	40	12.7	Finances	24	11.3	Bedtime and Curfew	34	9.7
Reg. of Sexual Activity	30	9.6	Reg. of Sexual Activity	22	10.4	Reg. of Sexual Activ.	32	9.1
Finances	25	8.0	Other	22	10.4	Health & Hygiene	32	9.1
Reg. of Interpersonal Activ.	24	7.6	Bedtime and Curfew	18	8.5	Finances	29	8.2
Reg. of Activities	22	7.0	Hmwk/School Achievement	17	8.0	Interpersonal Relations	28	8.0
Health and Hygiene	19	6.1	Chores	15	7.1	Other	25	7.1
Hmwk/School Achievement	18	5.7	Health and Hygiene	12	5.7	Chores	23	6.5
Reg. of Family Assets	15	4.8	Parent/Adol Communication	11	5.2	Reg. of Family Assets	21	6.0
Other	14	4.5	Reg. of Interpersonal Activ.	10	4.7	Personality/Beh. Style	19	5.4
Parent/Adol Communication	14	4.5	Reg. of Activities	8	3.8	Reg. of Interpersonal A.	18	5.1
Personality/ Behaviour Style	13	4.1	Parents Lifestyle	7	3.3	Parent/Adol Commun.	18	5.1
Respect and Trust	11	3.5	Respect and Trust	5	2.4	Reg. of Activities	17	4.8
Interpersonal Relations	10	3.2	Appearance	4	1.9	Parents Lifestyle	10	2.8
Parents Lifestyle	8	2.5	Personality/Behaviour Style	4	1.9	Respect and Trust	8	2.3
Moving Out	8	2.5	Moving Out	4	1.9	Appearance	2	0.6
Appearance	3	1.0	Interpersonal Relations	2	0.9	Moving Out	1	0.3
Total	314	100		212	100		352	100
Mean - all categories	18.5			12			21	

other, and curfews. These data indicated no major differences with regards to the content of conflicts between parents.

For those conflicts reported as being resolved (see Table 6), again, regardless of the type of relationship, a mutual agreement was usually the outcome in the categories of curfew, health and hygiene, interpersonal activities, homework, regulation of family assets, finances, and other. Parents were reported by participants to have rarely prevailed in any one conflict area (especially regulation of sexual activity). Young-adults generally prevailed in the category of moving out, appearance, and regulation of sexual activity, (while they reported that they never prevailed in the area of parents' lifestyle). The conflict categories of chores, respect and trust, regulation of activities, personality/behaviour style, parent-adolescent/young-adult communication, interpersonal relations, and parents' lifestyle were frequently unresolved.

Predicting Unresolved Conflicts

A discriminant analysis was performed on these data to determine which dependent variables differentiated between groups on the number of unresolved conflicts. The variable unresolved conflicts was recoded so that one unresolved conflict or less formed one group, and 1.1 unresolved conflicts or more formed the other group. This level was chosen because .98 was the highest mean number of unresolved conflicts in either secure or authoritative relationships (see Tables 1 & 2). The dependent variables entered into the analysis were the total number of conflicts, attachment type (two levels) and parenting-style (two levels) for each parent, participants' living status and autonomy score, parents' education level, and participants' ethnicity, age and sex. A cross-validation method was used, that is, half the data were chosen at random and the discriminant function was built on this half, and tested on the other half. No assumptions were violated except the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance ($\text{BoxM} = 50.35$, $F(10,28617) = 4.82$, $p < .001$), however, the ratio of the largest to smallest group size was an acceptable 2.1:1. Results indicated that one function significantly discriminated between groups (Wilks Lamda = .59, df = 4, $p < .001$). Canonical R^2 showed that the function explained 41% of the total variance in group membership. The function classified 85% of the cases correctly,

well above the chance probability of 56%. The function, identified by correlations between the variables and the function, was defined by total number of conflicts ($r=-.76$), attachment to father ($r=.57$) and attachment to mother ($r=.41$), indicating that participants who reported fewer than one unresolved conflict with their parents also reported that they had few total conflicts to begin with and were securely attached to both their mother and their father. This function when tested on the second half of the sample, correctly classified 75% of the cases, still well above the chance probability.

Table 6
Methods of Conflict Resolution for Conflict Categories

Conflict Category	Method of Resolution (%)				Total %
	Mutual Agreement	Parent Prevailed	Young-Adult Prevailed	Not Resolved	
Moving Out	15	23	39	23	100
Parents' Lifestyle	12	16	0	72	100
Parent/Adol. Communication	16	7	9	68	100
Personality/Behavioural Style	16	33	6	45	100
Reg. of Sexual Activities	35	4	39	22	100
Other	35	16	15	34	100
Bedtime and Curfew	52	15	17	16	100
Interpersonal Relations	37	10	10	43	100
Health and Hygiene	42	7	19	32	100
Reg. of Interpersonal Activity	39	7	33	21	100
Homework/School Achievement	39	17	16	28	100
Reg. of Activities	27	8	21	44	100
Finances	34	7	32	27	100
Respect and Trust	29	8	21	42	100
Household Chores	30	26	7	37	100
Reg. of Family Assets	50	25	14	11	100
Appearance	11	33	34	22	100

Note: Bold Figures are sig. at $p < .05$

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to begin to understand which features of relationships encourage parents and young-adults to develop friend-like relationships, and which ones do not. That is, the research set out to determine what it takes for parents and young-adults to 'get along'. To that end, perhaps the most important finding of this study was that attending to different types of relationships, that is examining and measuring them rather than assuming that all relationships are the same, shows significant promise for future research in the field of conflict resolution and personal relationships.

The Questionnaire

Before the literature can place any faith in the results of a study, the issue of sound methodology must be addressed, specifically the question of the reliability and validity of the chosen measures, and the manner in which they are brought to bear. It would appear from the results of both this study and the pilot study (Roberts, 1996), that the PAYARQ (Parent-Adolescent/Young Adult Relationships Questionnaire) developed for this study, and the procedures for administering it, are both reliable and valid. Reliability estimates, although calculated on a relatively small sample size, were significant and, with coefficients in the range of .60-.85, were consistent with past research (e.g., Collins & Reed, 1990). In addition, past research (Baldwin & Fehr, 1995) has indicated that there is no reason to view categorical measures as markedly less reliable than other (i.e., questionnaire) measures, especially when taken concurrently as was done in this study.

The face and content validity of the PAYARQ was evidenced by the similarity of results between this study and past research (e.g., Ainsworth et al., 1971, 1973; Baumrind, 1991) with regards to the classification percentages of attachment types and parenting-styles. Perhaps more importantly, the PAYARQ appeared sensitive to the changes which were theorized to occur in these relationships. Participants were encouraged to write comments at the end of the questionnaire, and indeed many did, sometimes sharing some very personal information. One comment though, from a 24-year-old male, seemed to say it well: "I had one of the best adolescent times growing up, my parents were better than

most, although at times we fought and I hated them. Doing this [questionnaire] helped me to remember just how lucky I was. I think I need to make a phone call tonight. Thanks.” Further research will hopefully confirm the utility of the PAYARQ in understanding the features of parent/young-adult relationships.

Discussion of Hypotheses

The results supported the predictions (of hypotheses one and two) that secure attachment and authoritative parenting-styles are associated with an environment conducive to resolving conflict and achieving a state of rapprochement between parents and young-adults. The nature of this environment, in theory at least, is one of democratic high control coupled with high support, and of a secure bond creating mutual respect between parents and young adults. The results also supported the predictions that insecure and authoritarian relationships foster an environment that interferes with conflict resolution, and ultimately reduces the likelihood that parents and participants will form a friend-like relationship. The nature of this more adverse environment, is evidently one of autocratic high control combined with low support, and an insecure bond creating uncertainty between parents and young-adults. Of course, further research in this vein is required in order to offer additional support to these theoretical assumptions. The data analysis indicated that no other variables (i.e., residential location) showed the marked differences in conflict resolution that attachment type and parenting-style did. Thus, had the study not divided the parent/young-adult relationship into its different types (i.e., attachment types and parenting-styles) inconclusive results might have been the outcome, in a manner similar to those studies reviewed and described by Laursen and Collins (1994) as inconsistent.

As predicted by the first two hypotheses, the number of ongoing conflicts in secure and in authoritative relationships was significantly lower than in all other types (i.e. insecure, authoritarian, etc.) of relationships. As well, methods of conflict resolution differed between types of relationships with secure-authoritative relationships resolving conflicts by mutual agreement more often than other relationship types, in which one party prevailed or the conflicts remained unresolved. (These analyses did not address whether

or not the party who did not prevail truly felt that the issue was resolved, that is, what the meaning of either not agreeing or not prevailing in the resolution of a conflict might be, although this may be an interesting line of future attributional research (i.e., Burkes & Parke, 1996.) The predictions in the first two hypotheses regarding the total number of conflicts being lower in secure and authoritative relationships than in all other types was not supported, except with respect to fathers' parenting-style. Results might appear this way because fathers were reported as significantly more rejecting-neglecting and less authoritative than were mothers, therefore enhancing conflicts. In general, these findings demonstrate that while conflict is relatively universal in all types of relationships (Bigelow, et al., 1992), both the amount and method of conflict resolution differs substantially depending upon the type of parent/young-adult relationship.

Predictions, in the third and fourth hypotheses, regarding the link between secure attachment and authoritative parenting-style were also supported. Participants who reported being securely attached to their mothers usually reported that both parents were authoritative. Similarly, those who reported being securely attached to their fathers also reported that both parents were predominantly authoritative. The pattern repeated itself for parenting-style. Those who reported that their parent was authoritative were usually securely attached to both parents.

For the other relationship types, trends were not as clear. Participants who were insecurely attached to their mothers tended to also be insecurely attached to their fathers, who were generally split between types of parenting-styles. Those who were insecurely attached to their fathers, however, tended to be securely attached to their mothers, and these mothers tended to use an authoritative style. It appears then, that mothers compensate for fathers. Youniss and Smollar (1985) found that, in general, where mothers were reported to meet material and emotional needs of their adolescents, father on the other hand, especially for girls, although meeting their material needs, often did not meet their emotional ones. There appeared to be no similar trends in the parenting-style data. Thus, notwithstanding mother-father differences, it isn't that one type of relationship causes or guarantees the other (in fact this is why there are two separate hypothesis, because I did not want to suggest a directionality between attachment type and

parenting-style). Rather it is that a trend appears such that if one reports being securely attached, one tends also to report having authoritative parents, and vice-versa. This trend perhaps supports suggestions in the literature that relatively secure and authoritative relationships have a certain quality to them such that they are the ideal types of relationships within this culture. As the sample for this study was rather homogeneous with regards to ethnic background, future research of course needs to take ethnicity into account (see Steinberg, Dornbush & Brown, 1992).

This notion of theoretically ideal relationships was further supported in that, as predicted by hypothesis five, the importance and satisfaction ratings of relationships with parents were significantly higher in secure and authoritative relationships than in other types of relationships. Interestingly, when asked on the questionnaire to choose the type of relationship participants wished they had with their parents, 99% choose a secure attachment relationship, while 98% choose an authoritative parenting-style relationship, the very two types with the highest ratings. Those participants who had these type of relationships wanted them, and those who didn't also wanted them, confirming findings from past research (Roberts, 1991). In fact, participants asked or wished for relationships in which they are involved with their parents, and in which they are given boundaries and support (or guidance) by their parents. Yet, they wanted these two things in a relationship that allowed them to also have input, in such a way that Fogel (1993) would argue that they had participated in, perhaps age-appropriately, 'co-constructing' their own reality.

Finally, hypothesis six was supported. I suggested that examining parent/young-adult relationships according to their different types would test Josselson's (1988) rapprochement hypothesis in detail. Hypothesis six stated that rapprochement would most likely occur in secure-authoritative relationships where conflicts had, for the most part, been resolved, and indeed the variables attachment type, parenting-style, and unresolved conflicts were the ones that best discriminated between rapprochement group membership for mothers and fathers. It appears then that, although not explicit in Josselson's hypothesis, a relatively low level of unresolved conflict is necessary for rapprochement to occur. These data then suggested that a state of rapprochement between parents and young-adults is most likely achieved by resolving conflicts in such a way that the family

connectedness is maintained, and the offspring's need for autonomy is recognized and encouraged. The results of this study strongly suggested that the inherent quality of secure and authoritative relationships provide the method through which these three issues (i.e., conflicts, connectedness, and autonomy) are best addressed.

Discussion of Additional Findings

Content Analysis

The conflict categories used in the content analysis appear to be sufficiently differentiated to allow ease of coding, as evidenced by the acceptable inter-rater reliability. An examination of the ranking of categories for each parent (see Table 1), regardless of the type of relationship, indicates some interesting trends. With mothers, 25% of the conflicts involved household chores and curfews, while with fathers 25% of conflicts involved regulation of family assets and finances. Thus, participants reported fighting with their fathers about money, and with their mothers about home-related issues. Stereotypically, fathers still appear to be the breadwinners, while mothers stay at home. In fact, participants reported that 95% of their fathers (compared to only 20% of their mothers) worked or had worked before they retired. (This is rather interesting when one considers that these 'stereotypical parents' were the adolescents of the 'hippie' sixties. In view of the age cohort, it will be interesting to see if this trend changes when, in twenty to thirty years, the "generation X" adolescents of the eighties and nineties become parents experiencing conflicts with their own adolescent children.)

The regulation of sexual activities category ranked third on the list for both parents, accounting for approximately 10% of all conflicts. The conflict category of "other" ranked fourth for father, accounting for 10% of all conflicts, while for mothers it ranked tenth, accounting for 5% of all conflicts. With both parents together, "other" ranked seventh accounting for 7% of all conflicts. Even with the sixteen categories, the percentage of conflicts coded into this category indicated that there is still much idiosyncrasy in the nature of conflicts between parents, especially fathers, and their young-adult children. As an example, a 23-year-old female wrote "moving cities - he wanted to and I didn't, I was in university, and he didn't have a job; he won and we moved, now he

still doesn't have a job, and I'm not with my friends or in the program I wanted." These results support the findings of other researchers (Smctana, 1989; Bigelow, et al., 1994) namely that conflicts and their meanings are defined in, specific to, and sensitive to relationships in environmental contexts (cf. Wozniak & Fischer, 1993), and that these conflicts influence adult children in their relationships with their parents. To expand on this further, even the methods of conflict resolution varied between categories (see Table 2). Seven of the seventeen categories were usually resolved by mutual agreement. However, an almost equal number of categories (8) remained predominantly unresolved.

According to participants, the conflict categories of parents' lifestyle and parent-adolescent communications are areas that will require a great deal of relational work to resolve to any level of agreement. One 24-year-old female put it this way "How can you resolve a communication problem when your father won't even acknowledge your presence?" As well, at least according to the participants of this study, it appears that the conflict category of regulation of sexual behaviours is an area that parents would be well advised to avoid. Parents rarely prevail in this area (only 4% of the time); instead, conflicts in this category are resolved by adolescents prevailing (39% of the time), or by mutual agreement (35% of the time). Clearly, participants at this age level do not want their parents, unilaterally at least, telling them who they can date, cohabitate with, be sexually involved with, or marry. One participant summed it up best, in explaining how this conflict, which she had with both her parents, became resolved. She wrote "I resolved it! I broke up with him when I was ready to, three years after they began hounding me. They were right in the end, he wasn't for me, but I needed to find that out for myself. Now we laugh about it together." Similarly, parents send the same message to their adolescents/young-adults, who never prevail in conflicts over parents' lifestyle. One participant wrote "I can't stand his drinking, but it's his life, his body, and I can't worry about it anymore - but I'll miss him when he's gone". It seems then that not only are conflicts inherently relational, but so too are conflict resolutions.

General Discussion

In view of the results obtained by examining conflicts and their resolutions within the context of different types of parent/young-adult relationships, perhaps the second most important finding of this study is the support for the hypothesis of a conceptual link between attachment type and parenting-style. Evidence to support this conceptual link comes from two sources. First, from the existing literature in terms of the similarities in both the theoretical descriptions and research findings outlined above in the literature review. Secondly, from the results of this study.

The current results allow us to add differences in the number of unresolved conflicts, and in the methods of conflict resolution, to the growing list of research findings which indicate different outcomes between secure/insecure and authoritative/non-authoritatively raised children. As well, this study, as was noted above, to the best of my knowledge was one of the first (see Wintre, Yaffe, & Crowley, 1995) to combine the basic attachment types (cf. Ainsworth et al., 1971; 1978) and the basic parenting-styles (cf. Baumrind, 1971) into a single comprehensive design. One question now begs an answer: Are these two dimensions measuring the same underlying construct, just calling it by a different name? The results of this study suggest that researchers must answer this question in the affirmative.

When attachment type and parenting-style were combined into a single statistical analysis (e.g., ANOVA), results indicated a significant main effect of attachment type on the number of unresolved conflicts; however, the main effect of parenting-style was either insignificant or only approached significance. When attachment type is removed from the analysis, that is when an ANOVA using only parenting-style is computed, results were significant for both mothers and fathers. Thus, from a statistical standpoint, attachment type and parenting-style share a relatively high level of common variance, that is attachment type in the first ANOVA is explaining much of the variance in parenting-style.

If this study shows a common variance between attachment type and parenting-style, and if the recent literature (e.g., Wintre, et al., 1995) indicates similar theoretical descriptions and research findings, then perhaps attachment type is indeed describing much the same construct as parenting-style, just focusing more on the emotional aspect of it

whereas parenting-style focuses more on the behavioural aspect. This only makes sense in that humans are at once emotional and behavioural creatures, therefore it is ill-advised to attempt to understand human relationships from either standpoint by excluding the other.

So then, what is the underlying construct? I suggest that it is a conceptually constructed closeness which fosters a comfort level which allows for physical and psychological exploration both within and beyond the relationship, which at once supports and controls in such a way that both parties feel mutually responsible for the outcome of the relationship. In short, I suggest that this construct might be captured by a relationship quality index which measures both the emotional and behavioural aspects of relationships, and each of these from the perspectives of the conceptual representations and the objective behaviours of the relationship. Future research needs to address and identify the behavioural markers of quality parenting. Indeed, Ilindé (1979; 1995) has suggested that relationships are best understood as successive levels of abstractions, and involve interactions over time both of overt behaviours and of subjective experiences.

Other researchers have recently published articles in a related vein, the results of which lend credence to the results of this study in terms of the link between attachment and parenting-style. Wintre, Yaffee and Crowley (1995) found that their Perception of Parents Reciprocity Scale (POPRS) was highly correlated with attachment type, and Yaffe and Wintre (1996) recently indicated the relationship of the POPRS scale to parenting-style. Although both of these studies used quantitative data collection and analysis techniques, they conclude with results that confirm the results from the qualitative or phenomenological data collected in this study.

How does this theoretical "relationship quality index" begin to help us understand what it takes for parents and adolescent/young-adults to 'get along'? This study cannot conclusively answer this question as it only measured young-adults' perceptions of the parent/young-adult relationship. Nonetheless, following the Thomases' (1928) dictum, young-adult participants, by defining their conflicts and resolutions, along with the type of relationships they have with their parents, have so defined their 'reality'. Perhaps, there is no need to dig, poke, examine, or investigate further to find some abstract or independent "objective" reality. Laursen and Collins (1994) found that developmental trends in the

level of conflict were not related to independently assessed relational behaviours. It might be that trends in conflict are not related to independently assessed relational meanings either.

In a nutshell, it seems that perception is crucial in understanding personal relationships. It is this point which helps to explain why the secure and authoritative relationship types are perceived to resolve more conflicts, have higher importance and satisfaction ratings, are seen as highly desirable, are suggested by the literature to be the ideal relationships; and appear to be the relationships in which parents and young-adults 'get along'. Secure and authoritative relationships are democratically and mutually open in terms of communication. That is, in these relationships, an environment is both created and maintained where both parents and young-adults recognize and accept the others' viewpoint as being important to that person. It may be that in those relationships where the positions of participants are accepted (by the other) as valid, both participants are encouraged to become engaged in verbal discussions which, in turn, co-constructively lead to conflict resolution. Indeed, researchers have suggested that one can only openly share when they feel that what they have to say will be validated by the listener (Cohen-Silver, Wortman, & Crofton, 1990). Conversely, insecure and authoritarian or permissive or rejecting-neglecting relationships are not democratically open, and in fact, may be quite closed in terms of communication. In these relationships, participants are not sure that their positions will be validated, or that the other party even wants to hear what they have to say, neither of which is conducive to engaging participants in discussions aimed at resolving conflicts.

It would be easy at this point to adopt Locke's (1690) 'tabula rasa' view of the child, and thus hold parents ultimately responsible for both the development and the eventual outcome of the parent-child/adolescent relationship. That is, beginning at birth with a clean slate, and due to the hierarchical nature of the parent-child relationship, parents ultimately control, and are therefore responsible for, the outcome of this relationship. However, this view is not consistent with the acknowledged two-way effects (cf., Rogoff, 1990), as described earlier, influencing, in varying degrees, attachment type and parenting-style. This 'clean slate' view might be somewhat true in very early-

childhood (but even this is disputed by Scarr & McCartney (1983), among others), but it is most certainly not true in adolescence and young-adulthood, as these individuals very actively participate, as evidenced by conflict occurring in all relationship types, in molding their relationships with their parents, even to the point of turning away from (cf. Fuligni & Eccles, 1993) or rupturing them.

Establishing a link between attachment type and parenting-style was not the main focus of this study, and thus far the suggestion of this link exists mainly within the theoretical realm, albeit with some preliminary empirical support based on the results of this and other recent studies. Obviously, identifying the exact nature of this link will be an issue for future research to address in a more detail manner and using a more direct methodology than the one employed in this study, perhaps one that examines both emotional regulation and behavioural control within parent-young-adult relationships.

Limitations

The most obvious limitation to this study has been alluded to throughout this thesis - that of the one sided nature of these results. Time simply did not permit the investigation of the parents' perspectives on conflict and conflict resolution within the parent/young-adult relationship. Other limitations however, are perhaps less obvious. While the phenomenological approach adopted in this study has certain clear advantages (previously noted above) over less qualitative measures (cf., Laursen & Collins, 1994), this approach also has its disadvantages. One such disadvantage relates to the lack of control a researcher has in terms of the data collection. For example, I had no way of knowing which dimension (i.e., control or support) of the parenting-style paragraphs participants focused on when choosing a paragraph, or whether they focused on both dimensions equally. If, for example, participants focused on only the emotional or support dimension of the parenting-style paragraphs, then this might explain why in the 3x4 (Attachment Type x Parenting-Style) MANOVA, attachment type was found to be significantly related to unresolved conflicts and parenting style was not. That is, the common variance that I suggest supports the theoretical link between these two constructs, may in fact merely be a contamination of the independence of the data due to participants focusing on the

emotional dimension of the parenting-style paragraphs. However, based on the similarity of the results obtained here compared to those of past research, I doubt that this alternative interpretation of the data is a correct one, although it may account for some of the unexplained variance. Moreover, such a confounding factor may actually support the potency of the emotional argument.

A second potential disadvantage relates to the notion that participants are able to distinguish between relationship types, and given three or four choices perhaps might have a tendency to pick the better one as the most socially desirable. While this interpretation might explain the extremely high percentages of participants reporting that they wished they had secure and authoritative relationships with their parents, it is not supported by other research which indicates that adolescents are more accurate than their parents in describing their relationships. Weinberger, Tublin, Ford, & Feldman (1990) found that when parents' self-reports of their relationships were used, there was an overrepresentation of well-functioning relationships. That is, authoritarian parents see themselves (and thus report themselves) to be far more authoritative than they actually are, and thus bias the data in the direction of the more well-functioning relationships. In short, young-adults' self-reports of their relationships with parents have been upheld by past research as valid (e.g., Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991).

Clearly, this study is limited in its reliance on a purely qualitative methodology. Other behavioural methodologies are required which will address the degree of independence between attachment type and parenting-style before the suggestion of a link between these two constructs can be empirically advanced. Also, the perspectives of both the young-adult and the parent need to be ascertained to help determine whether relationship perceptions are based on an objectively coherent common denominator.

Implications

The implications of this research, pending further replication studies with similar findings, are quite broad. First, the questionnaire developed for this research provides researchers with a tool which can collect a wide variety of information within a short period of time. Secondly, a few minor changes to some of the wordings on the

questionnaire would provide a measure with the potential to collect parent's perceptions of the parent-adolescent/young-adult relationship, and further to compare these with their adolescents' perceptions within relationship types, with a view to understanding convergence and divergence in these perceptions. That is, in theory, and based on these results, one would expect adolescents' and their parents' reports from secure/authoritative relationships to have a high level of convergence in ratings, conflict reports etc., whereas authoritarian/insecure relationships would presumably have a low rate of convergence. Thirdly, a new line of research stemming from our understanding of both sides of these relationships might better address how, and to what extent, both appropriate and inappropriate social skills are modeled (by parents) and acquired (by children/adolescents) within these different types of relationships (e.g., Finnie & Russel, 1988; Waters, Wippman, & Sroufe, 1979), and furthermore to address the age-old argument as to the extent that we learn to parent from our parents. Fourthly, clinical practitioners, by attending to the different types of parent-adolescent relationships might better understand, and therefore facilitate, conflict resolution within each relationship type. Finally, similar research might examine conflict resolution in industry and business with a view to eventually offering training programs to teach effective relating techniques, as well as effective methods of conflict resolution, which are sensitive to the type of relationship in which the conflict exists.

Directions for Future Research

Many opportunities and possibilities for future research have been mentioned throughout this discussion as they relate to the topic at hand. This study has advanced a theoretical link between secure attachment, authoritative parenting-style, resolved conflicts, and parent-young-adult friend-like rapprochement relationships. In this sense, phenomenologically, the real quality relationship appears to have stood up, if only on one leg. Albeit from only one side of the relationship, namely that of the adolescent/young-adult, the results of this study are nonetheless encouraging. Halpern (1977) it seems was correct; according to the participants in this study, adolescents and young-adults do want to relate to their parents as one adult to another. When they cannot, that is, when they

must relate to them as little children (to continue Halpern's analogy), they report that these relationships do not remain close and connected (cf., Josselson 1988), and instead the young-adults distance themselves (cf., Fuligni & Eccles, 1993) apparently choosing the route of being or becoming an adult separate from their parents. While this route may be unfortunate at times, the desire to become an adult, or to gain ones' own autonomy (cf., Greenberger, et al., 1974) is probably a good thing in the sense of the survival of our species (cf., Darwin, 1872). Future research, using a similar approach to the one used in this study, will need to focus on the parents' perceptions of these relationships, that is, on the parents' 'reality', in order to lend further credence to the results of this study, and to determine whether there is consensual validation (cf. Sullivan, 1953) in different types of parent-young-adult relationships or whether such development within the family is in fact a story of two solitudes.

APPENDIX A

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to test whether the questionnaire developed for this research could adequately address the research questions. The original version of the Parent-Adolescent-Young-Adult Rapprochement Questionnaire (PAYARQ) was administered to a total of 72 undergraduate university and college students (19 males, 53 females, mean age 20.7 years) in a group setting in their inter-session (May-June) classes. Classes were selected from across the disciplines of English, Psychology, Sociology and Business. Participants were informed that we were researching parent-adolescent/young-adult relationships, that there were no known risks associated with participating in the research which was totally voluntary, and that results would be made available upon the participant's request. Each student was given a business card indicating how to reach the researchers. Voluntary informed research consent forms (see Appendix C) were handed out, the PAYARQ was given to participants in exchange for a signed form, and participants asked to carefully read the instructions at the top of each page, told there were no right or wrong answers and encouraged to write as much information as they could recall. No talking was allowed during completion of the questionnaire's and students did not receive any course credit for participating.

The results of this pilot study provided encouraging support for all hypothesis, but more importantly resulted in some changes to the questionnaire and methodology.

APPENDIX B

The Parent Adolescent Young-Adult Relationships Questionnaire

Table of Contents for the PAYARQ

- Part A - General Demographics Information**
- Part B - Conflicts and Conflict Resolutions Measure**
- Part C - Paragraph Measure of Attachment Type**
- Part D - Paragraph Measure of Parenting-Style**
- Part E - Importance and Satisfaction Ratings**
- Part F - Rapprochement Measure**
- Part G - Autonomy Measure**
- Part H - Relationship Scales Questionnaire measure of Attachment Type**
- Part I - Index of Parenting-Style**

PART A:*Please check off the appropriate blanks.*

Your Age: _____ Your Grade (e.g. 3rd yr. university): _____ Your Sex: _____

Language your family normally speaks at home (e.g. English, French): _____

My ancestors belong to the ethnic/cultural group: Canadian/American _____ French _____
Irish _____ Italian _____ Oriental _____ Native _____ Black _____ Other: _____

When you talk about your parents you are referring to:

- a) your natural/biological parents _____ b) your adoptive parents _____
 c) your mother and stepfather _____ d) your father and stepmother _____
 e) other (specify): _____

My parents are: living together _____ separated/living apart: _____ divorced: _____
other (specify): _____

If you have a step-parent, how long has this person been your step-parent? _____ years

I currently live: with my parents _____ on my own _____

Highest level of education you plan to complete:

high school _____ college _____ university _____ post graduate degree _____

Highest level of education completed by your parent:

Mother: grade school _____ high school _____ college _____ university _____ post grad _____
 Father: : grade school _____ high school _____ college _____ university _____ post grad _____

Mothers: occupation: _____ Fathers: occupation: _____
 job title: _____ job title: _____

Describe what each parent typically does in their job:

Mother: _____

Father: _____

I am my parents' _____ (1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th etc.) child.

PART C:

Please choose the ONE paragraph that best describes the relationship you ACTUALLY have with your mother, and with your father (you can choose the same paragraph for both parents, but only one paragraph for each parent), and indicate in the blank how well this paragraph describes this relationship: 1 = exactly; 2 = very well but not exactly; 3 = good, certainly better than other paragraphs.

	Mother	Father
Paragraph 1: I find it relatively easy to get close to my parent, and I am comfortable depending on them and also having them depend on me. I do not often worry about them abandoning me or them getting too close to me.	_____	_____
Paragraph 2: I find that my parent is reluctant to get as close to me as I would like, often that my parent doesn't really love me or want to be with me. I want to merge completely with my parent and this desire sometimes scares them away.	_____	_____
Paragraph 3: I am somewhat uncomfortable getting close to my parent. I find it difficult to trust them completely, difficult to allow myself to depend on them. I am nervous when they get too close and they often want me to be more open with them than I feel comfortable being.	_____	_____

Which paragraph number do you WISH your relationship with your mother had been like?

and with your father?

PART D:

*Please choose the ONE paragraph that best describes the way in which your mother, and your father **ACTUALLY** acted as a parent towards you (you can choose the same paragraph for both, but only one paragraph for each parent), and indicate in the blank how well the paragraph describes this: 1 = exactly; 2 = very well but not exactly; 3 = good, certainly better than other paragraphs.*

Paragraph 1:

Mother/Father

I recall my parent as encouraging give and take. My parent controlled my behaviours rationally, but always explained their reasoning to me on each issue. He/she supported my efforts in loving ways. My parent respected my rights as a child, demanding that I respect their rights as a parent. He/she often said they were not perfect. He/she told me what I was good at, and yet challenged me by setting new standards.

Paragraph 2:

I recall my parent as highly demanding. He/she controlled my behaviours irrationally, without explaining their reasons. I always felt that I was being evaluated against some theoretical standard. My parent did not encourage me to discuss things with them. I had to accept what he/she said as being right. My parent was less warm and supportive than I would have liked.

Paragraph 3:

I recall my parent as very warm and accepting. He/she supported me by saying that they were a resource that I could call on when I needed to. My parent was not demanding. I could pretty much do as I wanted, my parent rarely controlled my behaviours by enforcing rules or norms.

Paragraph 4:

I recall my parent as very distant and unsupportive. He/she rarely responded to my needs or to my attempts to communicate. Often he/she had no idea what I was doing or where I was going. I had very few demands placed on me.

Which paragraph number do you WISH your parent had related to you like? Mother _____

Father _____

PART E:

Please indicate your responses to each question on the scale following it:

0 = not at all 5 = moderately 9 = very

- How important to you is the relationship you have with your mother?
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
- How satisfied are you with the relationship you have with your mother?
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
- How important to you is the relationship you have with your father?
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
- How satisfied are you with the relationship you have with your father?
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
- How important to you is the relationship you have with your best same sex friend?
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
- How satisfied are you with the relationship you have with this friend?
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
- How important to you is the relationship you have with your best opposite sex friend?
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
- How satisfied are you with the relationship you have with this friend?
0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

PART F:

Please circle or fill in, the appropriate response.

1=never happens 2=sometimes happens 3=often happens 4=always happens

	Mother	
Father		
My parent and I tell each other secrets	_____	_____
My parent and I criticize each other	_____	_____
My parent and I ask each others' opinion on a variety of topics	_____	_____
My parent and I lie to each other	_____	_____
My parent and I went someplace together (ball game, shopping)	_____	_____
My parent and I do not voluntarily help each other	_____	_____
My parent and I talk about each other behind the others' back	_____	_____
My parent and I talk to each other about our personal problems	_____	_____
My parent and I spent time just talking together	_____	_____
My parent and I ask each other for assistance	_____	_____
My parent and I offer and accept advice from each other	_____	_____

How friendly and harmonious is the relationship you have with:

- | | | |
|----------------------|---------------------------|-------------------------|
| your <u>mother</u> ? | _____ Very friendly | _____ Somewhat friendly |
| | _____ Somewhat unfriendly | _____ Very Unfriendly |
| your <u>father</u> ? | _____ Very friendly | _____ Somewhat friendly |
| | _____ Somewhat unfriendly | _____ Very Unfriendly |

Was there a time when your relationship with you parent was not as friendly and harmonious?

Mother? YES NO If yes, when?

Father? YES NO If yes, when?

Do you consider your relationship with your mother to be friend-like? YES NO

Do you consider your relationship with your father to be friend-like? YES NO

PART G:

Please read each statement carefully and enter your response (A, B, C, or D) in the blank beside it.

A= Strongly Agree B=Slightly Agree C= Slightly Disagree D=Strongly Disagree

1. When a job turns out much harder than I was told it would be, I don't feel I have to do it perfectly. _____
2. It's not very practical to try to decide what kind of job you want because that depends so much on other people. _____
3. I can't really say what my interests are. _____
4. I find it hard to stick to anything that takes a long time to do. _____
5. In a group I prefer to let other people make the decisions. _____
6. I never seem to feel the same about myself from one week to the next. _____
7. I hate to admit it, but I give up on my work when things go wrong. _____
8. You can't be expected to make a success of yourself if you had a bad childhood. _____
9. Most people are better liked than I am. _____
10. I seldom get behind in my work. _____

11. Luck decides most things that happen to me. _____
12. My life is pretty empty. _____
13. I tend to go from one thing to another before finishing any one of them. _____
14. The main reason I'm not more successful is that I've had bad luck. _____
15. I can't seem to keep people as friends for very long. _____
16. I often don't finish work I start. _____
17. Someone often has to tell me what to do. _____
18. I'm acting like something I'm not a lot of the time. _____
19. I often leave my homework unfinished if there are good TV shows on that evening. _____

20. When things go well for me, it is usually not because of anything I myself actually did. _____
21. I never know what I'm going to do next. _____
22. I believe in working only as hard as I have to. _____
23. I feel very uncomfortable if I disagree with what my friends think. _____
24. I change the way I feel and act so often that I sometimes wonder who the "real" me is. _____
25. It's more important for a job to pay well, than for a job to be very interesting. _____
26. It's best to agree with others, rather than say what you really think, if it will keep the peace. _____
27. Nobody knows what I'm really like. _____
28. Very often I forget work I am supposed to do. _____
29. I don't know whether I like a new outfit until I find out what my friends think. _____
30. I am not really accepted and liked. _____

PART H:

Please respond to each statement indicating on the scale the extent the statement applies to you.

1	2	3	4	5
not at all like me		sort of like me		exactly like me
1. I find it difficult to depend on other people.	1	2	3	4 5
2. It is very easy for me to feel independent.	1	2	3	4 5
3. I find it easy to get emotionally close to others.	1	2	3	4 5
4. I want to merge completely with another person.	1	2	3	4 5
5. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become close to others.	1	2	3	4 5
6. I am comfortable without close emotional relationships.	1	2	3	4 5
7. I am not sure that I can always depend on others to be there when I need them.		1	2	3 4 5
8. I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others.	1	2	3	4 5
9. I worry about being alone.	1	2	3	4 5
10. I am comfortable depending on others.	1	2	3	4 5
11. I often worry that romantic partners don't really love me.	1	2	3	4 5
12. I find it difficult to trust others completely.	1	2	3	4 5
13. I worry about others getting too close to me.	1	2	3	4 5
14. I want emotionally close relationships.	1	2	3	4 5
15. I am comfortable having other people depend on me.	1	2	3	4 5
16. I worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.	1	2	3	4 5
17. People are never there when you need them.	1	2	3	4 5
18. My desire to merge completely sometimes scares people away.	1	2	3	4 5
19. It is very important to me to feel self-sufficient.	1	2	3	4 5
20. I am nervous when anyone gets too close to me.	1	2	3	4 5
21. I often worry that romantic partners won't want to stay with me.	1	2	3	4 5
22. I prefer not to have other people depend on me.	1	2	3	4 5
23. I worry about being abandoned.	1	2	3	4 5
24. I am uncomfortable being close to others.	1	2	3	4 5
25. I find that others are reluctant to get as close to me as I would like.	1	2	3	4 5
26. I prefer not to depend on others.	1	2	3	4 5
27. I know that others will be there when I need them.	1	2	3	4 5
28. I worry about others not accepting me.	1	2	3	4 5
29. Romantic partners often want me to be closer than I feel comfortable being.		1	2	3 4 5
30. I find it relatively easy to get close to others.	1	2	3	4 5

PART I:

Please indicate the extent you agree or disagree with the following statements for each parent.

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3	4
strongly disagree		moderately disagree		neutral		moderately agree		strongly agree

	Mother	Father
I can count on my parent to help me out, if I have some kind of problem	_____	_____
My parent keeps pushing me to do my best in whatever I do	_____	_____
My parent keeps pushing me to think independently	_____	_____
My parent helped me with my school work if there was something I didn't understand	_____	_____
When my parent wanted me to do something they explained why	_____	_____
When I got a good grade in school, my parent praised me	_____	_____
When I got a poor grade in school my parent encouraged me to try harder?	_____	_____
My parent really knew who my friends were	_____	_____
My parent spent time just talking with me	_____	_____
My parent <i>tried</i> to know where I went at night	_____	_____
My parent <i>really</i> knew where I went at night	_____	_____
My parent <i>tried</i> to know what I did in my free time	_____	_____
My parent <i>really</i> knew what I did in my spare time	_____	_____
My parent <i>tried</i> to know where I was in afternoons after school	_____	_____
My parent <i>really</i> knew where I was in afternoons after school	_____	_____
On school nights (Sun-Thurs) I was <i>not</i> allowed out past 8:00pm	_____	_____
On weekends (Fri-Sat) I was <i>not</i> allowed out past 9:00pm	_____	_____

If there is anything else about the relationship you have with your parents you wish to tell us, or you wish to elaborate on a point we just touched upon, please write about it below, or on the back.

APPENDIX C

Voluntary Informed Consent Form

Voluntary Informed Consent Form

Purpose of the Research:

As a part of my Masters thesis at Laurentian University, under the supervision of Dr. Brian Bigelow, I am looking at different relationships between adolescents/young-adults and their parents. I will be questioning both adolescents and young adults in order to gain insight into their side of this relationship. The results of this research will help us to better understand the different influences which have a significant impact on this complex relationship. We hope in the future to explore some of these influences further.

My Promise to You:

As the researcher, I promise you:

- that I will always maintain the confidence you have entrusted to me,
- that your responses will be useful to me in this research,
- that you may withdraw from the research at any time
- that you may skip or avoid any questions that you choose,
- that your completed questionnaire and interview will be kept confidential at all times, and
- that a complete set of results and explanations will be provided to you at the completion of this research (estimated to be April 1997).

Your Involvement:

As a participant, will you:

- please take a few minutes to complete the questionnaire,
- please feel free to explain or comment in as much detail as you wish,
- please sign this form below indicating your consent to participate, and take a copy for yourself so you can reach me in the future for results.

Thank you for your time and involvement in this research.

I have read the above and give my consent to participate in this research.

Date: _____ Name: _____

You can reach me at:

Brad Roberts
 Center for Research In Human Development
 Laurentian University, Ramsey Lake Road, Sudbury P3E-2C6.
 1-705-675-1151 ex. 4235 or at my home at 1-705-521-0542
 e-mail: G1700044@nickel.laurentian.ca

APPENDIX D

Conflict Categories

Conflict Categories:

Finances	concerns regarding spending habits, having/getting a job, earning money, budgeting, being responsible with money, and spending behaviours, etc.
Chores	maintaining family duties and responsibilities such as doing the dishes, cleaning, snow removal, walking the dog, setting the table, etc.
Appearance	concerns regarding acceptable standards of dress or appearance including hair, jewelry, makeup usage, condition or style of clothes, etc.
Personality/ Behavioural Style	concerns regarding consistent irritating personality traits or behavioural styles such as being excitable, hyperactive, stubborn, profane language, adolescents lifestyle, talking back, being rude, taste in music, being irresponsible, etc.
Homework/School Achievement	concerns regarding doing homework, not obtaining acceptable grades, not following an acceptable educational path, not choosing a good career, parents not understanding your education, level of difficulty, time required, etc.
Interpersonal Relations	concerns regarding getting along with others such as fighting with siblings or friends, hitting, arguing, teasing, or hurting, etc.
Regulation of Interpersonal Activities	regulation of one's choice of friends, decisions regarding when to see friends, participation in social activities such as parties or clubs, time spent with family (versus friends/social activities), etc.
Bedtime and Curfew	concerns regarding appropriate times to be home after school, home in the evening, phone cut off times, or in bed, etc.
Health and Hygiene	concerns regarding diet, health, hygiene, smoking, alcohol, or drugs, etc.
Regulation of Activities	concerns regarding choice or timing of activities such as time on the phone, time spent watching TV, engaging in after school activities or sports, going shopping, age to begin driving, driving distances/ weather, number of hours permitted to work per week, church attendance, etc.

Respect and Trust	issues such as parents believing you over others, you lying, respecting you as a person, privacy of phone calls, your room, general courtesy, respecting your opinions/decisions, parents overprotectiveness if related to "trust", etc.
Parents Lifestyle	your concerns over parents drinking, marital affairs, arguments between them, divorce, remarriage/choice of new partner/common-law, prejudice, threats, yelling, hypocrisy, violence, temper, etc.
Moving Out Issues	issues arising over the timing of moving out, location, reasons for, returning home after leaving, roommates, going away to school (versus staying home), etc.
Parent/Adolescent Communication	concerns over communication (or lack of) between parents and adolescents, inappropriate communications (them involving you in their marital problems), methods of communication (guilt trips, nagging etc.), discipline methods, parents picking favourites between siblings, etc.
Regulation of Family Assets	issues arising from use of family car, home or cottage/camp, ability to borrow items from home to use and return in a short time, etc.
Regulation of Sexual Activities	concerns regarding dating such as when allowed to start, whom to date, parents approval of your date, sexual experiences, sexual orientation, moving in with boy/girlfriend, marriage, issues related to birth control, etc.
Other	idiosyncratic conflicts (e.g. purchase of a pet, how child treats their own children, trouble with the law, death of family member, family moves, etc.)

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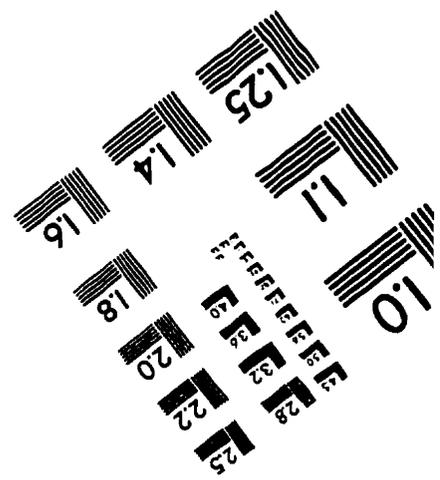
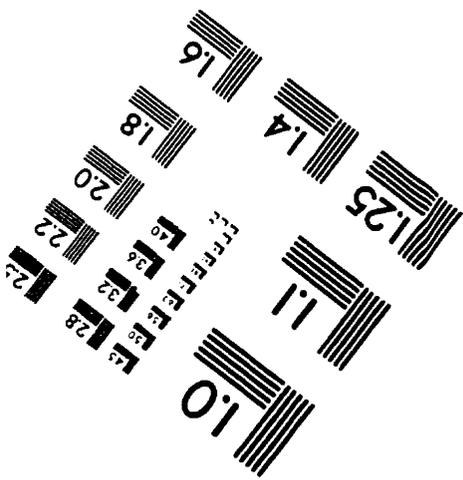
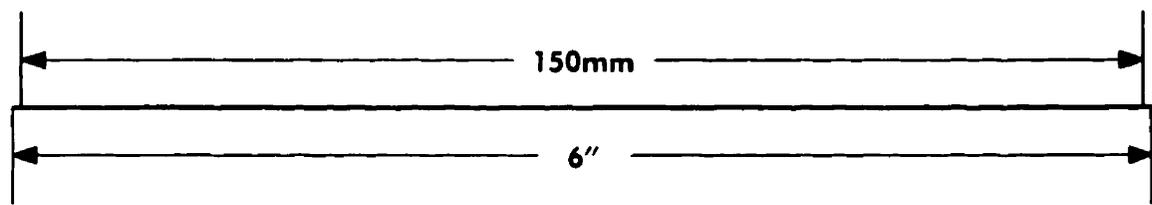
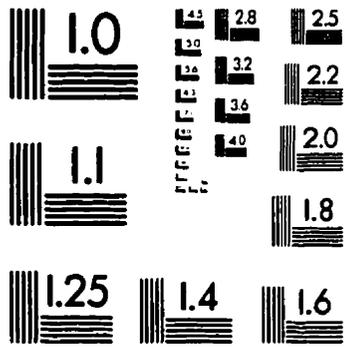
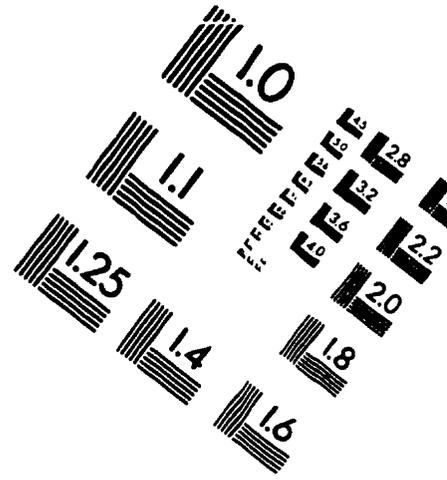
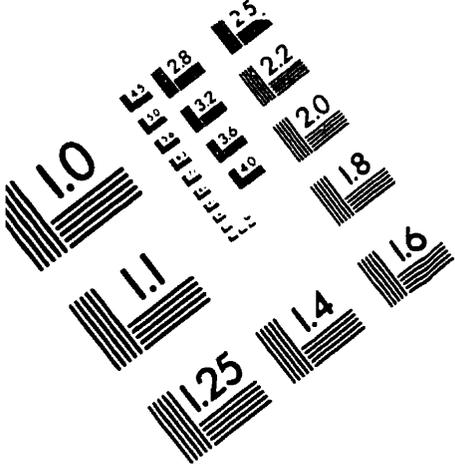
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