University of Rhode Island

DigitalCommons@URI

Open Access Dissertations

1999

Attatchment Classification Among 18 Month Old Children of Adolescent Mothers

Lynne M. Andreozzi University of Rhode Island

Follow this and additional works at: https://digitalcommons.uri.edu/oa_diss

Terms of Use

All rights reserved under copyright.

Recommended Citation

Andreozzi, Lynne M., "Attatchment Classification Among 18 Month Old Children of Adolescent Mothers" (1999). *Open Access Dissertations*. Paper 775. https://digitalcommons.uri.edu/oa_diss/775

This Dissertation is brought to you by the University of Rhode Island. It has been accepted for inclusion in Open Access Dissertations by an authorized administrator of DigitalCommons@URI. For more information, please contact digitalcommons-group@uri.edu. For permission to reuse copyrighted content, contact the author directly.

ATTACHMENT CLASSIFICATIONS AMONG 18-MONTH-OLD CHILDREN OF ADOLESCENT MOTHERS

BY

LYNNE ANDREOZZI

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN

PSYCHOLOGY

UNIVERSITY OF RHODE ISLAND

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY DISSERTATION

OF

LYNNE ANDREOZZI

APPROVED:

Dissertation Committee

Major Professor

DEAN OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL

UNIVERSITY OF RHODE ISLAND

1999

Abstract

This investigation was conducted to examine the nature of the attachment relationship among children of adolescent mothers using a standard measure known as the Strange Situation procedure. This project compared the attachment relationships of children of adolescent mothers with children of older, non-adolescent adult mothers. Given the paucity of research on attachment among infants of adolescent mothers, the rationale for conducting this study was to supplement an existing weak literature base. The major prediction of this study was that there would be significantly more insecurity among 18-month-old infants of adolescent mothers. The study further attempted to examine this relationship in the context of maternal characteristics such as depression, selfesteem, parenting stress, child abuse potential, psychological distress, perception of infant behavior, as well as the caregiving environment. Results indicate that infants of adolescent mothers may resemble normative groups in prevalence of secure attachments to their mothers. However, the mothers in the adolescent group reported lower amounts of selfesteem, more parenting stress, more child abuse potential, and provided a lower quality of the home environment than the mothers in the non-adolescent group. These mothers also rated their infants as having a higher activity level than infants born to older mothers. Results are discussed in terms of implications for future research and interventions.

Acknowledgments

There are several people that I would like to acknowledge for their support, encouragement, and understanding during my graduate career. Most of them will never truly know the impact that they have had upon my life. I would like to extend my sincerest thanks and gratitude to my major professor, Dr. Janet Kulberg, for her continued support, guidance, and interest throughout this process and through my graduate career. Her knowledge and guidance have been invaluable to me. I would also like to thank the members of my committee for their contributions to this project and my professional career. I thank Dr. Barry Lester, for his thoughtful questions, support, and the opportunity to utilize this data. He has been a mentor and a constant source of support for me. I thank Dr. Al Berman for his time and encouragement; Dr. Margaret McGrath for her insight and support; Dr. Ronald Seifer for his expertise and insight into this project; and Dr. David Byrd for his time and support. I would also like to thank Dr. Patricia Flanagan for advising me on this topic and for the opportunity to use this data. I also thank my friend and colleague, Susan Brunner, for her help with this project.

Finally, I would like to thank my family and friends for their love and support, without them, this may not have been possible. First, I thank my husband, Kevin Fontaine, for his unconditional love and support through this process. His understanding and patience helped me immensely. Without him, I may not have seen this project to fruition. I would like to thank my parents, Joseph and Rosemary Andreozzi, for their encouragement and love. They have always been a source of encouragement and support for all of my endeavors. I truly appreciate and treasure their love. And finally, my brother, Mark Andreozzi, for always believing in me. I admire him for being able to do what I was always afraid of doing. I would also like to thank the rest of my family and friends who have supported me with their understanding, encouragement, love, and laughter.

Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Acknowledgments	iii
Table of Contents	iv
List of Tables	vi
Introduction	1
Adolescent Parenting	1
Attachment	5
Maternal Predictors of Attachment	8
Infant Predictors of Attachment	10
Method	14
Participants	14
Procedures	16
Strange Situation	16
Maternal Characteristics	19
Infant Characteristics	23
Demographics	24
Data Reduction	
Results	27
Discussion	36
References	44
Appendix A	51
Appendix B	53
Appendix C	59
Appendix D	63

Appendix E	74
Appendix F	79
Appendix G	83
Appendix H	86
Bibliography	96

List of Tables

Table 1:	Strange Situation Procedure	17
Table 2:	Attachment Classifications	18
Table 3:	Measures	24
Table 4:	Means and Standard Deviations or Frequencies and Tests of Significance for Maternal Demographic Characteristics of Sample by Maternal Age Group	29
Table 5:	Means and Standard Deviations or Frequencies and Tests of Significance for Infant Demographic Characteristics of Sample by Maternal Age Group	30
Table 6:	Number and (Percent) of Each Attachment Classification Category for Infants of Adolescent and Non-Adolescent Mothers	32
Table 7:	Means and (Standard Deviations) and Tests of Significance of 6 Self Report and Observation Measures (BDI, BSI, PSI, MSRI, CAPI, IBQ)	34
Table 8:	Parameter Estimates for Logistic Regression Model	35

Attachment Classifications Among 18-Month-Old Children of Adolescent Mothers Introduction

Given the recent interest in examining the mother-child relationship among children of adolescent parents, it would seem logical to examine the affectional tie or bond between the two. This tie is often referred to as the attachment relationship between a mother and child. However, there have been relatively few studies that examine the nature of this relationship. This study attempts to examine the nature of the attachment relationship among children of adolescent mothers using a standard measure known as the Strange Situation procedure. This project will compare the attachment relationships of children of adolescent mothers with children of older, non-adolescent adult mothers.

Adolescent Parenting

Adolescent parenting is a topic that has received much press within the last few decades. It is thought that adolescent mothers may provide a poorer quality of parenting that may affect or determine the later attachment relationship as observed by the infants behavior in the Strange Situation (Lamb, Hopps, & Elster, 1987). This link to attachment behavior will be discussed further, however, it is appropriate to first discuss the research pertaining to adolescent mothers.

There is considerable research that shows that the behavior of adolescent mothers is different than that of older mothers (Barratt & Roach, 1995; Becker, 1987; Culp, Appelbaum, Osofsky, & Levy, 1988; DeLissovoy, 1973; Elster, McAnarney, & Lamb, 1983; Field, Widmayer, Stringer, & Ignatoff, 1980; Garcia Coll, Hoffman, & Oh, 1987; Garcia Coll, Vohr, Hoffman, & Oh, 1986; Hubbs-Tait, Osofsky, Hann, & Culp, 1994;

Jones, Green, & Krauss, 1980; Levine, Garcia Coll, & Oh, 1985; McAnarney, Lawrence, & Aten, 1979; Parks & Arndt, 1990; Ragozin, Basham, Crnic, Greenberg, & Robinson, 1982; Roosa, Fitzgerald, & Carlson, 1982; Roosa & Vaughan, 1984; Sandler, Vietze, & O'Connor, 1981). In a variety of studies, with infants of varying ages, it has repeatedly been found that adolescent mothers vocalize less to their infants than non-adolescent mothers (Culp, et al., 1988; Garcia Coll, et al., 1987; Field, 1980; Jones, et al., 1980; Levine, et al., 1985; Roosa, et al., 1982; Sandler, et al., 1981). Adolescent mothers have also been described as engaging in fewer behaviors associated with parenting, such as touching or using a high pitched voice while speaking to the infant (McAnarney, et al., 1979). Most of these studies employed home based observations of maternal and infant behavior. These results have been found in samples of varying ethnic, racial, and socioeconomic groups.

Adolescent parents are more likely to behave in ways that are different from non-adolescent parents (Elster, et al., 1983; Lamb, et al., 1987). For instance, younger mothers are less sensitive to their infant's cues and exhibit less interactive sensitivity than older mothers (DeLissovoy, 1973; Ragozin, et al., 1982). They have also been found to exhibit less emotional and verbal responsivity than non-adolescent mothers (Barratt & Roach, 1995; Garcia Coll, et al., 1986). Jones, Green, and Krauss (1980) reported that mothers aged seventeen to eighteen years old were less responsive to their infants than mothers aged twenty-one to twenty-three years of age.

As we will see later, all of the above factors as well as psychosocial indices may be important influences in later development. Specifically, Hurlbut, Culp, Jambunathan, and

Butler (1997) assert that maternal self-esteem may be a good predictor of adolescent parenting.

Adolescent mothers may provide a less optimal environment for their children than do non-adolescent mothers (Garcia Coll., et al., 1987). Observation of the home environments of adolescent mothers revealed them to be less appropriate, in that adolescent mothers are providing less stimulation or less consistent learning environments for their infants (Garcia Coll, et al., 1986; Parks & Arndt, 1990). Adolescent mothers smile less and show toys to their infants less often than non-adolescent mothers (Barratt & Roach, 1995). Adolescent mothers interact more negatively with their infants (Culp. et al., 1988). They tend to be more restrictive, irritable, hostile, and punitive to their infants (DeLissovoy, 1973; Garcia Coll, et al., 1986). Teenage mothers who scored poorly on a parent-infant interaction scale were more likely to be communicatively demanding or protesting with their infants (Flanagan, Coppa, Riggs, & Alario, 1994). Furthermore, adolescent mothers are more likely to choose physical modalities (poking and pinching) for interactions rather verbal modalities (Lawrence, McAnarney, Aten, Iker, Baldwin, & Baldwin, 1981).

The differences in the environments provided and interactions given may be due to the fact that adolescent mothers tend to know less about child development (Roosa & Vaughan, 1984) and have a poorer understanding of their infant's developmental abilities and needs (Parks & Arndt, 1990). They tend to expect behaviors of walking, talking, or toileting several months early (DeLissovoy, 1973). Teenage mothers also tend to have a more negative attitude toward parenting (Roosa & Vaughan, 1984). They also tend to

rate their infant's behavior or temperament as being more difficult than do non-adolescent mothers (Field, 1980).

It is thought that infants of adolescent mothers fare less well than infants of older mothers. Adolescent parenthood has been correlated with maltreatment of their children (McCullough & Scherman, 1998; Zuravin, 1988). For example, children of adolescent mothers are at increased risk for experiencing physical abuse (Miller, 1984). Also, Flanagan, Garcia Coll, Andreozzi, and Riggs (1995) examined the risk of adolescent mothers maltreating their children and found that living apart from related adults was a strong risk factor associated with maltreatment, as measured by a substantiated case by the state child protective agency.

There also has been research that links differences in maternal characteristics of self-esteem and depression among adolescent mothers to adverse child outcome (Hubbs-Tait, et al., 1994). Furthermore, children of teenage mothers are thought to be at risk for cognitive impairments such as developmental delays or later academic failure (Baldwin & Cain, 1980; Becker, 1987; Furstenburg, Brooks-Gunn, & Morgan, 1987; Whitman, Borkowski, Schellenbach, & Nath, 1987; Zuravin, 1988).

The above research suggests that adolescent parents may provide less optimal or less sensitive caregiving to their infants, which may in turn, have implications for later child outcome or parent-child relationships. Thus, it seems possible that adolescent parenting may lead to disturbances in the mother child attachment relationship. However, the literature is not conclusive, because as we will see, this is a topic that is relatively new in the literature and has not been fully explored. A more complete review will be

explained later, but first it is important to discuss the nature of attachment and the theory surrounding it.

Attachment

It is thought that attachment theory originated with John Bowlby. Bowlby (1969) thought that all infants have an inborn need for social interaction and that this need usually becomes focused on a specific figure. He postulated that it may be of survival value for an infant to seek the protective closeness of certain adults and as a result, these infants should be equipped with specific behaviors to attain that closeness. For instance, we see examples of this, when we witness a baby cry or smile. Bowlby (1969) also suggested that adults are also equipped with caregiving behaviors intended to compliment the infant's behaviors. However, Bowlby was a psychoanalyst and thought that there may be more at work here. He argued that an infant and his caregiver share an affectional tie (Bowlby, 1969). Through this tie they seek to be close to this caregiver and also to maintain the contact with the caregiver, particularly when under stress. Over the course of the first year of life, the child exhibits behaviors that illustrate this desire to maintain closeness such as, turning toward the caregiver, crying, smiling, reaching, clinging, etc. Bowlby (1969) maintains that these are goal directed behaviors focused around a specific caregiver. Most often the caregiver we speak of is the child's mother, and this individual is most often the child's first attachment figure. Also, most of the empirical research done in attachment has focused on the relationship between a mother and her infant. According to Bowlby (1969), the infant's daily experiences with the caregiver contribute to an internal representation of the caregiver. This representation has been termed a "working model."

Closeness to the attachment figure provides protection and a sense of security. Thus, the child's daily experiences have led him to construct a working model of his caregiver as one of trust and security. Bowlby (1969) also predicted consequences regarding a child's working model of a mother who is unavailable. However, Ainsworth and her colleagues were the first to test this theory empirically (Ainsworth & Witting, 1969; Ainsworth, Blehar, Waters, & Wall, 1978).

A major step in attachment measurement occurred when Mary Ainsworth (Ainsworth, et al., 1978) developed a standardized procedure for measuring the quality of attachment to the mother in infants 12 to 21 months old. This procedure is thought to reflect the infant's understanding and expectations of the mother's behavior or to reflect the "working model" that the child has created of his/her caregiver.

The Strange Situation is a laboratory procedure consisting of eight episodes in which the mother and child interact with each other and a stranger unknown to the infant, separate from each other, and then are reunited all in an environment that offers the child an opportunity for exploration. As the procedure progresses, each episode is considered to be more progressively stressful to the child. The strategy the child uses to cope with these stressors is indicative of the attachment relationship or working model he/she has constructed of his/her mother (Ainsworth, et al., 1978). Children are classified according to the pattern of behavior they exhibit throughout the Strange Situation but primarily for the behavior they show in the reunion episodes following the separations. The infant is assigned to a category according to the system defined by Ainsworth, et al. (1978). The first category is secure. Secure infants use their mother as a secure base from which to explore the environment. They derive comfort from their caregiver and this is illustrated

by the child's attempts to be close to the caregiver (i.e., proximity-seeking and contact-maintaining behaviors) and also by the child's willingness to explore the environment.

Secure infants are usually consoled by contact with the mother and easily move back to exploration, perhaps with brief checks on the mother.

The second category is insecure-avoidant. Avoidant infants show behaviors of avoiding interactions with or proximity to the mother. In fact, the infant may actively avoid the mother upon reunion, ignore social bids from mom, and/or avoid eye contact. The third category is insecure-resistant. Resistant infants may show a mixture of seeking contact while at the same time pushing away or refusing to be comforted by the mother. Their responses to the mothers return may seem ambivalent in quality. They may display anger towards their mother during reunions or refusal of her offering of toys or interaction. Resistant infants may show persistent pouting, whining, or tantruming behaviors.

Main and Solomon (1990) determined that some infants do not show a clear pattern of handling separations and then reunions. They do not seem to employ any of the behavioral strategies described above. Therefore, a final category was proposed which may occur in the presence of a secure or insecure attachment relationship. This category is called disorganized or disoriented. Disorganized infants show odd, disoriented, disorganized behavior or a combination of both avoidant and resistant behavior. Other behaviors that are indicative of disorganization are marked stilling or freezing in contact with the caregiver, anomalous postures, dazed avoidance, or demonstration of fear or apprehension of the caregiver. Main and Solomon (1990) state that these behaviors may

reflect a child who is in conflict with or has feelings of fear or confusion regarding their caregiver.

The prevalence in the population for each of the Ainsworth categories seems to be relatively consistent. A meta-analysis of 39 studies indicated similar distributions of security (65%), resistance (14%), and avoidance (21%) (Van Ijzendoorn & Kroonenberg, 1988). Research also shows that the classifications tend to be relatively stable over time. Stability of these classifications in infants between 12 to 18 months of age has ranged from 53% to 96% (Thompson, Lamb, & Estes, 1982; Lamb, et al., 1985; Waters, 1978). In terms of long term stability, it has been reported that infant attachment classifications have predicted attachment classifications in six year old children (Main & Cassidy, 1988).

The newer disorganized category has been found to be a relevant category in clinical samples such as maltreated infants or those with depressed mothers (Crittenden, 1985; Radke-Yarrow, Cummings, & Kuczynski, 1985; Spieker & Booth, 1988). The prevalence of disorganization in nonclinical samples however, appears to be between 10% to 15% (Cicchetti, 1987).

Maternal Predictors of Attachment

Most of the attachment research has focused on providing links from maternal behaviors to each of these attachment categories. Ainsworth, et al. (1978) assert that sensitivity to the infant's cues is a prerequisite for secure attachments. Mothers of infants with secure attachments have been described as sensitive to their child's cues, responding appropriately to these cues, and being available to their infants (Ainsworth, et al., 1978; Belsky, Rovine, & Taylor, 1984; Egeland & Farber, 1984; Grossmann, Grossmann,

Spangler, Suess, & Unzner, 1985). Mothers of avoidantly attached infants have been described as insensitive, rejecting, and unavailable to their infants, whereas mothers in resistant relationships are seen as lacking appropriateness and consistency in response to their infant's cues (Ainsworth, et al., 1978; Belsky, et al., 1984; Egeland & Farber, 1984; Grossmann, et al., 1985). Thus, it does seem that these maternal behaviors do play an influential role in the quality of the attachment relationship (Ainsworth, 1984).

Further research has focused on providing links from maternal or environmental characteristics to the child's attachment classification. Stress in the family may be one contributor to insecure attachment classifications. Vaughn, Egeland, Sroufe, and Waters (1979) found that the change from secure to insecure from twelve to eighteen months was associated with increased stress. Tronick, Ricks, and Cohn (1982) found that mothers of secure group infants rated themselves significantly higher on self-esteem and competence. However, Seifer, Sameroff, Dickstein, Keitner, Miller, Rasmussen, and Hayden (1996) did not find an association between maternal characteristics or environment and attachment. Only a moderate correlation between major depression and attachment status was evident. Yet, the role of maternal psychopathology in attachment classification is somewhat contradictory.

A recent meta-analysis determined that parental mental illness was related to attachment classifications (Van IJzendoorn, Goldberg, Kroonenberg, & Frenkel, 1992). However, most of the studies included did not use the Strange Situation procedure (Seifer, et al.,1996). Specifically, maternal depression has been found to be related to increased rates of insecure attachment on a preschool measure of attachment (Teti, Gelfand, Messinger, & Isabella, 1995). It does seem reasonable that having the experience

of a caregiver who has been unavailable due to depression may lead the child to expect that his mother cannot be relied upon thus, in turn affecting the attachment relationship (Seifer & Schiller, 1995). However, Radke-Yarrow, Cummings, Kuczynski, and Chapman (1985) did not find any disproportionate differences in attachment among depressed mothers.

Child maltreatment has also been offered as a predictor of insecure attachment.

Egeland and Sroufe (1981) state that when maternal caregiving is of an extremely poor quality there is an increase in insecure attachment. Specifically, there were more resistant types of insecure attachment in 12 month old infants among caregiving patterns of abuse and neglect. At 18 months, the avoidant type of insecurity was more common among the same caregiving patterns. Other studies have also found higher rates of insecurity among maltreated children (Crittenden, 1985; Schneider-Rosen, & Cicchetti, 1984).

Infant Predictors of Attachment

Although most of the research on attachment concerns maternal predictors, there has been recent interest in examining characteristics of the infant that may affect attachment status. The relationship between attachment security and the child's temperament remains controversial. Essentially, the question is whether the behaviors and affect viewed in the Strange Situation can be attributed to intrinsic temperament of the child or the attachment relationship. Sroufe (1985) argues that temperament and attachment are essentially two different constructs. Yet, negative temperament has been shown to be correlated with increased crying and resistance in the Strange Situation (Vaughn, Lefever, Seifer, & Barglow, 1989). Infant distress at 3 and 9 months of age was

associated with insecurity at 12 months of age, although the authors also found that these observed differences may have been influenced by differences in maternal behavior (Belsky, et al., 1984). However, Vaughn, Stevenson-Hinde, Waters, Kotsaftis, Lefever, Shouldice, Trudel, and Belsky (1992) offer that most temperament rating scales include information about the child's behavior in the context of the parent-child interactions and it is logical that the parent-child relationship may influence the parent's ratings of the child's temperament. They further claim that it may be helpful to view temperament and attachment as falling on a continuum of assessment possibilities rather than as separate distinct entities (Stevenson-Hinde, 1988, as cited in Vaughn, et al., 1992).

Given that insecure attachment is more likely to occur when maternal behavior is of an inconsistent level (Ainsworth, et al., 1978) in addition to the other factors that may affect the attachment relationship, coupled with the research on adolescent mothers, one may suspect that there is a disproportionate amount of insecurity among infants of adolescent mothers.

Of the relatively few studies that have examined the attachment behavior of infants of adolescent mothers, only four utilized the Strange Situation as a measure of attachment quality. Lamb, et al. (1987) hypothesized that because of the assertion that avoidant attachments are related to intrusive maternal behavior (Ainsworth, et al., 1978) there would be a disproportionate amount of infants classified as insecure avoidant. The authors conducted the Strange Situation procedure when a sample of 40 infants were 14 months of age (Lamb, et al. 1987). They reported significantly more avoidantly attached infants in their sample of adolescent mothers as opposed to other samples of non-adolescent mothers, specifically the Ainsworth, et al. (1978) sample (Lamb, et al. 1987).

Other studies have also reported lower rates of security among infants of adolescent mothers. Frodi and colleagues investigated two indices of socio-emotional development (attachment and mastery motivation) in infants of adolescent mothers as compared to infants of adult mothers (Frodi, Grolnick, Bridges, & Berko, 1990). Here, the authors found that among the total sample of 63 infants, the distribution of secure attachment was slightly lower in the group of infants of adolescent mothers. Later Chisquare analysis determined this difference non-significant.

Another study, conducted by Broussard (1995), utilized a modified version of the Strange Situation, using only one separation and reunion. This study classified infants into one of four classifications; secure, avoidant, resistant, and disorganized. In her sample of 38 infants of adolescent mothers, a lower proportion of secure attachment was found. When compared to another sample that also included disorganization as a category, comparisons of secure vs. insecure were statistically different. Although, it is unclear whether this second sample utilized the same modified version of the Strange Situation. Broussard (1995) further tries to examine differences in attachment according to race. Fewer black infants were classified as secure than were white infants (Broussard, 1995).

Ward and Carlson (1995), in their study of adolescent mothers from environments characterized by poverty and stress, did not find higher proportions of insecurity among their 15-month-old infants.

Given the paucity of research on attachment among infants of adolescent mothers, the rational for conducting this study was to supplement an existing weak literature base.

A question that flows naturally from this is, is there a difference in the presence of insecurity among children of adolescent mothers in comparison to children of non-

adolescent mothers. If differences in attachment classification are determined, can they be explained by maternal characteristics? The major prediction of this study was that there would be a significantly higher proportion of insecurity among 18-month-old infants of adolescent mothers. Also, there would be a higher proportion of disorganization among the infants of adolescent mothers. The secondary predictions for this project were that differences in maternal characteristics, maternal perception of infant behavior, and environment for the infants of adolescent mothers would explain differences in attachment security. Specifically, there would be higher levels of depression, stress, psychological distress, child abuse potential, and higher ratings of difficult infant behaviors, as well as lower self-esteem among the adolescent mothers which in turn would increase the probability of insecurely attached 18-month-old infants.

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were 140 mothers and their 18-month-old infants. All subjects were initially recruited to be part of a prospective study aimed at examining the effects of maternal lifestyles during pregnancy on a variety of infant outcomes. The larger maternal lifestyles study (MLS) is a multi-site, longitudinal study that began recruiting mothers and their infants in 1991. This study is funded by the National Institute of Child Health and Development (NICHD), National Institute on Drug Abuse (NIDA), Association for Children, Youth and Families (ACYF), and Council on Substance Abuse Treatment (CSAT). The mother infant dyads were seen at regular scheduled intervals (1, 4, 8, 10, 12, 18, 24, 30, 36, and 48 months) either in the laboratory or in the infant's home. All infants were seen within a two week window on either side of the scheduled interval. A variety of data concerning infant outcome and possible family or maternal predictors or confounding variables were collected at each of the visits either by evaluation, observation, or self report. One of the specific aims of MLS is to determine what effect illicit substance abuse during pregnancy may have upon infant outcome. Maternal substance abuse was determined both by self report and drug testing of the infant's first stool or meconium. If positive identification was made then the infant was recruited for the follow up phase of the study and efforts were made to obtain an infant for the control group. Infants in the control group were not exposed to cocaine and / or opiates during pregnancy as confirmed by meconium testing and were also matched for sex, gestational age, and birth weight.

Exclusionary criteria for MLS included presence of a chromosomal abnormality, multiple births, and mothers less than eighteen years of age. Since adolescence was an exclusionary criterion, all mothers in the MLS study are over the age of eighteen. The mean age of the mothers at recruitment is approximately 26 years of age. An ancillary project to study this excluded cohort of adolescent mothers with the same protocol as MLS was approved by all the principal investigators in the MLS study and thus, these mother infant dyads were recruited at the same time as the larger MLS sample. The ancillary was only conducted at the Providence, Rhode Island site. This group of adolescent mothers does not contain any abuse of cocaine and / or opiates as obtained by maternal report and meconium testing.

For inclusion into the current study, participants had to attend the eighteen month visit, had to have been living with their biological mother since birth, and also had to have their biological mother as their primary caregiver.

The sample of 140 mothers comprised the subjects in two groups. The first group consisted of 60 eighteen-month-old infants born to adolescent mothers in Providence, Rhode Island. This group is approximately 60% of the total sample in the adolescent ancillary study to the larger maternal lifestyles project. The second group consisted of 80 eighteen-month-old infants and their mothers born in Providence, Rhode Island. This group was taken from the controls in MLS since the adolescent sample does not contain exposure to cocaine and / or opiates. This comprises approximately 80% of the control group of the MLS Providence site. Both groups of infants were born roughly at the same time. Both groups of infants and mothers were recruited at the time of the infant's birth and agreed to participate in follow up visits. The procedures for the follow up visits were

the same for all subjects. Since the primary hypothesis of the study concerns the infant's attachment classifications to his biological mother, it is important to note that some of the subjects are not included in the present analyses. Eight subjects were not included from the adolescent group because some did not complete a strange situation paradigm or technical problems were experienced during videotaping (6), or the mother was not present for the assessment and another caregiver was used (1), or the assessment was deemed uncodeable due to the examiner or mother wishing to discontinue the procedure (1). A final subject was dropped from the adolescent sample because the mother was not the primary caregiver. The remaining 51 subjects comprised the adolescent sample. For the older mother sample, four subjects were dropped from the analyses. In one of these, the mother was not the primary caregiver. The remaining three procedures were either not completed or not videotaped. Therefore the total number of subjects in the non-adolescent sample was seventy-six.

Procedure

Strange Situation. Infant attachment classifications were assessed from review of videotaped sessions of Ainsworth's Strange Situation procedure (Ainsworth, et al., 1978). The Strange Situation is a laboratory procedure consisting of eight episodes in which the mother and child interact with each other and a stranger unknown to the infant, separate from each other and then are reunited all in an environment that offers the child an opportunity for exploration (Table 1).

Table 1

Strange Situation	n Procedure
Episode 1 -	Mother and baby - 20 seconds
Episode 2 -	Mother and baby - 3 minutes
Episode 3 -	Stranger enters and sits - 1 min
	Stranger talks to Mother - 1 min
	Stranger plays with baby - 1min
Episode 4 -	Mother leaves the room, Stranger remains - 3 min
	First Separation
Episode 5 -	Mother returns, Stranger leaves the room - 3 min
	First Reunion
Episode 6 -	Mother leaves the baby alone - 3 min
	Second Separation
Episode 7 -	Stranger returns - 3 min
Episode 8 -	Mother returns, Stranger leaves - 3 min
	Second Reunion

Scoring depends on review of each episode but primarily the two reunion episodes (Ainsworth, et al., 1978). Each child is rated for specific behaviors at each reunion (see Appendix A). These consist of Proximity-Seeking, Contact-Maintaining, Avoidant, and Resistant behaviors. These behaviors are rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale in which a higher score reflects more of the behavior. Proximity-seeking behavior can be described as attempts to be close to the caregiver. Presumably the separation has caused some distress in the infant which would lead him to approach the mother upon her return. Contact-maintenance refers to the child trying to maintain contact with the caregiver. For example, the child may cling to the mother or resist being put down when held. Avoidant behavior reflects attempts from the infant to move away from or ignore the caregiver. The

avoidant behaviors can range from a brief look away from the mother to a full snub of the mother's return regardless of the mother's bids for contact or interaction, if any. Resistant behavior is evidenced in the infants desire for contact but also in the resistance of comforting, and the inability to be soothed. Resistant behaviors can range from crving after having been comforted by the caregiver to a full blown tantrum. From this information, specifically the scores on the above four behaviors, the dyad is then categorized into one of three general categories (Table 2). The first category is secure or commonly referred to as type B. Secure (B) infants derive comfort from their caregiver and this is illustrated by the child's attempts to be close to the caregiver (i.e. proximity seeking and contact maintaining behaviors) and also by the child's willingness to explore the environment. The second category is insecure-avoidant or commonly referred to as type A. Avoidant infants tend to show very little proximity seeking behaviors and may actively avoid the mother upon reunion. The third category is insecure-resistant or C. Resistant infants may show a mixture of seeking contact while at the same time pushing it away or refusing to be comforted by the mother.

Table 2
Attachment classifications

Attachment classificat	tions		
	A - Avoidant	B - Secure	C - Resistant
Separation Episodes Episodes 4 and 6	Child shows little distress.	May or not be distressed. Makes efforts to search for mother.	Child shows much distress.
Reunion Episodes Episodes 5 and 8	Child snubs or avoids mother.	Child comforted by mothers return and makes efforts to contact and/or greet her.	Child may refuse to be comforted and seeks and rejects contact.

A final category is also determined and may occur in the presence of security or insecurity. This category is disorganization (D) and is also rated on a 7 point Likert type scale (Main and Solomon, 1990). A higher score reflects more D behavior or a clear theme or pattern of disorganization. Disorganized infants show odd, disoriented, disorganized behavior or a combination of both avoidant and resistant behavior. For example, infants may approach the stranger at the moment of reunion after showing much distress or infants may show apprehension of the mother by backing away from her at reunions. Infants are assigned a level of D (1-7) based upon their behaviors and then are classified as disorganized or not disorganized.

The A,B,C classifications have been reliably identified in 39 studies in eight countries and prevalence rates have been reported earlier (Van Ijzendoorn & Kroonenberg, 1988). Stability of these classifications in infants between 12 to 18 months of age has ranged from 53% to 96% (Thompson, Lamb, & Estes, 1982; Lamb, et al., 1985; Waters, 1978). In terms of long term stability, it has been reported that infant attachment classifications have predicted attachment classifications in six-year-old children (Main & Cassidy, 1988). The predictive validity of the strange situation had shown that insecurity predicts behavior problems later on (Erickson, Sroufe, & Egeland, 1985; Turner, 1991)

Maternal Characteristics. Since maternal characteristics have been shown to be related to patterns of caregiving and later attachment (Ainsworth, et al., 1978), several measures were also assessed in both samples (Table 3). These measures were gathered by the larger MLS study by examiners trained to administer each, if appropriate. All

adolescent data was scored by this examiner. Copies of the instruments used in the current study from the larger MLS study are included in Appendixes B-H. Use of the MLS forms requires permission granted by the National Institute of Health (NIH).

First, the Home Observation for Measurement of the Environment (HOME) (Caldwell & Bradley, 1984) was used (see Appendix B). This instrument is useful for measuring the social-emotional support available within the infant's home (Caldwell & Bradley, 1984). The 45 scale items are scored on the basis of observations of the home and on interviews with the mother. This tool was administered at the 10-month visit by an examiner working on the larger maternal lifestyles project. The items are then subdivided into dimensions including Responsivity of Parent, Acceptance of Child Behavior, Organization of Environment, Appropriate Play Materials Provided by Parent, Variety of Daily Stimulation, and Total Quality of Home Environment. Only the total score was used in this study. This tool has been found to be both reliable and valid (Caldwell & Bradley, 1984). Internal consistency for the Total score ranges from .44 to .89. Temporal stability of the HOME ranges from .3 to .7 for time periods ranging from six months to two years. Validity has been established by obtaining correlations with performance on cognitive measures and behavioral records (i.e., Bayley Scales of Infant Development). These correlations range from .3 to .7, depending upon the age at which the relationship was examined. The correlations tended to become stronger up to age three.

Parenting stress was measured using the Parenting Stress Inventory (PSI) (Abidin, 1983). The 36 item short form was used and was collected at the four-month scheduled visit. It was administered by interview to the mother by an examiner working on the larger maternal lifestyles study (see Appendix C). The PSI measures stress arising from

parenting. The mother rates each item on a five point likert scale ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The PSI yields three subscales and a summary index of total stress. Only this summary index was used in this study. Higher scores reflect greater stress. The norms for the PSI reveal the mean to be 71.

Next, a measure of child abuse potential was assessed. The Child Abuse Potential Inventory (CAPI) (Milner, 1980) is a 77 item self-report scale that examines maternal psychological difficulties such as distress, rigidity, and unhappiness and also interactional problems experienced by the mother such as problems with self, family, or others. This instrument was obtained at the 8 month scheduled visit (see Appendix D). Scores are generated for each of the factors and a total score. Once again only the total score was used in this study. Psychometric properties such as reliability and validity have been established (Milner, 1980). Internal consistency for the CAPI ranges from .92 to .98 and temporal stability from .91 to .75 for time periods of one day and three months respectively. Construct validity has been established by obtaining correlations with measures of parental stress and also the family environment. These correlations are from .62 and .41, respectively. Also, Mee (1983, as cited in Milner, 1980) examined the relationship between the CAPI and attachment using the Interview Schedule for Social Interaction. Mothers who had high adequacy for attachment had lower scores on the CAPI.

Maternal depression was assessed using the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) (Beck, Ward, Mendelson, Mock, & Erbaugh, 1961) which was collected at the 4 month visit. The BDI is a 21 item self report scale written at a fifth grade reading level, that indicates the respondent's level of depression (see Appendix E). Scale item responses

range from zero to three and items are summed to obtain an overall score. A higher score reflects a higher level of depression. The BDI has well established psychometric properties. It possesses good internal consistency, stability, and reliability. Split-half reliabilities range from .78 to .93. Test-retest reliabilities have been reported from .48 with undergraduate populations after a time period of three months. The validity of the scale has been demonstrated with a number of other depression measures (Beck, Steer, & Garbin, 1988).

Maternal psychological distress was determined by the Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI) (Derogatis, 1993). It is a 53 item questionnaire that is the short form of the Revised 90 item Symptom Checklist (SCL-90-R). The BSI was administered by interview to the mother at the four month visit by an examiner working on the larger MLS project (see Appendix F). The BSI yields 9 primary symptom dimensions as well as a global severity index. Higher scores reflect more reported symptoms. Only the global score was used in this study.

Maternal self-esteem was assessed via the Maternal Self-Report Inventory (MSRI) (Shea & Tronick, 1988) which was collected at the 10 month visit (see Appendix G). The MSRI is a 26 item scale that yields a total score which reflects the mothers self-esteem. A higher score indicates increased self-esteem. It has been shown that maternal self-esteem influences the quality of a mother's behavior with her infant (Shea & Tronick, 1988). Test-retest, concurrent, and constructive validity for the MSRI have been established (Shea & Tronick, 1988). Concurrent validity was determined by correlations between another self report inventory and clinical ratings of maternal self-esteem. Correlations were .74 and .35 respectively. Construct validity was obtained by correlations between

the MSRI and other independent measures such as family support (.69), maternal perception of the infant (.36), and maternal infant interaction (.33). Reliability was obtained by a four week test-retest reliability coefficient of .85.

Infant Characteristics. Information on the infant's temperament and behavior was also obtained to help explain any differences that may have been found. There is some controversy as to whether infant characteristics are significant predictors of attachment security. To address this, the Infant Behavior Questionnaire (IBQ) (Rothbart, 1981) was used. The IBQ is a 90 item questionnaire administered to the mother at the four month visit to measure her perceptions of the infant's temperament and behavior in common everyday situations (see Appendix H). This measure yields six summary scales: Activity Level, Smiling and Laughter, Distress to Approach Sudden or Novel Stimuli, Distress to Limitations, Soothability, and Duration of Orienting. These summary scores have coefficient alpha values ranging from .72 to .85. Stability correlations range from .43 to .80 for time periods of 9 months to 12 months (Rothbart, 1981).

Table 3

Measures

Procedure	Visit	Domain
Strange Situation		Attachment
Collected at	18 month	

PARENT REPORT

Beck Depression Inventory	4 month	Depression	
Brief Symptom Inventory	4 month	Psychological Distress	
Parenting Stress Inventory	4 month	Parenting Stress	
Child Abuse Potential Inventory	8 month	Child Abuse Potential	
Maternal Self-Report Inventory	10 month	Self Esteem	
Infant Behavior Questionnaire	4 month	Maternal Perception of Infant Temperament	

OBSERVATION

Home Observation for Measurement	10 month	Social, Emotional, and
of the Environment		Cognitive Support in the Home

Demographics. Demographics of the participants obtained throughout the larger study were also collected to describe the samples further. These include such variables as maternal education, socioeconomic status, race, parity, number of prenatal care visits, birthweight, gestational age, gender, apgar scores at one and five minutes after birth, and extent of alcohol, marijuana, and cigarette use of the mother during pregnancy.

Socioeconomic status was determined by a method of combining such factors as education, income, occupation, and other contributors to the household. It is similar to the Hollingshead Four Factor Index of Social Position (Hollingshead, 1975), although it is

measured on a continuous rather than a categorical scale. Twenty-nine through thirty-nine constitutes middle class, less than twenty-nine constitutes lower socioeconomic levels, and greater than thirty-nine constitutes higher socioeconomic levels.

Data Reduction. Strange Situation procedures of the adolescent group were coded by this examiner trained to classify infants according to Ainsworth's classification procedure for A, B, and C (Ainsworth, et al., 1978) and Main and Solomon's procedure for Disorganization (Main & Solomon, 1990). Training on the scoring system occurred over approximately a time period of two years by a trained examiner, Ron Seifer, Ph.D.

Reliability of the adolescent sample was evaluated on approximately 20% of the sample by an independent coder also trained at the time of this examiner (S.B.). Interrater reliability of 94% was determined by using the percent agreement criterion for the 20% recoded for reliability. The Strange Situation procedures of the non adolescent sample were coded by either this examiner or the above mentioned coder.

Given the nature of the adolescent sample, it would have been hard for this examiner to remain blind to group assignment. Essentially, adolescents may look younger than their non-adolescent counterparts thus making it difficult for any coder to remain blind to group status. To help address this fact and strengthen this study, a group of mothers from the larger MLS study who were between the ages of eighteen and twenty at the time of recruitment were identified (11). The Strange Situation procedures of this group of younger non-adolescent mothers were included with those of the adolescent sample. Thus, these procedures were rescored to help address the issue of blindness to group assignment. The recoded classifications for these subjects revealed the same original classifications.

Occasionally, it was difficult to determine a definitive attachment classification.

When these situations arose, the procedures were conferenced among trained examiners.

In the current sample three procedures were conferenced and agreement was obtained.

Given the prevalence data of the specific secure and insecure attachment patterns (Van Ijzendoorn & Kroonenberg, 1988) and the sample size in this study, all the insecure groups (both A and C) were combined. Thus the rating for each infant will be classified as secure or insecure. Since the D classification can occur with or without the presence of security, Disorganization will also be categorized into two groups, presence of D or not.

A power analysis was conducted to determine if a significant difference in the proportion of security/insecurity could be detected between these two groups. With the current sample size, the power analysis yielded a value of .87. According to Cohen (1988), this is enough power to conduct the study at hand. Since we know that the prevalence of security in normal populations tends to be approximately 65% (Van IJzendoorn & Kroonenberg, 1988), and thus if the rate of security in the non-adolescent population is 25 points higher than the rate in the adolescent sample, then there is an 87% chance that the effect in this study will be 15 points or more to be significant. This means that the rate of security in the adolescent sample must be 40% (which computes to 21 subjects) in order to be significant. The power value indicates that there is an 87% chance that this difference will occur (Cohen, 1988).

Results

Analysis of Demographics

To determine if there were differences between the two groups, a number of maternal and infant characteristics were examined. The demographics for the samples were compared using the X^2 statistic to describe the distributional differences for data that were categorical and with <u>t</u>-tests to compare mean values when data were continuous.

Maternal characteristics. The demographics for the two samples are presented in Table 4. As expected, there was a significant difference between the two groups of mothers on most of the maternal demographic characteristics.

Mothers in the non-adolescent sample were more likely to have more than one living child (parity) (M = 2.2) than the mothers in the adolescent sample (M = 1.1), $\underline{t}(87) = -6.8$, $\underline{p} < .05$.

A continuous measure of socioeconomic status or index of social position was computed for each participant. This value was derived from a variety of factors such as occupation, contribution to household income, education, etc. A higher score reflects higher socioeconomic status. Mothers in the older sample were more likely to have a higher socioeconomic status (M = 35.3) than the younger mothers (M = 25.5), $\underline{t}(115) = -5.3$, $\underline{p} < .01$. The majority of the mothers in the adolescent sample had an index of social position which reflected the subjects were primarily in the lower and middle to lower socioeconomic groups. The majority of the subjects in the non-adolescent sample fell in the middle to upper middle class range.

Similarly, level of education as measured by number of years completed in school was significantly lower in the adolescent group. The older mothers had completed more

years of school (M = 12.7) than the mothers in the adolescent sample (M = 9.2), $\underline{t}(109) = -10.3$, $\underline{p} < .01$.

Marital status also differed between the two groups with a higher proportion of the non-adolescent mothers being married ($X^2 = 40.41$, p < .05). The distributions of race also differed between the two groups with a higher proportion of Hispanic women in the adolescent group and a higher percentage of Black women in the non-adolescent group ($X^2 = 16.7$, p < .01).

Dichotomous measures of alcohol, marijuana, and cigarette use were determined for each of the subjects. History was determined by yes or no for use during pregnancy. This information was collected at the initial recruitment interview in the hospital during the immediate post-partum period. The proportions of use differed between the two groups for each of the substances of alcohol and marijuana. A higher proportion of non-adolescent mothers reported having used alcohol during their pregnancy ($X^2 = 37.0$, p < .01). A higher proportion of adolescent mothers reported having used marijuana during their pregnancy ($X^2 = 20.7$, p < .01). There was no difference between the two groups with respect to self-reported nicotine use during pregnancy.

Means and Standard Deviations or Frequencies and Tests of Significance for Maternal Demographic Characteristics of Sample by Maternal Age Group

		Adolescent	Non-Adolescent	t/X^2
Mother Characteristic	<u>cs</u>			
Maternal Age		16.1 (.9)	28.6 (5.7)	-12.7*
Education (grade leve	el)	9.2 (1.2)	12.7 (2.8)	-10.3*
Prenatal Care (# visit	s)	14.1 (6.5)	12.7 (4.8)	NS
Parity		1.1 (.3)	2.2 (1.4)	-6.8*
Socioeconomic Statu	s	25.5 (7.3)	35.3 (12.8)	-5.3*
Marital Status N Ma		1	40	40.41*
N Not	Married	49	35	
Race White		12	16	16.7*
Black		15	44	
Hispanic		23	12	
Other		0	3	
Alcohol Use	Yes	4	47	37.0*
during pregnancy	No	47	. 29	
Marijuana Use	Yes	16	2	20.7*
during pregnancy	No	35	74	
Nicotine Use	Yes	10	17	NS
during pregnancy	No	41	59	

Infant characteristics. The demographics for the two samples are presented in Table 5. There were no significant differences between the two groups on number of prenatal care visits, infant gender, birthweight, gestational age, and apgar scores at one and five minutes after birth. The percentages of males and females in the adolescent

sample were 47% and 53%, respectively, and the percentages of males and females in the non-adolescent sample were 53% and 47%, respectively.

Although there were no differences in the mean birthweights of the infants in either group, it is important to describe the two samples further. The percentage of infants with birthweights less than 2500 grams was 13.7 in the adolescent sample and 25.3 in the non-adolescent sample. Similarly, the percentages for the amount of infants with gestational ages less than 37 weeks was 13.6 and 25.3 respectively. The percentage of infants with birthweights less than 2500 grams was converted into a dichotomous variable to determine if the proportion of infants with birthweights less than 2500 grams differed between the two groups. There was no significant difference between the two on this variable ($X^2 = 2.5$, p > .05). Similarly, the percentages for the amount of infants with gestational ages less than 37 weeks was also converted into a dichotomous variable. Once again there was no significant difference between the two samples on the proportion of infants with gestational ages less than 37 weeks ($X^2 = 2.3$, p > .05).

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations or Frequencies and Tests of Significance for Infant
Demographic Characteristics of Sample by Maternal Age Group

Infant Characteristics

man C	mar actoristics			
Gender	F	27	35	NS
	M	24	40	
Birthwei	ight (grams)	3063.8 (550.7)	3005.4 (803.5)	NS
Gestatio	nal Age (weeks)	38.5 (2.9)	37.7 (2.9)	NS
Apgar	1 minute	7.5 (1.7)	7.5 (1.4)	NS
	5 minutes	8.6 (1.1)	8.6 (.9)	NS
* p<.05				

Analysis of Attachment Classification

It was predicted that there would be significantly more insecure infants among 18-month-old infants of adolescent mothers. A power analysis was conducted to determine if a significant difference in the proportion of security/insecurity could be detected between these two groups. With the current sample size, the power analysis yielded a value of .87.

First, it is important to describe the two samples in terms of their attachment classifications. Table 6 shows the distributions of the different attachment categories for each group. In the adolescent sample, approximately 66.7% of the infants were classified as secure (B), 17.7% were classified as insecure-avoidant (A), and 7.8% were classified as insecure-resistant (C). In the non-adolescent sample, approximately 61.8% of the infants were classified as secure (B), 11.8% were classified as insecure-avoidant (A), and 11.8% were classified as insecure-resistant (C). Due to the nature of the sample size, the two insecure categories of A and C were combined to create one insecure category; therefore, infants were categorized as either secure or insecure.

Occasionally, infants were unable to be classified into one of the three groups or exhibited behaviors that indicated the infants had a mixed strategy of both resistance and avoidance. One infant in the adolescent sample and six infants in the non-adolescent sample were unable to be classified. Three and five infants showed a mixed strategy of A/C in the adolescent and non-adolescent samples respectively.

Table 6

<u>Number and (Percent) of Each Attachment Classification Category for Infants of Adolescent and Non-Adolescent Mothers</u>

0	Adolescent N=51	Non-Adolescent N=76
A - Avoidant	9 (17.7)	9 (11.8)
B - Secure	34 (66.7)	47 (61.8)
C - Resistant	4 (7.8)	9 (11.8)
U - Unclassifiable	1 (1.96)	6 (7.9)
A/C - Mixed Strategy	3 (5.9)	5 (6.6)
D - Disorganized	5 (9.8)	15 (19.7)

At the same time, infants were rated as being disorganized (D) or not. Among the infants in the adolescent sample, 10% were classified as D and 19.7% of the infants in the non-adolescent sample were rated as disorganized.

To determine presence of security and insecurity categorically, infants classified as insecure via A, C, or A/C classifications were all categorized as insecure and were compared to those infants classified as secure via B classifications. Since data were categorical (secure vs. insecure and adolescent, non-adolescent), a Two-Way Chi-Square analysis was utilized to determine the difference in the proportion of insecurity between the two groups ($X^2 = .003$, p > .05). Another Chi-Square analysis was employed to determine the difference in the proportion of disorganization between the two groups ($X^2 = .99$, p > .05). Neither of these Chi-squares was significant, indicating that there was no difference in the proportion of insecurity nor disorganization among the two groups.

Since there was enough power in the study to determine differences if there were in fact any, one can assume that the lack of differences was not due to a Type II error.

Analysis of Self Report and Observation Measures

Additional analyses were conducted on variables that may predict attachment classification. These factors have been shown to be related to attachment security and insecurity. A series of analyses of group means in the form of t-tests were conducted for the BDI. PSI, BSI, HOME, MSRI, CAPI, and IBQ. Table 7 shows the means and standard deviations for each of the maternal self report measures and the home observation by group. The two groups did not differ in amount of maternal depression as measured by the BDI, $\underline{t}(100) = 1.92$, $\underline{p} > .05$. On the MSRI, the mothers in the adolescent group reported significantly less self-esteem as a mother (M = 96.5) as opposed to the mothers in the non-adolescent group (M = 104.2), t(100) = -4.3, p < .01. On the BSI, the two groups did not differ on the amount of symptoms reported as measured by the global severity index, t(110) = 1.95, p > .05. On the PSI, the mothers in the adolescent sample reported more stress arising from parenting (M = 80.0) as compared to the mothers in the non-adolescent sample (M = 65.43), t(110) = 5.21, p < .05. On the CAPI, the mothers in the adolescent group reported significantly more child abuse potential (M = 160.6) as opposed to the mothers in the non-adolescent group who had less child abuse potential (M = 103.14), $\underline{t}(89) = 2.8$, p < .01. On the IBQ, the mothers in the two groups did not differ on any of the dimensions except for Activity Level. The adolescent mothers rated their infants as being significantly more active (M = 3.28) than infants of mothers in the nonadolescent group (M = 2.95), $\underline{t}(108) = 2.9$, $\underline{p} < .01$.

On the observational measure of the HOME, adolescent mothers provided a home environment of poorer quality (M = 30.63) than mothers in the non-adolescent group (M = 35.56), $\underline{t}(107) = -4.2$, $\underline{p} < .01$.

Table 7

Means and (Standard Deviations) and Tests of Significance of 6 Self Report and Observation Measures (BDI, BSI, PSI, MSRI, CAPI, IBQ)

	Adolescent	Non-Adolescent	t
Beck Depression Inventory	10.27 (9.3)	7.05 (7.4)	NS
Brief Symptom Inventory	.71 (.61)	.49 (.56)	NS
Parenting Stress Inventory	80.00 (13.68)	65.43 (14.81)	5.21*
Maternal Self Report Inventory	96.50 (6.4)	104.16 (11.8)	-4.3*
Child Abuse Potential Inventory	160.55 (87.6)	103.14 (96.5)	2.8*
Infant Behavior			
Questionnaire Activity Level	3.28 (.6)	2.95 (.6)	2.9*
Smiling and Laughter	3.45 (.7)	3.48 (.7)	NS
Distress to Sudden Stimuli	2.21 (.6)	2.07 (.6)	NS
Distress to Limitations	2.42 (.5)	2.50 (.5)	NS
Soothability	3.28 (.7)	3.12 (.7)	NS
Duration of Orienting	2.85 (.5)	2.73 (.6)	NS
HOME	30.63 (5.5)	35.56 (6.4)	-4.2*

^{*} p<.01

Additional Analyses

A logistic regression was performed to determine what effect maternal age as measured by the two sample groups and the other related maternal characteristics which proved significant, may have on determining the probability of insecure attachment. A logistic regression is used when the dependent variable is measured on a nominal scale and is dichotomous and there are two or more explanatory variables. The model gives the probability that the outcome occurs as an exponential function of the independent variables. Here, the purpose was to determine if the probability of an infant having an insecure attachment to his mother could be explained by such factors as maternal age, self-esteem as a mother, child abuse potential, quality of the home environment, and maternal perceptions of infant temperament and behavior. Only those measures that differed significantly between the two groups were used in the logistic regression (Table 8). The logistic regression did not significantly explain attachment security by any of the above factors. ($X^2 = 5.6$, p > .05).

Table 8

Parameter Estimates for Logistic Regression Model

	β	<u>SE</u>	Odds Ratio	Confic	lence al 95%	
Adolescent/Non-adolescent	.637	.681	1.89	.139	2.01	
Parenting Stress	.022	.024	1.02	.935	1.03	
Self Esteem	.011	.031	1.01	.932	1.05	
Child Abuse Potential	.001	.003	1.00	.992	1.01	
HOME	071	.051	.93	.972	1.19	
Maternal Perception of Infant Temperament (Activity Level)	.159	.507	1.17	.316	2.30	
Race	.109	.378	1.15	.428	1.88	
Socioeconomic Status	.058	.032	1.06	.886	1.00	

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the attachment relationship of 18-month-old infants of adolescent mothers as compared to non-adolescent mothers. The study further attempted to examine this relationship in the context of maternal characteristics such as depression, self-esteem, parenting stress, child abuse potential, psychological distress, perception of infant behavior, as well as the caregiving environment.

It was suspected that infants of adolescent mothers would have greater incidences of insecure attachment and disorganization as compared to infants of non-adolescent mothers. It was also suspected that these differences could be explained by such factors as depression, self-esteem, parenting attitudes, as well as the caregiving environment. These hypotheses were not confirmed in the present study.

Given the nature of the two samples, it is reasonable to expect that these two groups would differ demographically. Understandably, the adolescent mothers also differed on other demographic variables that defined the nature of this group. Education levels of the adolescent mothers were significantly lower than that of the non-adolescent mothers, as was socioeconomic status (SES). SES is largely comprised of such variables as education, income, and occupation, thus making it difficult for the adolescent mother to have higher levels of SES.

Once again, the nature of the sample reflected another demographic difference in these two groups of mothers. The adolescent mothers were less likely to be married. Half of the non-adolescent mothers were married, whereas only one of the adolescent mothers

was married. The adolescent mothers were also less likely to have more than one living child.

There were significant differences between the two groups with respect to racial identity. The adolescent sample had a higher proportion of Hispanic subjects than the non-adolescent mothers. The non-adolescent mothers had a higher proportion of Black participants as compared to the adolescent mothers.

There were significant differences between the two groups on dichotomous measures of prenatal history of use of alcohol and marijuana. A greater proportion of non-adolescent mothers reported use of alcohol during their pregnancy, whereas, a higher proportion of the adolescent mothers reported use of marijuana during pregnancy. There were no significant differences in the use of nicotine.

Although it was expected that there would be differences between the two groups on maternal demographics, it is encouraging that there were no differences between the two groups on any of the infant characteristics. This eliminated the possibility of differences being related to subtleties in infant medical status.

It was predicted that there would be a significantly greater proportion of infants with insecure attachments in the adolescent sample. The finding of no differences between the two groups with regards to attachment classification is consistent with one of the few studies that examined attachment, via the strange situation, in infants of adolescent mothers (Ward & Carlson, 1995). The result of 67% security among the infants of the adolescent mothers is also consistent with normative data presented by Van Ijzendoorn and Kroonenberg (1988). This suggests that infants of adolescent mothers may resemble normative groups in prevalence of secure attachments to their mothers.

What is particularly interesting is the drastic difference between the two groups on a number of self-reported maternal characteristics. The mothers in the adolescent group reported lower amounts of self-esteem than the mothers in the non-adolescent group on the Maternal Self Report Inventory. Essentially, these mothers have less confidence in the parenting role and less self-esteem as a mother as compared to their older counterparts. This finding is consistent with Hurlbut and colleagues (1997) who also found that adolescent self-esteem is lower than that of older mothers, although a different measure was used. Hurlbut and colleagues (1997) offer that self-esteem is a good indicator of an adolescent mother's parenting. It is a good indicator of her own developmental level and may reflect her own struggle with identity, which in turn affects her skills as a mother. Low self-esteem may lead the mother to have a poor view of the role of the child or to lack the knowledge of parenting skills (Hurlbut, et al., 1997). Additional findings by Hubbs-Tait, Osofsky, Hann, and Culp (1994) support this by suggesting that maternal self-esteem as well as maternal depression predict adolescent parenting. However, in this study no differences were found between the adolescent mothers and non-adolescent mothers on level of depression as measured by the Beck Depression Inventory.

When adolescent mothers were asked to rate whether they agreed or disagreed with statements of parenting stress, expectations of children, etc. on the CAPI, they endorsed stricter parenting attitudes indicative of potential for child abuse. These elevated findings can be discussed in reference to both adolescent and ethnic differences.

Adolescents tend to score higher on the CAPI (Milner, 1986; McCullough & Scherman, 1998) These findings are consistent with reports of normative samples by Milner (1986). High school students (non parents) had an average rating of approximately 188 which is

similar to the current finding. Also, adolescent mothers have been found to be more restrictive and punitive with their children than non-adolescent mothers (Garcia Coll, et al., 1986). Also, as mentioned before, adolescent mother's increased child abuse potential may be due to their lack of adequate knowledge of parenting and appropriate child behavior (McCullough & Scherman, 1998) or living apart from related adults (Flanagan, et al., 1995).

Since the adolescent sample contained a large proportion of Hispanic youths, differences can be explained in terms of cultural attitudes toward parenting. Hispanic mothers when asked to assess the reasons for attachment behavior were more likely to focus on obedience and maintaining a proper demeanor than white anglo mothers (Harwood & Miller, 1991), hence, the adolescents may reflect more stringent parenting beliefs.

In terms of quality of the attachment relationship, it has been hypothesized elsewhere that the Strange Situation may not be a good instrument for use in Hispanic or non-Anglo populations (Harwood, Miller, & Irizarry, 1995). Although, in the current study, the majority of infants in the adolescent sample were classified as secure.

Differences in attachment were not found and attachment classifications were not different according to race. This is contrary to Broussard's (1995) finding that fewer black infants were classified as secure.

In order to address the issue that differences may be due to psychological characteristics of the child, a measure of maternal perception of infant's temperament and behavior was compared between the two samples. Although it has been found that teenage mothers have perceptions of their infant's temperament as more difficult than do

older mothers (Field, et al., 1980), this finding was not supported in the current study.

However, adolescent mothers rated their infants as having more activity than the ratings of activity level given by the non-adolescent mothers.

It has been shown that adolescent mothers may provide a less optimal home environment for their infants (Garcia Coll, et al., 1987). This was also confirmed in the present study. Roosa, et al. (1982) in their review of the literature, though limited at the time, found that SES and caretaking environment could be related to developmental problems for the children. More optimal SES, home environment, and maternal infant interaction were found among samples of older mothers (Roosa, et al.,1982). However, in this study only higher SES and more optimal home environments were found among the participants in the non-adolescent group.

In sum, the adolescent mothers have less self-esteem, more stress, stricter parenting attitudes, and provide a lower quality of the home environment than non-adolescent mothers. These mothers are also more likely to rate their infants as having a higher activity level than infants born to older mothers. Perhaps these data are reflecting the fact that over half of the non-adolescent mothers have had the experience of caring for another child, yet, it is still fascinating that these groups look so different on maternal psychosocial factors and these differences do not perturb the attachment relationship. Seifer and colleagues (1996) found no associations between a multiple risk index comprised of such factors as maternal psychopathology, maternal distress, poor quality of home environment, low SES and education, etc. and attachment classification.

It is encouraging that although theoretically, adolescent mothers are portrayed as disadvantaged in virtually every way possible, they do seem to be providing a relationship

for their infant as one of availability and trust. Since the majority of the infants of adolescent mothers were securely attached, some other system may account for this finding. It is possible that the rate of security found in the infants of adolescent mothers is due to factors not measured here.

The unexpected finding of not being able to relate attachment insecurity to differences in maternal age, even when maternal psychosocial differences were so apparent, leads to a variety of questions. Each of the maternal characteristics measured have been related to adverse outcomes for children. This study may not have measured those particular outcomes. For example, adolescent parenting has been associated with lower cognitive functioning in their children at school age (Baldwin & Cain, 1980).

Perhaps some other characteristic of the mother or child has buffered the child against the adversity associated with low SES, poor home environment, low maternal self-esteem, etc. Although the adolescent mothers reported higher levels of parenting stress, the family's living situation or level of perceived social support could be a buffer or protective factor for the child and thus the attachment relationship. However, these two factors were not measured in the current study.

It is also possible that the maternal psychosocial factors measured here may not reflect parenting competence of adolescent mothers. Shapiro and Mangelsdorf (1994) suggest that adult models of parenting competence may not accurately describe the factors that foster or inhibit parenting competence among adolescent mothers. For instance, they found results that seem to be at odds with the notion that parenting competence is positively associated with social support and well being and inversely related to perceived stress. Specifically, adolescent mothers who perceived high support from the baby's

father had higher self esteem and felt more efficacious. Yet, the more support they perceived, the less competent they were in terms of their overall expressivity (Shapiro & Mangelsdorf, 1994). Moreover, Rauch-Elnekave (1994) postulate adolescent mothers may experience difficulties in school and that early motherhood may be a way for them to experience success.

Attachment theory is believed to purport that the infant's experiences prior to the Strange Situation do correlate in a predictable and consistent manner to attachment behavior (Lamb, Thompson, Gardner, & Charnov, 1985). Mothers who behave sensitively to their infants tend to have securely attached infants (Ainsworth, et al., 1978). Mothers who deviate from this are more likely to have insecurely attached infants.

Factors associated with insecurity were present among the adolescent sample yet, they did not seem to influence the incidence of insecurity. The data do not seem to reflect the theoretical underpinnings of attachment.

Observational measures of infant characteristics were not used in the current study, hence, one can not rule out the role they may play in describing the mother-infant relationship. Since most temperament questionnaires include items that ask the parent to rate the child's behavior in the context of parent-child interactions (Vaughn, et al., 1992), it may be advantageous to include an objective observational measure of temperament or parent-child interaction and examine their relationship to attachment security. Future studies should attempt to examine this in the context of those variables presented here.

The findings of the present study may be related to the larger environmental context of these dyads. For example, the level of parenting stress, social support, developmental level of the mother, knowledge of child development, race, ethnicity, drug

use, and socioeconomic status may contribute to some of the findings herein. The difference in drug use between the two groups may have contributed to the results seen, although the measure of drug use did not take into account the frequency, amount, or timing of exposure. Future investigations should examine this further.

Some other limitations include the fact that measures of the adolescent mother's developmental level and knowledge of child development were not included, so, it is difficult to conclude that these may have been related to the results. Flanagan (1998) challenges the notion that adolescent parenting is associated with adversity and purports that the developmental process may impact the mothering experience of adolescents. Here, is where interventions should be targeted (Flanagan, 1998). Future research should include these factors, as well as, measures of social support and examinations of the larger caregiving environment, to determine the impact they may have on the quality of parenting provided by adolescent mothers and the quality of the attachment relationship between adolescent mothers and their infants.

References

- Abidin, R. (1983). <u>The Parenting Stress Index Manual</u>. Virginia: Pediatric Psychology Press.
- Ainsworth, M. (1984). Attachment. In N. Endler & J. McV. Hunt (Eds.), Personality and the Behavioral Disorders, 1. New York: Wiley.
- Ainsworth, M., Blehar, M., Waters, E., & Wall, S. (1978). <u>Patterns of attachment:</u>
 A psychological study of the strange situation. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ainsworth, M., & Witting, B. (1969). Attachment and exploratory behavior of one-year-olds in a strange situation. In B. Foss (Ed.), <u>Determinants of Infant Behavior</u>. London: Methuen.
- Baldwin, W., & Cain, V. (1980). The children of teenage parents. <u>Family Planning Perspectives</u>, 12, 34-43.
- Barratt, M., & Roach, M. (1995). Early interactive processes: Parenting by adolescent and adult single mothers. <u>Infant Behavior and Development</u>, 18, 97-109.
- Beck, A., Steer, R., & Garbin, M. (1988). Psychometric properties of the beck depression inventory: Twenty five years of evaluation. <u>Clinical Psychology Review</u>, 8, 77-100.
- Beck, A., Ward, C., Mendelson, M., Mock, J., & Erbaugh, J. (1961). An inventory for measuring depression. <u>Archives of General Psychiatry</u>, 4, 561-571.
- Becker, P. (1987). Sensitivity to infant development and behavior: A comparison of adolescent and adult single mothers. Research in Nursing Health, 10, 119-127.
- Belsky, J., Rovine, M., & Taylor, D. (1984). The Pennsylvania Infant and Family Development Project, 3: The origins of individual differences in infant-mother attachment: Maternal and infant contributions. Child Development, 55, 718-728.
- Books. Books. Attachment and loss: Vol. 1. Attachment. New York: Basic
- Broussard, E. (1995). Infant attachment in a sample of adolescent mothers. <u>Child Psychiatry and Human Development</u>, 25, 211-219.
- Caldwell, B., & Bradley, R. (1984). <u>Administration manual (revised edition):</u>

 <u>Home observation for measurement of the environment.</u> Little Rock: University of Arkansas.

- Cicchetti, D. (1987). Developmental psychopathology in infancy: Illustration from the study of maltreated youngsters. <u>Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology</u>, 55, 837-845.
 - Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical Power Analysis: A computer program. New York.
- Crittenden, P. (1985). Maltreated infants: Vulnerability and resilience. <u>Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry</u>, 26, 85-96.
- Culp, R., Appelbaum, M., Osofsky, J., & Levy, J. (1988). Adolescent and older mothers: Comparison between prenatal maternal variables and newborn interaction measures. <u>Infant Behavior and Development</u>, 11, 353-362.
- DeLissovoy, V. (1973). Child care by adolescent parents. Children Today, 35, 22-25.
- Desrogatis, L. (1993). <u>Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI): Administration, Scoring, and Procedures Manual, Third Edition</u>. Minneapolis, MN: National Computer Systems, Inc.
- Egeland, B., & Farber, E. (1984). Infant-mother attachment: Factors related to its development and changes over time. Child Development, 55, 753-771.
- Egeland, B., & Sroufe, L. A. (1981). Attachment and early maltreatment. <u>Child</u> <u>Development</u>, 52, 44-52.
- Elster, A., McAnarney, E., & Lamb, M. (1983). Parental behavior of adolescent mothers. <u>Pediatrics</u>, 71, 494-503.
- Erickson, M., Sroufe, A., & Egeland, B. (1985). The relationship between quality of attachment and behavior problems in a preschool high risk sample. In I. Bretherton & E. Waters (Eds.), Growing points of attachment theory and research. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 50 (1-2, Serial No. 209).
- Field, T. (1980). Interactions of preterm and term infants with their lower and middle class teenage and adult mothers. In T. Field, S. Goldberg, D. Stern, & A. Sostek (Eds.), <u>High Risk Infants and Children: Adult and Peer Interactions</u>. New York: Academic.
- Field, T., Widmayer, S., Stringer, S., & Ignatoff, E. (1980). Teenage, lower class, black mothers and their pre-term infants: An intervention and developmental follow-up. Child Development, 51, 426-436.

- Flanagan, P. (1998). Teen mothers: Countering the myths of dysfunction and developmental disruption. In C. Garcia Coll, J. Surrey, (Eds.), Mothering Against the Odds: Diverse Voices of Contemporary Mothers. New York: Guilford.
- Flanagan, P., Coppa, D., Riggs, S., & Alario, A. (1994). Communication behaviors of infants of teen mothers: An exploratory study. <u>Journal of Adolescent Health</u>, 15, 169-175.
- Flanagan, P., Garcia Coll, C., Andreozzi, L., & Riggs, S. (1995). Predicting maltreatment of children of teenage mothers. <u>Archives of Pediatric Adolescent Medicine</u>, 149, 451-455.
- Frodi, A., Grolnick, W., Bridges, L., & Berko, J. (1990). Infants of adolescent and adult mothers: Two indices of socioemotional development. <u>Adolescence</u>, 98, 363-374.
- Furstenberg, F., Brooks-Gunn, J., & Morgan, S. (1987). Adolescent mothers and their children later in life. Family Planning Perspectives, 19, 142-151.
- Garcia Coll, C., Hoffman, J., & Oh, W. (1987). The social ecology and early parenting of caucasian adolescent mothers. <u>Child Development</u>, 58, 955-963.
- Garcia Coll, C., Vohr, B., Hoffman, J., & Oh, W. (1986). Maternal and environmental factors affecting developmental outcome of infants of adolescent mothers. Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics, 7, 230-236.
- Grossmann, K., Grossmann, K., Spangler, G., Suess, G., & Unzner, L. (1985). Maternal sensitivity and newborn's orientation responses as related to quality of attachment in northern Germany. In I. Bretherton & E. Waters (Eds.), Growing points of attachment theory and research. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 50 (1-2, Serial No. 209).
- Harwood, R. & Miller, J. (1991). Perceptions of attachment behavior: A comparison of anglo and puerto rican mothers. Merrill Palmer Quarterly, 37, 583-599.
- Harwood, R., Miller, J., & Irizarry, N. (1995). <u>Culture and Attachment:</u> <u>Perceptions of the Child in Context</u>. New York: Guilford.
- Hollingshead, A. (1975). <u>Four Factor Index of Social Status</u>. New Haven, CT: Yale University, Department of Sociology.
- Hubbs-Tait, L., Osofsky, J., Hann, D., & Culp, A. (1994). Predicting behavior problems and social competence in children of adolescent mothers. <u>Family Relations</u>, 43, 439-446.

- Hurlbut, N., Culp, A., Jambunathan, S., & Butler, P. (1997). Adolescent mother's self esteem and role identity and their relationship to parenting skills knowledge. Adolescence, 32, 639-655.
- Jones, F., Green, V., & Krauss, D. (1980). Maternal responsiveness of primiparous mothers during the postpartum period: Age differences. <u>Pediatrics</u>, 65, 579-584.
- Lamb, M., Hopps, K., & Elster, A. (1987). Strange situation behavior of infants with adolescent mothers. <u>Infant Behavior and Development</u>, 10, 39-48.
- Lamb, M., Thompson, R., Gardner, W., & Charnov, E. (Eds.). (1985). <u>Infant-Mother Attachment: The Origins and Developmental Significance of Individual Differences in Strange Situation Behavior</u>. New Jersey: Erlbaum.
- Lawrence, R., McAnarney, E., Aten, M., Iker, H., Baldwin, C., & Baldwin, A. (1981). Aggressive behaviors in young mothers: Markers of future morbidity? <u>Pediatric Research</u>, 15, 443.
- Levine, L., Garcia Coll, C., & Oh, W. (1985). Determinants of mother-infant interaction in adolescent mothers. <u>Pediatrics</u>, 75, 23-29.
- Main, M., & Cassidy, J. (1988). Categories of response to reunion with the parent at age six: Predictable from infant attachment classification and stable over a one-month period. <u>Developmental Psychology</u>, 24, 415-426.
- Main, M., & Solomon, J. (1990). Procedures for identifying infants as disorganized-disoriented during the Ainsworth Strange Situation. In M. Greenberg, D. Cicchetti, & E.M. Cummings (Eds.), <u>Attachment in the preschool years: Theory, research, and intervention</u> (pp. 121-160). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- McAnarney, E., Lawrence, R., & Atens, M. (1979). Premature parenthood a preliminary report of adolescent mothers and behavioral characteristics of their first born infants. Pediatric Research, 13, 328.
- McCullough, M., & Scherman, A. (1991). Adolescent pregnancy: Contributing factors and strategies for prevention. <u>Adolescence</u>, 26, 809-816.
- Miller, S. (1984). The relationship between adolescent childbearing and child maltreatment. Child Welfare, 63, 553-557.
- Milner, J. (1980). <u>The Child Abuse Potential Inventory manual (second edition)</u>. Illinois: Psytec.

- Parks, P., & Arndt, E. (1990). Differences between adolescent and adult mothers of infants. <u>Journal of Adolescent Health Care</u>, 11, 248-253.
- Radke-Yarrow, M., Cummings, E., Kuczynski, L., & Chapman, M. (1985). Patterns of attachment in two and three year olds in normal families and families with parental depression. Child Development, 56, 884-893.
- Ragozin, A., Basham, R., Crnic, K., Greenberg, M., & Robinson, N. (1982). Effects of maternal age on parenting role. <u>Developmental Psychology</u>, 18, 627-634.
- Rauch-Elnekave, H. (1994). Teenage motherhood: its relationship to undetected learning problems. <u>Adolescence</u>, 29, 91-104.
- Roosa, M., Fitzgerald, H., & Carlson, N. (1982). Teenage parenting and child development: A literature review. <u>Infant Mental Health Journal</u>, 3, 4-18.
- Roosa, M, & Vaughan, L. (1984). A comparison of teenage and older mothers with preschool children. Family Relations, 33, 259-265.
- Rothbart, M. (1981). Measurement of temperament in infancy. Child Development, 52, 569-578.
- Sandler, H., Vietze, P., & O'Connor, S. (1981). Obstetric and neonatal outcomes following intervention with pregnant teenagers. In K. Scott, T. Field, & E. Robertson (Eds.), Teenage parents and their offspring. New York: Grune & Stratton.
- Schneider_Rosen, K., & Cicchetti, D. (1984). The relationship between affect and cognition in maltreated infants: Quality of attachment and the development of visual self recognition. Child Development, 55, 648-658.
- Seifer, R., & Dickstein, S. (1993). Parental mental illness and infant development. In C. Zeanah (Ed.), <u>Handbook of Infant Mental Health</u> (pp.120-142). New York: Guilford.
- Seifer, R., Sameroff, A., Dickstein, S., Keitner, G., Miller, I., Rasmussen, S., & Hayden, L. (1996). Parental psychopathology, multiple contextual risks, and one year outcomes in children. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 25, 423-435.
- Seifer, R., & Schiller, M. (1995). The role of parenting sensitivity, infant temperament, and dyadic interaction in attachment theory and assessment. In E. Waters, B. E. Vaughn, G. Posada, & K. Kondo-Ikemura (Eds.), Caregiving, cultural, and cognitive perspectives on secure base behavior and working models: New growing points of attachment theory and research. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 60 (Serial No. 244, pp. 146-174).

- Shapiro, J. & Mangelsdorf, S. (1994). The determinants of parenting competence in adolescent mothers. <u>Journal of Youth and Adolescence</u>, 23, 621-642.
- Shea & Tronick, E. (1984). The Maternal Self-Report Inventory: A research and clinical instrument for assessing maternal self esteem. In H. Fitzgerald, B. Lester, & M. Yogman, (Eds.), <u>Theory and Research in Behavioral Pediatrics</u>. Boston: Plenum.
- Spieker, S., & Booth, C. (1988). Maternal antecedents of attachment quality. In J. Belsky & T. Nezworski (Eds.), <u>Clinical implications of attachment</u> (pp. 300-323). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Teti, D., Gelfand, D., Messinger, D., & Isabella, R. (1995). Maternal depression and the quality of early attachment: An examination of infants, preschoolers, and their mothers. <u>Developmental Psychology</u>, 31, 364-376.
- Thompson, R., Lamb, M., & Estes, D. (1982). Stability of infant-mother attachment and its relationship to changing life circumstances in an unselected middle class sample. Child Development, 53, 144-148.
- Tronick, E. Z., Ricks, M., & Cohn, J. (1982). Maternal and infant affective exchange: Patterns of adaptation. In T. Field & A. Fogel (Eds.), Emotion and Early Interaction. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Turner, P. (1991). Relationship between attachment, gender, and behavior with peers in preschoolers. Child Development, 62, 1475-1488.
- Van Ijzendoorn, M., Goldberg, S., Kroonenberg, P., & Frenkel, O. (1992). The relative effects of maternal and child problems on the quality of attachment: A meta-analysis of attachment in clinical samples. <u>Child Development</u>, 63, 840-858.
- Van Ijzendoorn, M., & Kroonenberg, P. (1988). Cross cultural patterns of attachment: A meta-analysis of the strange situation. <u>Child Development</u>, 59, 147-156.
- Vaughn, B., Egeland, B., Sroufe, L. A., & Waters, E. (1979). Individual differences in infant-mother attachment at twelve and eighteen months: Stability and change in families under stress. Child Development, 50, 971-975.
- Vaughn, B., Lefever, G., Seifer, R., & Barglow, P. (1989). Attachment behavior, attachment security, and temperament during infancy. Child Development, 60, 728-737.
- Vaughn, B., Stevenson-Hinde, J., Waters, E., Kotsaftis, A., Lefever, G., Shouldice, A., Trudel, M., & Belsky, J. (1992). Attachment security and temperament in infancy and early childhood: Some conceptual clarifications. <u>Developmental Psychology</u>, 28, 463-473.

- Ward, M., & Carlson, E. (1995). Associations among adult attachment representations, maternal sensitivity, and infant mother attachment in a sample of adolescent mothers. Child Development, 66, 69-79.
- Waters, E. (1978). The reliability and stability of individual differences in infant-mother attachment. Child Development, 49, 483-494.
- Whitman, T., Borkowski, J., Schellenbach, C., & Nath, P. (1987). Predicting and understanding developmental delay of children of adolescent mothers: A multi-dimensional approach. <u>American Journal of Mental Deficiency</u>, 92, 40-56.
- Zuravin, S. (1988). Child maltreatment and teenage first births: A relationship mediated by chronic sociodemographic stress? American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 58, 91-103.

Appendix A

Strange Situation Scoring Worksheet

Strange Situation Scorin	g Worksheet	
ID: 0000	Rater:	
Episode 2: Mother-Child		
Episode 3: Stranger Enters		
Episode 4: 1 st Separation		W. 4
Episode 5: 1st Reunion		
Episode J		
Proximity Seeking Contact Maintenance	☐ Avoidance ☐	Resistance
Episode 6,7: 2 nd Separation / Strange	r Reunion	
Episode 8: 2 nd Reunion		
-		
Proximity Seeking Contact Maintenance	Avoidance	Resistance

Appendix B

MLS Form for HOME

THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL LIFESTYLES ON INFANT OUTCOMES FORM NC63.1 7/11/94 Page 1 of 5 10 12 24 30 36 Visit Month Screening Number Birth Number Center Number NEW HOME OBSERVATION FOR MEASUREMENT OF ENVIRONMENT Record whether the behavior or events described in each item are observed during the visit or reported by the parent or caretaker as characteristic of the home environment. * These items may require direct questions. Part I. EMOTIONAL AND VERBAL RESPONSIVITY OF MOTHER/CARETAKER 1. Caretaker spontaneously vocalizes to child at least twice during visit (excluding scolding). 2. Caretaker responds to child's vocalizations with verbal response. 3. Caretaker tells the child the name of some object during visit or says name of person or object in a "teaching style". 4. Caretaker's speech is distinct, clear and audible. 5. Caretaker initiates verbal interchanges with observer-asks questions, makes spontaneous comments. 6. Caretaker expresses ideas freely and easily and uses statements of appropriate length for conversations (e.g., gives more than brief answers). *7. Caretaker permits child occasionally to engage in "messy" types of play. 8. Caretaker spontaneously praises the child's qualities or behavior twice during visit. 9. When speaking of or to child, caretaker's voice conveys positive feeling. 10. Caretaker caresses or kisses child at least once during visit. 11. Caretaker shows some positive emotional responses to praise of child offered by visitor.

12. Caretaker makes eye to eye contact with child.

13. Caretaker conveys positive affect non-verbally toward child.

		THE EFFECTS OF MATER	NAL LIFES	IYL	ES O	N INF	ANT	ourc	OME	S		FC	7/11/94
			1	4	8	10	12	18	24	30	36		Page 2 of 5
	Center Number	Screening Number			,	√isit N	fonth						Birth Numbe
Part	II. AVOIDANCE OF	RESTRICTION AND PUNIS	HMENT									Yes	No
14	. Caretaker does not sh	out at child during visit.										1	2
15	. Caretaker does not ex	press overt annoyance with or	hostility tow	ard c	hild.						[1	2
16.	Caretaker neither slap	s nor spanks child during visit.									[1	2
•17	. Caretaker reports that the past week.	t no more than one instance of p	physical pur	ishm	ent oc	сигтес	durin	g			[1	2
18.	Caretaker does not so	old or derogate child during vis	it.								[1	2
19.	Caretaker does not into 3 times during my vis	erfere with child's actions or re it.	estrict child'	s mov	/emer	ts mo	re than					1	2
20.	At least ten books are	present and visible.										1	2
*21.	Family has a pet.											1	2
Part !	II. ORGANIZATION	OF ENVIRONMENT										Yes	No
22.	When caretaker is awa	y, care is provided by one of th	roe regular	subst	itutes							1	2
23.	Someone takes child in	to grocery store at least once a	week.									1	2
24.	Child gets out of house	at least four times a week.										1	2
25.	Child is taken regularly	to doctor's office or clinic.										1	2
26.	Child has a special place	e in which to keep his/her toys	and "treasu	res".								1	2
27.	Child's play environme	ent appears safe and free of haza	ards.									1	2
28.	Home environment app	ears clean.										1	2
29.	Child has a feeding sch	erhule									Г		

	THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL LIFESTYLES ON INFANT OUTCOMES		NC63.1 7/11/94 e 3 of 5
	1 4 8 10 12 18 24 30	36	
	Center Number Screening Number Visit Month	Birth	Number
Part	III. ORGANIZATION OF ENVIRONMENT (continued)	Yes	No
30.	Meals are planned and provided at regular times for family members.	1	2
31.	Child has a safe, consistent place to sleep (e.g. crib, bassinet, play pen).	1	2
32.	Each member of the family regularly sleeps in a specific place.	1	2
33.	Family has regular and appropriate morning routine.	1	2
*34.	There are sufficient staples for children.	1	2
35.	Child and child's clothing appear clean.	1	2
36.	Caretaker has not made more than two moves in the past 2 years.	1	2
Part l	TV. PROVISION OF APPROPRIATE PLAY MATERIAL	Yes	No
37.	Child has some muscle activity toys or equipment.		2
38.	Child has push or pull toy.	1	2
3 9.	Child has stroller or walker, kiddie car, scooter or tricycle.	1	2
40.	Caretaker provides toys or interesting activities for child during interview.	1	2
41.	Provides learning equipment appropriate to age - cuddly toy or role playing toys.	1	2
42.	Provides learning equipment appropriate to age - mobile, table and chairs, high chair, play pen.	1	2
43.	Provides eye-hand coordination toys - items to go in and out of receptacle, fit	1	2

		THE EFFECTS OF MATERNA	L LIFEST	YLES	on inf	ANT	OUTO	OME	ES		FC	7/11/94 Page 4 of 5
			1	4 8	10	12	18	24	30	36]	
	Center Number	Screening Number			Visit N	· Month						Birth Number
Par	IV. PROVISION OF	APPROPRIATE PLAY MATE	RIAL (con	tinued)						Yes	No
44	. Provides eye-hand co toys, blocks or build	coordination toys that permit combit ling toys.	nations - st	cking	or pestin	g					1	2
45	. Provides toys for lite	erature and music.									1	2
Part	v. maternal/cal	RETAKER INVOLVEMENT W	тн сни	D							Yes	No
46	. Caretaker tends to ke	eep child within visual range and to	look at hi	m/her	often.		~				1	2
47	. Caretaker "talks" to	child while doing ber work.									1	2
48	. Caretaker consciously	y encourages developmental advan	ce.								1	2
49	. Caretaker invests *m	naturing toys" with value via her att	ention.								1	2
50	. Caretaker structures	child's play periods.									1	2
51.	Caretaker provides to	oys that challenge child to develop	new skills.								1	2
52.	Older children are no	x handling child in inappropriate fa	shion.								1	2
53.	The child is not left a	lone or left in the care of other chil	ldren less t	han 12	years of	age.					1	2
*54	. Child is not regularly	cared for by other children in place	ce of the ce	retake	r.					[1	2
•55	. Child is not allowed t	to feed self.								[1	2
56.	Caretaker picks up ch	ild regularly when not sleeping.								[1	2
art	VI. OPPORTUNITIE	S FOR VARIETY IN DAILY ST	IMULAT	ION							Yes	No
57.	Father (or Caretaker's	s partner) provides some caretaking	every day								1	2
										Γ		

THE EFFECTS OF MATERN	NAL LIFE	STYL	ES O	N INF.	ANT	OUT	COMI	ES			VM NC63. 7/11/9 Page 5 of
	1	4	8	10	12	18	24	30	36		
Center Number Screening Number			,	Visit N	fonth.					B	lirth Numb
_{eart} vi. opportunities for variety in daily	STIMUL	ATIO	N (co	atinue	ed)					Yes	No
59. Child eats at least one meal per day with caretaker an	nd partner	(oppo	ite se	x).						1	2
60. Child eats at least one meal per day with caretaker.										1	2
61. Family visits or receives visits from relatives (approx	imately on	ce a n	ooth)							1	2
62. Child has three or more books of his/her own.										1	2
63. Reading material is present and visible.										1	2
64. Home appears well lit.										1	2
65. Television is not on during most of visit.										1	2
three or more books of his/her own. naterial is present and visible. ears well lit. is not on during most of visit.	imately on									1 1 1 1	2 2

Day

Appendix C

MLS Form for PSI

THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL LIFESTYLES ON INFANT OUTCOMES

FORM NC47.1 10/20/93 Page 1 of 3

										Page 1 of 3
		1	4	8	10	12	18	24	36	
Center Number	Screening Number				Visit	Mon	th			Birth Number

PARENTING STRESS INDEX (PSI)

Directions:							
	llowing questions, please th				-	-	
I am going to read to how you feel.	some statements to you. U	sing this scale I w	ant you to tell me	how clo	ose the st	atements	are
In other words if yo	our feelings about the states	nent are:					
"Yes, that's certain!	y how I feel" then your che	oice would be (1)	Strongly Agree.				
"Yes, that's how I f	eel sometimes" then your o	boice would be (2	?) Agree.				
"I'm not sure how I	feel" then your choice wor	uld be (3) Not Sur	re.				
"No, I don't usually	feel that way" then your c	boice would be (4	Disagree.				
"No, I don't feel tha	it way at all" then your cho	pice would be (5)	Strongly Disagree.				
While you may not	find an answer which exact	ly states your feel	ings, please choose	the an	swer whi	cb	
comes closest to des	cribing how you feel.						
YOUR FIRST REA	CTION TO EACH OUEST	TON SHOULD B	E YOUR ANSWE	<u>R.</u>			
Start with an example	e (SEE SCRIPT)						
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)		(5)		
Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree			ngly Disa	gree
(Yes, certainly)	(Yes, sometimes)		(Not usually)		(Not	at all)	
Vou often have the f	haling that you arrant have	dia manhiama wana		1	2	3	4
Tou often have the f	eeling that you cannot hand	he problems very	Well.	1	2	3	4
You find yourself give ever thought you wo	ving up more of your life to	o meet this child's	s needs than you	1	2	3	4
ever thought you wo			s needs than you	1	2	3	4
ever thought you wo You feel trapped by	uld.						
ever thought you wo You feel trapped by Since having this chi Since having this chi	uld. responsibilities as a parent.	do new and diffe	rent things.	1	2	3	4
ever thought you wo You feel trapped by Since having this chi	uld. responsibilities as a parent. Id you have been unable to	do new and diffe	rent things.	1	2	3	4
ever thought you wo You feel trapped by Since having this chi Since having this chi you like to do.	uld. responsibilities as a parent. Id you have been unable to	do new and diffe	rent things.	1	2	3	4
ever thought you wo You feel trapped by Since having this chi Since having this chi you like to do. You are unhappy abo	uld. responsibilities as a parent. Id you have been unable to Id you feel that you are ain	do new and diffences never able to bought.	rent things.	1 1	2 2 2	3 3 3	4 4
ever thought you wo You feel trapped by Since having this chi Since having this chi you like to do. You are unhappy abo There are quite a few	responsibilities as a parent. Id you have been unable to Id you feel that you are alm out the last clothes that you things that bother you abo caused more problems tha	do new and diffences never able to bought.	rent things.	1 1 1 1	2 2 2	3 3 3	4 4 4

THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL LIFESTYLES ON INFANT OUTCOMES

FORM NC47.1 10/20/93 Page 2 of 3

		1	4	8	10	12	18	24	36	rage 2 0
Center Number	Screening Number		-		Visit	Mon	th			Birth Number

S	trongly Agree	Agree 2	Not Sure	Disagree 4	-	ly Disagn	ree		
9.	You feel alone ar	nd without friends.			1	2	3	4	:
10.	When you go to	a party you usually	think that you won't	enjoy yourself.	1	2	3	4	4
11.	You are not as in	iterested in people a	as you used to be.		1	2	.3	4	5
12.	You don't enjoy	things as you used	to.		1	2	3	4	5
13.	This child hardly	ever does things th	at make you feel goo	d.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Most times you for close to you.	eel that this child d	oes not like you and	does not want to be	1	2	3	4	5
15.	This child smiles	at you much less th	nan you expected.		1	2	3	4	5
16.	When you do thin or appreciate then	•	ou get the feeling that	s/he doesn't notice	1	2	3	4	5
17.	When playing, s/l	he doesn't often gig	gle or laugh.		1	2	3	4	5
18.	This child doesn't	t seem to learn as q	uickly as most childre	en.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	This child doesn't	t seem to smile as r	nuch as most children	ı.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	This child is not a	able to do as much	as you expected.		1	2	3	4	5
1.	It takes a long tim	ne and it is very ha	rd for this child to ge	t used to new things.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	You feel that you (Use a written car for the mother to choose.)	2. a perso d 3. an aver 4. a better	y good at being a par n who has some troul age parent, r than average parent, good parent.	ble being a parent,	1	2	3	4	5
3.	You are bothered	by not having close	er and warmer feeling	s for this child.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Sometimes this child does things that bother you, just to be bad.			1	2	3	4	5	
5.	This child seems t	to cry or fuss more	often than most child	ren.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	This child general	ly wakes up in a ba	d mood.		1	2	3	4	5
7.	You feel that s/he	is very moody and	easily upset.		1	2	3	4	5

THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL LIFESTYLES ON INFANT OUTCOMES

FORM NC47... 10/20/9: Page 3 of 3

s	trongly Agree	Agree 2	Not Sure	Disagree 4	Strong	y Disagr	rec		
28.	This child does	a few things which	bother you a great de	al.	1	2	3	4	
29.	This child reacts	very strongly when	something happens	that s/he doesn't like.	1	2	3	4	
3 0.	This child gets u	pset easily over the	smallest thing.		1	2	3	4	
31.	It was harder the	an you thought it w	ould be to get her/him	on a regular sleeping	or 1	2	3	4	:
32.	something is:	 much harder th somewhat hard about as hard a 	er than you expected, as you expected,						
	(Use card)	 somewhat easier much easier th 	er than you expected, an you expected.		1	2	3	4	:
33.		example, whines,	er of things that this cories, interrupts, fight	child does that is, etc. Please tell me					
	1. 10+	2. 8-9 3	. 6-7 4. 4-	5. 0-3	1	2	. 3	4	:
34.	There are some	things this child doe	s that really bother y	ou a lot.	1	2	3 .	4	:
35.	This child turned	out to be more of	a problem than you h	ad expected.	1	2	3	4	
36.	This child makes	more demands on	you than most childre	en would.	1	2	3	4	4
Interv	iewer Response:					7			
37.	Rate how confide	ent you feel that inf	ormation reported on	this form is reliable an	d truthful.				
	Not Confident 1	Somewhat 2	Confident	Very Confident 3					
m co	mpleted by:		Date form	completed:		T	T		

Appendix D

MLS form for CAPI

CAP INVENTORY FORM VI

Interviewer: The items should be read aloud without explanation, advice, or comment. If the respondent asks questions about the meaning of any item, explain that you are interested in her interpretation and repeat the statement emphasizing such words as "never, sometimes, always, often, etc." which can help to define the answers. Statements which refer to "your child" refer to the study child, you may need to clarify this for the respondent.

I am going to read you a list of statements expressing how you might feel about many different matters. Please listen carefully and tell me whether you agree or disagree with the statement.

D:----

		Agree	Disagree
1.	You never feel sorry for others	1	2
?.	You enjoy having pets	1	2
3.	You have always been strong and healthy	1	2
4.	You like most people	1	2
5.	You are a confused person	1	2
6.	You do not trust most people	1	2
7.	People expect too much from you	1	2
8.	Children should never be bad	1	2
9.	You are often mixed up	1	2
10.	Spanking that only bruises a child is okay	1	2
11.	You always try to check on your child when he/she is crying	1	2
12.	You sometimes act without thinking	1	2
13.	You cannot depend on others	1	2
14.	You are a happy person	1	2

FORM NC62.1 2/15/94 Page 2 of 10

		1 4 8 10 12 18 24	
	Center Number Screening Number	Visit Month	Birth Number
	ar and the south one for the	Agre	
15.	You like to do things with your family	L-1	
16.	Teenage girls need to be protected	_ 1	2
17.	You are often angry inside		2
18.	Sometimes you feel all alone in the world	1	2
19.	Everything in a home should always be in its place	1	2
20.	You sometimes worry that you cannot meet the need	ds of a child	2
21.	Knives are dangerous for children		2
22.	You often feel rejected	1	2
23.	You are often lonely inside	1	2
24.	Little boys should never learn sissy games	1	2
25.	You often feel very frustrated		2
26.	Children should never disobey	1	2
27.	You love all children	1	2
28.	Sometimes you fear that you will lose control of you	urself . 1	2
29.	You sometimes wish that your father would have lo	wed you more	2
30.	You have a child who is clumsy	1	2
31.	You know what is the right and wrong way to act	1	2

32. Your telephone number is unlisted

FORM NC62.1 2/15/94 Page 3 of 10

		1	4	8	10	12	18	24	36] _
Center Number	Screening Number				Visi	Mon	th			Birth Number
								Agree	<u>:</u>	Disagree

		Agree	Disagree
33.	The birth of a child will usually cause problems in a marriage	1	2
34.	You are always a good person	1	2
35.	You never worry about your health	1	2
36.	You sometimes worry that you will not have enough to eat	1	2
37.	You have never wanted to hurt someone else	1	2
38.	You are an unlucky person	1	2
.9ز	You are usually a quiet person	1	2
40.	Children are pests	1	2
41.	Things have usually gone against you in life	1	2
42.	Picking up a baby whenever he cries spoils him	1	2
43.	You sometimes are very quiet	1	2
44.	You sometimes lose your temper	1	2
45.	You have a child who is bad	1	2
46.	You sometimes think of yourself first		2
47.	You sometimes feel worthless		2
48.	Your parents did not really care about you	1	2
			2
			2
	344. 355. 366. 377. 388. 399. 399. 319. 319. 319. 319. 319. 319	33. The birth of a child will usually cause problems in a marriage 34. You are always a good person 35. You never worry about your health 36. You sometimes worry that you will not have enough to eat 37. You have never wanted to hurt someone else 38. You are an unlucky person 39. You are usually a quiet person 30. Children are pests 31. Things have usually gone against you in life 32. Picking up a baby whenever he cries spoils him 33. You sometimes are very quiet 34. You sometimes lose your temper 35. You have a child who is bad 36. You sometimes think of yourself first 37. You sometimes feel worthless 38. Your parents did not really care about you 39. You are sometimes very sad 50. Children are really little adults	33. The birth of a child will usually cause problems in a marriage 1 34. You are always a good person 1 35. You never worry about your health 36. You sometimes worry that you will not have enough to eat 1 37. You have never wanted to hurt someone else 1 38. You are an unlucky person 1 39. You are usually a quiet person 10. Children are pests 11. Things have usually gone against you in life 12. Picking up a baby whenever he cries spoils him 13. You sometimes are very quiet 14. You sometimes lose your temper 15. You have a child who is bad 16. You sometimes think of yourself first 17. You sometimes feel worthless 18. Your parents did not really care about you 19. You are sometimes very sad

FORM NC62.1 2/15/94 Page 4 of 10

		1	4	8	10	12	18	24	36	
Center Number	Screening Number					Мов				Birth Number

•	You have a child who breaks things	Agree	Disagree 2
	You often feel worried		2
	It is okay to let a child stay in dirty diapers for a while		2
	A child should never talk back		2
	Sometimes your behavior is childish		2
	You are often easily upset		2
	Sometimes you have bad thoughts	1	2
	Everyone must think of himself first	1	2
5 9.	A crying child will never be happy	1	2
60.	You have never hated another person	1	2
61.	Children should not learn how to swim	1	2
62.	You always do what is right	1	2
63.	You are often worried inside	1	2
64.	You have a child who is sick a lot	1	2
65.	Sometimes you do not like the way you act	1	2
66.	You sometimes fail to keep all of your promises	1	2
67.	People have caused you a lot of pain	1	2
68.	Children should stay clean	1	2

FORM NC62.1 2/15/94 Page 5 of 10

									Page 5 of 10
	1 4		8	10	12	18	24	36	
	Center Number Screening Number			Visit	Mon	th			Birth Number
						,	Agree	:	Disagree
69.	You have a child who gets into trouble a lot						1		2
70.	You never get mad at others						1		2
71.	You always get along with others						1		2
72.	You often think about what to do						1		2
73.	You find it hard to relax						1		2
74.	These days a person doesn't really know on whom one can coun	t					1		2

76. You have a physical handicap	1
77. Children should have play clothes and good clothes	1

75. Your life is happy

86. Spanking is the best punishment

78. Other people do not understand how you feel	1	2

/9	A five year old who wets his bed is old		
80	O. Children should be quiet and listen	1	2

81. You have several close friends in your neighborhood	1	2
82. It is the school's responsibility to educate the child	1	2

83. Your family fights a lot	· ·	1 2	
83. Your family fights a lot		1 2	

FORM NC62.1 2/15/94 Page 6 of 10

	Center Number Screening Number	8 10 12 18 24 36 Visit Month	Birth Number
		Agree	Disagree
87.	You do not like to be touched by others	1	2
88.	People who ask for help are weak	1	2
89.	Children should be washed before bed	1	2
90.	You do not laugh very much	1	2
91.	You have several close friends	1	2
92.	People should take care of their own needs	1	2
93.	You have fears no one knows about	1	2
94.	Your family has problems getting along	1	2
95.	Life often seems useless to you	1	2
96.	A child should be potty trained by the time he's one year old	1	2
97.	A child in a mud puddle is a happy sight	1	2
98.	People do not understand you	1	2
9 9.	You often feel worthless	1	2
100.	Other people have made your life unhappy	1	2
101.	You are always a kind person	1	2
102.	Sometimes you do not know why you act as you do	1	2
103.	You have many personal problems	1	2
104	You have a child who often hurts himself		2

FORM NC62.1 2/15/94 Page 7 of 10

			1	4	8	10	12	18	24	36	
Center Number		g Numb					Mon				Birth Number

		Agree	Disagree
105.	You often feel very upset	1	2
106.	People sometimes take advantage of you	1	2
107.	Your life is good	1	2
108.	A home should be spotless	1	2
109.	You are easily upset by your problems	1	2
110.	You never listen to gossip	1	2
111.	Your parents did not understand you	1	2
112.	Many things in life make you angry	1	2
113.	Your child has special problems	1	2
114.	You do not like most children	1	2
115.	Children should be seen and not heard	1	2
116.	Most children are alike	1	2
117.	It is important for children to read	1	2
118.	You are often depressed	1	2
	Children should occasionally be thoughtful of their parents		2
	You are often upset		2
	People don't get along with you	1	2

FORM NC62.1 2/15/94 Page 8 of 10

				Page 8 of
	1 4 8	10 12 18	24 36	
	Center Number Screening Number	Visit Month		Birth Number
			Agree	Disagree
122.	A good child keeps his toys and clothes neat and orderly		1	2
123.	Children should always make their parents happy		1	2
124.	It is natural for a child to sometimes talk back		1	2
125.	You are never unfair to others		1	2
126.	Occasionally, you enjoy not having to take care of your child		1	2
127.	Children should always be neat		1	2
128.	You have a child who is slow		1	2
129.	A parent must use punishment if he wants to control a child's behavior		1	2
130.	Children should never cause trouble		1	2
131.	You usually punish your child when he/she is crying		1	2
132.	A child needs very strict rules		1	2
133.	Children should never go against their parents' orders		1	2
134.	You often feel better than others		1	2
135.	Children sometimes get on your nerves		1	2
136.	As a child you were often afraid		1	2
137.	Children should always be quiet and polite		1	2
138.	You are often upset and do not know why		1	2

139. Your daily work upsets you

FORM NC62.1 2/15/94 Page 9 of 10

	1 4	8	10 12	18 24	36
	Center Number Screening Number		Visit Month		Birth Number
				Agree	Disagree
140.	You sometimes fear that your children will not love you			1	2
141.	You have a good sex life			1	2
142.	You have read articles and books on how to raise children			1	2
143.	You often feel very alone			1	2
144.	People should not show anger			1	2
145.	You often feel alone			1	2
146.	You sometimes say bad words			1	2
147.	Right now, you are deeply in love			1	2
148.	Your family has many problems			1	2
149.	You never do anything that is bad for your health			1	2
150.	You are always happy with what you have			1	2
151.	Other people have made your life hard				2
	You laugh some almost every day				2
	You sometimes worry that your needs will not be met		•		2

154. You often feel afraid

155. You sometimes get silly

156. A person should keep his business to himself

157. You never raise your voice in anger

		1	4	8	10	12	18	24	36	
Center Number	Screening Number				Visit	Mon	th			Birth Num
P. A. a shild you were broom	rad assured by your	••					4	Agree	7	Disagree
3. As a child you were knocked around by your parents								1	ا	2
2. You sometimes think of y	ourself before others							1		2
). You always tell the truth								1		2
erviewer Response:										
. Rate how confident you fe	el that information reporte	d on this	form	is re	liable	and to	ruthfu	ıl.		
Not Confident	Somewhat (Confiden	t				Very	Con	fident	
1	2							3		
						_	-		-	

First

Last

Day

Month

Year

Appendix E

MLS form for BDI

FORM NC51.3 1/21/98 Page 1 of 4

THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL LIFESTYLES ON INFANT OUTCOMES 4 4.5 5 55 6 6.5 7

. Interviewer Prelimir	y Text and Response
Interviewer: Re	this statement to the respondent prior to their attempting this questionnaire
of statements. Ristatement in that week, including to a parent, but gene corresponds to you understand the which number you	has to do with your own feelings. On the questionnaire are groups of the group of statements in each question; then pick out the one oup which best describes the way you have been feeling this past ay. The statements refer to feelings in general—not just about being ally. Check the number to the left of the statements that a feelings. I will go over the first questions with you to make sure procedure. Please read the first group of statements and tell me would choose. (Would it be easier if I read the statements and you demember these are statements about your feelings.)
Interviewer Re	onse: . Primary Respondent
	onse: Primary Respondent Code of respondent
1. Relationship	Primary Respondent
1. Relationship	Code of respondent
Relationship Record hov	ode of respondent Primary Respondent IIII

Interview conducted by:			Date of Interview:				
	First	Last		Month	Day	Year	

		4	4.5	5	5.5	6	6.5	7	
Center Number	Screening Number				Visit				

BECK INVENTORY (BDI)

Interview o	r Self-Ass	essment
1.	1 2 3 4	I do not feel sad. I feel sad. I am sad all the time and I can't snap out of it. I am so sad or unhappy that I can't stand it.
2	3 4	I am not particularly discouraged about the future. I feel discouraged about the future. I feel I have nothing to look forward to. I feel that the future is hopeless and that things cannot improve.
3.	3 4	I do not feel like a failure. I feel I have failed more than the average person. As I look back on my life, all I can see is a lot of failures. I feel I am a complete failure as a person.
4.) 2 3 4	I get as much satisfaction out of things as I used to. I don't enjoy things the way I used to. I don't get real satisfaction out of anything any more. I am dissatisfied or bored with everything.
5.	1 2 3 4	I don't feel particularly guilty. I feel guilty a good part of the time. I feel quite guilty most of the time. I feel guilty all of the time.
6.	3 4	I don't feel I am being punished. I feel I may be punished. I expect to be punished. I feel I am being punished.
7.	2 3 4	I don't feel disappointed in myself. I am disappointed in myself. I am disgusted with myself. I hate myself.

	Center Number	Screening Number	Visit
8.	2 I am 3 I blar	t feel I am any worse that critical of myself for my w me myself all the time for m	eaknesses or mistakes. ny faults.
	1 blan	ne myself for everything be	ad that happens.
9.	2 hav	't have any thoughts of kill e thoughts of killing myself uld like to kill myself. uld kill myself if I had the c	f, but I would not carry them out.
10.	2 Cry	't cry any more than usual, more now than I used to, all the time now, d to be able to cry, but now	v I can't cry even though I want to.
11.	2 get 3 feel	no more irritated now than annoyed or irritated more e irritated all the time now. 't get irritated at all by the	
12.	2 I am	e not lost interest in other pless interested in other peo e lost most of my interest i e lost all of my interest in o	ple than I used to be. n other people.
13.	2 put 3 have	e decisions about as well a off making decisions more a greater difficulty in makin t make decisions at all any	than I used to. g decisions than before.
14.	2 lam	t feel I look any worse that worried that I am looking of	

make me look unattractive.

I believe that I look ugly.

•

FORM NC51.3 1/21/98 Page 4 of 4

	Page 4 of 4 Center Number Screening Number Visit
15.	I can work about as well as before. It takes an extra effort to get started at doing something. I have to push myself very hard to do anything. I can't do any work at all.
16.	I can sleep as well as usual. I don't sleep as well as I used to. I wake up 1-2 hours earlier than usual and find it hard to get back to sleep. I wake up several hours earlier than I used to and cannot get back to sleep
17.	I don't get more tired than usual. I get tired more easily than I used to. I get tired from doing almost anything. I am too tired to do anything.
18.	My appetite is no worse than usual. My appetite is not as good as it used to be. My appetite is much worse now. I have no appetite at all any more.
19.	I haven't lost much weight, if any, lately. I have lost more than 5 pounds. I have lost more than 10 pounds. I have lost more than 15 pounds.
19 a.	I am purposely trying to lose weight by eating less. Yes No
20.	I am no more worried about my health than usual. I am worried about physical problems such as aches and pains; or upset stomach; or constipation I am very worried about physical problems and it's hard to think of much else. I am so worried about my physical problems that I cannot think about anything else.
21.	I have not noticed any recent change in my interest in sex. I am less interested in sex than I used to be. I am much less interested in sex now. I have lost interest in sex completely.

Appendix F

MLS form for BSI

FORM NC49. 10/20/9 Page 1 of

		_								Page :
		1	4	8	10	12	18	24	36	
Center Number	Screening Number			. •	lisit d	lonth				Birth Number

BRIEF SYMPTOM INVENTORY (BSI)

I am going to read to you a list of problems and complaints that people sometimes have. Listen carefully, and select one of the numbered descriptions on the card that best describes HOW MUCH OF A PROBLEM THIS HAS BEEN FOR YOU DURING THE PAST 1 MONTH INCLUDING TODAY. If you don't understand the problem I am describing, please let me know. The card should have the following scale written on it: (3) A Little Bit Quite a Bit Extremely/A Whole Lot Not At All Moderately In the past 1 MONTH, how much were you bothered by: 1. Feeling nervous or shaky inside 0 2. Feeling faint or dizzy 0 2 3 3. The idea that someone else can control your thoughts 2 3 4. Feeling other people are to blame for most of your troubles 5. Trouble remembering things 0 6. Feeling easily annoyed or irritated 0 3 7. Pains in heart or chest 0 8. Feeling afraid in open spaces 9. Thoughts of ending your life 10. Feeling that most people cannot be trusted 11. Poor appetite 0 12. Feeling suddenly scared for no reason 0 13. Temper outbursts that you could not control 0 3 14. Feeling lonely even when you are with people 0 3 15. Feeling blocked in getting things done 0 3 16. Feeling lonely 0 2 3

0

2

3

17. Feeling blue

FORM NC49. 10/20/9 Page 2 of

	1 4 8	Page 2 d				
Center Number Screening Number			Birth Number			
(0) (1) (2) Not At All A Little Bit Moderately	(3) Quite a Bit		(4) Extrem	ely/A W	hole Lot	
In the past 1 MONTH, how much were you bothered by:						
18. Feeling no interest in things	0	1	2	3	4	
19. Feeling fearful	0	1	2	3	4	
20. Your feelings being easily hurt	0	1	2	3	4	
21. Feeling that people are unfriendly or dislike you	0	1	2	3	4	•
22. Feeling inferior to others	0	1	2	3	4	
23. Nausea or upset stomach	0	1	2	3	4	
 Feeling that you are watched or talked about by others 	0	1	2	3	4	
25. Trouble falling asleep	0	1	2	3	4	
26. Having to check and double-check what you do	0	1	2	3	4	
27. Trouble making decisions	0	1	2	3	4	
28. Feeling afraid to travel on buses, subways, or trains	0	1	2	3	4	
29. Trouble catching your breath	0	1	2	3	4	
30. Hot or cold spells	0	1	2	3	4	
 Having to avoid certain things, places or activities because they frighten you 	0	1	2	3	4	
32. Your mind going blank	0	İ	2	3	4	
33. Numbness or tingling in parts of your body	0	1	2	3	4	
34. The idea that you should be punished for your ains	0	1	2	3	4	
35. Feeling hopeless about the future	0	1	2	3	4	
36. Trouble concentrating	0	1	2	3	4	
37. Feeling weak in parts of your body	0	1	2	3	4	

1

2

38. Feeling tense or keyed up39. Thoughts of death or dying

THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL LIFESTYLES ON INFANT OUTCOMES FORM NC49. 10/20/9 Page 3 of 1 8 10 12 18 24 36 Visit Month Center Number Screening Number Birth Number (3) Quite a Bit (0) (4) A Little Bit Not At All Moderately Extremely/A Whole Lot In the past 1 MONTH, how much were you bothered by: 40. Having urges to beat, injure, or harm someone 1 41. Having urges to break or smash things 0 1 2 42. Feeling very self-conscious with others 0 2 1 43. Feeling uneasy in crowds 2 1 44. Never feeling close to another person 1 2 2 45. Attacks of terror or panic 46. Getting into frequent arguments 1 47. Feeling nervous when you are left alone 48. Other people not giving you credit for your achievements 1 49. Feeling so restless you couldn't sit still 2 1 50. Feeling worthless 1 2 3 51. Feeling that people will take advantage of you if 0 1 you let them 52. Feelings of guilt 0 53. The idea that something is wrong with your mind 0 2 3 Interviewer Response: 54. Rate bow confident you feel that information reported on this form is reliable and truthful. Not Confident Somewhat Confident Very Confident 1 2 3

Form completed by:			Date form completed:								
	First	Last	and Make and	Month	Day	Year					
					Day	1041	_				

Appendix G

MLS form for MSRI

FORM NC66.1 02/16/94 Page 1 of 2

					_			1	_		Page 1
		1	4	8	10	12	18	24	30	36	-
Center Number	Screening Number			,	isit N	fonth					Birth Numbe

MATERNAL SELF-REPORT INVENTORY

Instructions: This questionnaire is to be answered by the BIOLOGICAL MOTHER ONLY. Statements about "your baby" refer to the baby enrolled in the study. Try to isolate the mother from others in the home to conduct this interview.

In this questionnaire I am going to read statements that talk about feelings and attitudes that some mothers have. Please use the 5 point scale to choose the answer that comes the closest to how much you agree or disagree with the statement.

(1) Strongly Disagree			(4) Agree		Stron	(5) agiy Agre	æ	
You found the expe experiences you've		livery to be one of the most un	pleasant	1	2	3	4	5
2. You think that you a	are a good mother.			1	2	3	4	5
 You are sure that your baby. 	ou will continue to hav	e a close and warm relationsh	ip with	1	2	3	4	5
You are not sure of	your ability to help yo	ur baby learn new things.		1	2	3	4	5
. Looking forward to	having a baby gave yo	u more pleasure than actually	having one.	1	2	3	4	5
. You have real doubt	s about whether your l	baby is growing up normally.		1	2	3	4	5
You remember that	delivering your baby w	vas very frightening and unple	esant.	1	2	3	4	5
. You often worry the your baby.	t you may be forgetful	and cause something bad to h	appen to	1	2	3	4	5
. You are sure that yo	u will be able to work	out any normal problems with	your baby.	1	2	3	4	5
). You are worried tha	at you are not able to fi	gure out what your baby need	5.	1	2	3	4	5
. You worry about wi	bether or not your baby	v likes you.		1	2	3	4	5
2. You don't mind the	things you can't do sin	ce having this baby.		1	2	3	4	5
. You remember the d	delivery experience as	being very exciting.		1	2	3	4	5
. You are worried abo	out whether or not you	r baby is growing up normally		1	2	3	4	5
. You don't think that	your baby can love yo	u the way that you are.		1	2	3	4	5

FORM NC66.1 02/16/94 Page 2 of 2

	Center Number Screening	1 4	8 10 12 Visit Month	18 24	30	36	Birth N	age 2
s	(1) (2) trongly Disagree Disagree	(3) Neither Agree or Disagree	(4) Agree			(5) y Agrœ		
16.	It really makes you feel sad when you th	unk about all there is to do as	a mother.	1	2	3	4	:
17.	You worry that you will not know what	to do if your baby gets sick.		1	2	3	4	
18.	It is easy for you to know what your bab	y wants.		1	2	3	4	:
19.	You remember the whole experience of experiences of your life.	labor and delivery to be one o	f the best	1	2	3	4	
20.	You no longer are awkward and clumsy	in handling your baby.		1	2	3	4	
21.	You are sure that you will be able to teach	ch your beby new things.		1	2	3	4	
22.	You are sure that your baby will be strong	ng and healthy.		1	2	3	4	
∠3.	You feel that you do a good job taking co	are of your baby.		1	2	3	4	
24.	You are not sure that you know enough twhich he/she will have to learn.	to be able to teach your baby t	he many things	1	2	3	4	5
25.	You worry about being able to take care	of your baby's emotional need	ls.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	You are sure that your baby will love you	u very much.		1	2	3	4	5
			s reliable and truth ry Confident 3.	ūl.				
Fo	rm completed by:	Date form com		onth	Day	Year		

Appendix H

MLS form for IBQ

	THE EFFECTS OF MATERNA	FORM NC48 1/07/94 Page 1 of 9		
Center Number	Screening Number	Birth Number		
	e caretaker has spent the last weel	OR QUESTIONNAIRE (IBQ) k with the baby. If yes, read the questions as they		
baby. If yes, replace t		etaker has spent a recent week during the last month last week you spent with the baby. Do not completely during the previous month.		
		pen with young children. For example, did the ba Il read you some ways babies behave in that situat		

"Never" is used when you saw the baby in the situation but the baby never behaved the way I said. For example, if the baby had to wait for food but never cried loudly while waiting, choose (1) Never. If the baby sometimes cried loudly for food, choose (2) Some of the Time. If the baby cried loudly half the time, choose (3) About Half the Time. If the baby usually cried loudly when waiting for food, choose (4) Most of the Time. If the baby cried loudly all the time when waiting for food, choose (5) Always.

behavior I read, please tell me how often your baby did this during the last week (the past seven days) by choosing one

About Half the Time

Most of the Time

Always

of the numbers on the card. These numbers tell me how often you saw this behavior during the last week.

Some of the Time

Never

Section A. Feeding					
1. Did the baby ever have to wait for food or liquids during the last week?			ſ	Yes 1	No 2
Marie Lawrence Plant 1 1 0			•		
If yes, how often did the baby? a. cry loudly?	1	2	3	4	5
a. Cry loudly:	1	2	3	4	3
b. fuss a little?	1	2	3	4	5
c. stay quiet (not react)?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Do you usually see the baby during feeding?			[Yes 1	No 2
If yes, how often did the baby?					
a. wave arms?	1	2	3	4	5
b. squirm or kick?	1	2	3	4	5
c. lie or sit quietly?	1	2	3	4	5
d. fuss or cry when s/he had enough to eat?	1	2	3	4	5

THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL LIFESTYLES ON INFANT OUTCOMES FORM NC48.1 1/07/94 Page 2 of 9 8 10 12 18 24 36 Birth Number Center Number Visit Month Screening Number (1) (2) (3) (4) (5) Most of the Time Always Some of the Time About Half the Time Never 2 3. Was s/he ever given a food s/he didn't like? 1 If yes, a. did s/he fuss or cry when given that food? 1 2 5 Yes No 4. Was s/he given a new food? 2 If yes, bow often did the baby: 5 a. take it immediately? 2 b. reject if by spitting out, closing mouth, etc? 3 5 c. refuse it no matter how many times you tried? 2 3 5 Section B. Sleeping Where does the baby usually sleep at night? Interviewer: Substitute caretaker's response if other than bed in #7, 7a, 7b, 8d, 27, 27a, 27b 5. Are you normally there when the baby falls asleep at night? 2 If yes, before falling asleep at night during the last week, how often did the baby: a. fuss or cry? 2 3 5 No Yes 6. Do you usually see the baby before going to sleep for naps? 1 2 If yes, how often did the baby: a. cry or fuss before going to sleep for naps? 2 3 5 No 2 7. Do you usually see the baby asleep in his/her bed at night? If yes, how often did the baby: 5 a. toss about in the bed? 2 1 3 b. move from the middle to the end of the bed? 5 2 3 5 c. sleep in one position only? 2

THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL LIFESTYLES ON INFANT OUTCOMES FORM NC48.1 1/07/94 Page 3 of 9 36 10 12 18 24 Birth Number Center Number Visit Month Screening Number (5) (1) (2) (3) (4) Some of the Time About Half the Time Most of the Time Always Never No 1 2 8. Are you usually there when the baby wakes up after sleep? If yes, after sleeping, how often did the baby: a. fuss or cry immediately? 2 5 5 b. cry if someone didn't come within a few minutes? 3 c. coo and talk for periods of 5 minutes or longer? 2 3 5 2 3 5 d. play quietly in bed? Section C. Bathing and Dressing 2 9. During the last week, were you there while the baby was bathed and dressed? If yes, when being dressed or undressed, how often did the baby: a. wave his/her arms and kick? 2 5 b. squirm and/or try to roll away? 2 5 c. smile or laugh? 2 5 3 when put into the bath water, how often did the baby: d. smile? 2 5 3 5 e. laugh? 2 3 f. splash or kick? 5 2 3 g. turn body and/or squirm? 2 5 3 when his/her face was washed, how often did the baby: h. smile or laugh? 2 5 i. fuss or cry? 5 2 3 when his/her hair was being washed, bow often did the baby: j. smile or laugh? 2

2

5

k. fuss or cry?

THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL LIFESTYLES ON INFANT OUTCOMES FORM NC48.1 1/07/94 Page 4 of 9 12 18 24 36 4 8 10 Birth Number Center Number Visit Month Screening Number (1) (4) Never Some of the Time About Half the Time Most of the Time Always Section D. Play Yes 10. During the last week, did you see the baby look at pictures in books and/or magazines? 2 If yes, how often did the baby look at them: a. for 5 minutes or longer at a time? 1 2 5 2 3 5 b. for a few minutes at a time but not as long as 5 minutes? 1 No 11. During the last week, did you see the baby stare at a mobile, crib bumper, or picture? 1 2 If yes, how often did the baby stare at it for: a. 5 minutes or longer? 2 5 No 12. During the last week, did you see the baby play with a toy or object? 2 If yes, how often did the haby: a. play with it for 10 minutes or longer? 2 5 b. play with it for 5-10 minutes but not for more than 10 minutes? 2 3 5 c. Spend time just looking at playthings but not holding or 2 5 touching them? d. repeat the same movement with an object for 2 minutes or 2 5 longer (e.g. putting a block in a cup, kicking or hitting a mobile)? Yes No 13. During the last week, did you watch the baby play or play with him or her yourself? 1 2 If yes, how often did the baby: a. repeat the same sounds over and over again? 1 5 2 b. laugh aloud during play? 5 No Yes 14. Did something the baby was playing with have to be taken away? 2 If yes, how often did s/he: a. cry or show distress for more than 3 minutes? 5 1 2 3 b. cry or show distress but not longer than 3 minutes? 5 2 3

2

3

5

4

c. not care?

FORM NC48.1 1/07/94 Page 5 of 9

								1	4	8		10	12	18	24	36					
(Center Number Screening Number								•			Visit	Mon	th			Birth Number				
(1) Never		(2) Some o	f the T	ime		(3) Ab		(4) Ialf the Time Most of the Time								(5) Always					
15. Did	lyou see the ba	ıbv tickl	led in t	he <i>las</i>	ı wee	ĸ.												Yes	No 2		
	es, how often d	lid the b	aby:											1	2		3	4	5		
	b. cry or s	_				1?								1	2		3	4	5		
																		Yes	No		
	you see the ba	•		nd pi	ayfuli	y in t	he last	week	?									1	2		
пу	es, <u>how often d</u> a. smile?	nu me o	20V.											1	2		3	4	5		
	b. laugh?													1	2		3	4	5		
																		Yes	No		
	the baby play	-		ing th	ne lasi	weel	k?											1	2		
II ye	es, <u>how often d</u> a. smile?	id the b	aby:											1	2		3	4	5		
	b. laugh?													1	2		3	4	5		
Section E	E. Daily Activ	ities																			
																	,	Yes	No		
	ne <i>last week</i> , di um cleaner, etc	•	ver see	the b	aby r	espor	nd to a	loud	sound	(Ы	end	er, c	ar bac	kfires	i ,			1	2		
If ye	s, how often d													1	2		3	4	5		
	,													-				Yes	No		
19. Did	the baby see a	change	in a pa	rent o	or care	egive	r's app	earan	ce		-							1	2		
(new	glasses, face o	ream, n	-			_											- 1				
if ye	s, how often di a. cry or sl		tress?											ı	2		3	4	5		
																		Yes	No		
	ing the last wee	-	ou see	the b	aby w	ratch	TV?											1	2		
If ye	s, how often di a. look at i		minutes	or E	ore a	t a tir	ne?							1	2		3	4	5		
	b. look at i	t but no	t as los	ng as	5 min	utes?								1	2		3	4	5		

FORM NC48.1 1/07/94 Page 6 of 9

					1	4	8	10	12	18	24	36		_	_	
Cen	Center Number Screening Number								Mon	th		Birth Number				
(1) Never	(2) So:	me of the Time	(3) Abo	out Ha	If the	Time		(4) Mos	t of t	ne Tir	me		(5) Alv	vays		
														Yes	No	
	the last week, how often did	have you seen the	baby star	tle (ga	sp, th	row on	t art	ns)?						1	2	
n yes,		eing startled by so	mething?							1	2	:	3	4	5	
														Yes	No	
22. During	g the last week,	did you hold the b	saby?											1	2	
If yes,	how often did :	s/he: ill away or kick?								1	2		3	4	5	
														Yes	No	
23. During	the last week,	did you see the ba	by placed	on his	s/her	back?								1	2	
If yes,	how often did										_					
	a. fuss or pro	test?								1	2		3	4	5	
	b. smile or la	ugh?								1	2		3	4	5	
	c. lie still?									1	2		3	4	5	
	d. wave arms	and kick?								1	2		3	4	5	
	e. squirm and	or turn body?								1	2		3	4	5	
														Yes	No	
24. During	the last week,	did you see the bal	by want so	methi	ng?									1	2	
If yes,	how often did s				A						•		,			
	a. become ups	set when s/he could	not get v	vnat s/	ne wa	inted?				1	2		3	4	5	
		ms (crying, scream what s/he wanted?		red, e	tc.) w	hen s/h	ne			1	2		3	4	5	
														Yes	No	
25. During	the last week,	was the baby place	d in an in	fant se	at or	car sea	1?							1	2	
	how often did t															
	a. wave arms	and kick?								1	2		3	4	5	
	b. squirm and	turn body?								1	2		3	4	5	
	c. show distre	ss at first, then qui	et down?							1	2		3	4	5	
	d. lie or sit qu	ietly?								1	2		3	4	5	

FORM NC48.1 1/07/94 Page 7 of 9

			1.1					F	age 7 of
	Number Screening Nu	1 4		10 12	18	24 3	6	Diet N	
Center	Number Screening Nu	mber		isit Mon	ш			ין מזונם ר	lumber
(1) Never	(2) Some of the Time	(3) About Half the Tim		4) Most of t	he Tir	ne	(5) Alw	vays	
								Yes	No
26. Was the b	saby placed in other confining p	laces (play pen, swing, e	tc.)?					1	2
	w often did the baby:					•			
4.	protest (or become upset)?				1	2	3	4	5
								Yes	No
•	e last week, did you ever leave	the baby in the bed wher	s/he was	awake (night/	nap)?		1	2
	w often did s/he: seem angry (crying and fussing	g) when you left her/him	in the he	-n	1	2	3	4	5
•	seem angly (crying and ressm)	g) when you lest hel/min	ш шс ра	• •	•	_	,	•	,
b.	seem contented when left in th	e bed?			1	2	3	4	5
								Yes	No
28. During the	e last week, were you ever away	v from the baby and then	returned	when s/t	e was	awake?	Ī	1	2
-	en you came back, how often d						ı		
2.	smile or laugh?				1	2	3	4	5
								Yes	No
29. During the	e last week, did the baby meet a	new or unfamiliar nerso	n (store c	lerk			ſ	1	2
-	e, friend, family member they b		2 (5.5.0	,			L		لـــــا
-	v often did the baby:								
a.	cling to a parent or caregiver?				1	2	3	4	5
ь.	refuse to go to the stranger?				1	2	3	4	5
	h 4: 6					2			
C.	keep a distance from the strang	er?			1	2	3	4	5
d.	never act friendly or "warm up	" to the stranger?		,	1	2	3	4	5
e.	approach the stranger at once?				1	2	3	4	5
f.	smile or laugh?				1	2	3	4	5
		•						Vac	No
00 D :							Г	Yes	
	last week, was the baby introduced often did the baby:	uced to a dog or cat?					L	1	2
_	cry or show distress?				1	2	3	4	5
	smile or laugh?				1	2	2	4	5
0.	same or rangue				1	2	3	4	3
•	approach at once?				1	2	2	4	5

FORM NC48.1 1/07/94 Page 8 of 9

	7 [TT		1	4	8	10	12	18	24	36	Page 8 of 9
Center No	umber	Screening	Number				Birth Number						
(1) Never	(2) Som	e of the Time		(3) About	Half the	Time		(4) Mos	st of t	he Ti	me		(5) Always

Section F. Soothing Techniques

31. Have you tried any of the following soothing techniques in the last two weeks (or in a recent two week period)? If yes, how often did the method soothe the baby?

	. rocking	Yes 1	No 2	If yes,	1	2	3	4	5	
b	. holding	Yes 1	No 2	If yes,	1	2	3	4	5	
c	singing or talking	Yes 1	No 2	If yes,	1	2	3	4	5	
d	walking with the baby	Yes 1	No 2	If yes,	1	2	3	4	5	
€.	giving the baby a toy	Yes 1	No 2	If yes,	1	2	3	4	5	
f.	showing the baby something to look at	Yes 1	No 2	If yes,	1	2	3	4	5	
g.	patting or gently rubbing some part of the baby's body	Yes 1	No 2	If yes,	1	2	3	4	5	
h.	offering something to eat or drink	Yes 1	No 2	If yes,	1	2	3	4	5	

THE EFFECTS OF MATERNAL LIFESTYLES ON INFANT OUTCOMES										ŒS	FORM NC4 1/07 Page 9 o		
				1	4	8	10	12	18	24	36		
Center Number Screening Number				Visit Month							Birth Number		
(1) (2) Never Some of the Time			(3) About Half the Time			(4) Most of the Time				(5) Always			
_		security object	Yes 1	N	2	I	f yes,	1		2	3	4	5
j. changing baby's position			Yes	N	2	I	f yes,	1		2	3	4	5
k. other (p	lease specify)		Yes 1	N		1	f yes,	1		2	3	4	5
nterviewer Re		e feel that inform	ation reported	on this	form	is rel	iable a	nd tr	ıthful				
Not Confident 1			Somewhat C	Somewhat Confident 2			Very Confide 3				fident		
Form complete	г			ate form									7

First

Last

Month

Day

Year

Bibliography

- Abidin, R. (1983). <u>The Parenting Stress Index Manual</u>. Virginia: Pediatric Psychology Press.
- Ainsworth, M. (1984). Attachment. In N. Endler & J. McV. Hunt (Eds.), Personality and the Behavioral Disorders, 1. New York: Wiley.
- Ainsworth, M., Blehar, M., Waters, E., & Wall, S. (1978). <u>Patterns of attachment:</u> A psychological study of the strange situation. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ainsworth, M., & Witting, B. (1969). Attachment and exploratory behavior of one-year-olds in a strange situation. In B. Foss (Ed.), <u>Determinants of Infant Behavior</u>. London: Methuen.
- Baldwin, W., & Cain, V. (1980). The children of teenage parents. <u>Family Planning Perspectives</u>, 12, 34-43.
- Barratt, M., & Roach, M. (1995). Early interactive processes: Parenting by adolescent and adult single mothers. <u>Infant Behavior and Development</u>, 18, 97-109.
- Beck, A., Steer, R., & Garbin, M. (1988). Psychometric properties of the beck depression inventory: Twenty five years of evaluation. <u>Clinical Psychology Review</u>, 8, 77-100.
- Beck, A., Ward, C., Mendelson, M., Mock, J., & Erbaugh, J. (1961). An inventory for measuring depression. <u>Archives of General Psychiatry</u>, 4, 561-571.
- Becker, P. (1987). Sensitivity to infant development and behavior: A comparison of adolescent and adult single mothers. Research in Nursing Health, 10, 119-127.
- Belsky, J., Rovine, M., & Taylor, D. (1984). The Pennsylvania Infant and Family Development Project, 3: The origins of individual differences in infant-mother attachment: Maternal and infant contributions. Child Development, 55, 718-728.
- Bowlby, J. (1969). Attachment and loss: Vol. 1. Attachment. New York: Basic Books.
- Broussard, E. (1995). Infant attachment in a sample of adolescent mothers. <u>Child</u> Psychiatry and Human Development, 25, 211-219.
- Caldwell, B., & Bradley, R. (1984). <u>Administration manual (revised edition):</u> <u>Home observation for measurement of the environment.</u> Little Rock: University of Arkansas.

- Cicchetti, D. (1987). Developmental psychopathology in infancy: Illustration from the study of maltreated youngsters. <u>Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology</u>, <u>55</u>, 837-845.
 - Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical Power Analysis: A computer program. New York.
- Crittenden, P. (1985). Maltreated infants: Vulnerability and resilience. <u>Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry</u>, 26, 85-96.
- Culp, R., Appelbaum, M., Osofsky, J., & Levy, J. (1988). Adolescent and older mothers: Comparison between prenatal maternal variables and newborn interaction measures. <u>Infant Behavior and Development</u>, 11, 353-362.
- DeLissovoy, V. (1973). Child care by adolescent parents. Children Today, 35, 22-25.
- Desrogatis, L. (1993). <u>Brief Symptom Inventory (BSI): Administration, Scoring, and Procedures Manual, Third Edition</u>. Minneapolis, MN: National Computer Systems, Inc.
- Egeland, B., & Farber, E. (1984). Infant-mother attachment: Factors related to its development and changes over time. Child Development, 55, 753-771.
- Egeland, B., & Sroufe, L. A. (1981). Attachment and early maltreatment. Child Development, 52, 44-52.
- Elster, A., McAnarney, E., & Lamb, M. (1983). Parental behavior of adolescent mothers. Pediatrics, 71, 494-503.
- Erickson, M., Sroufe, A., & Egeland, B. (1985). The relationship between quality of attachment and behavior problems in a preschool high risk sample. In I. Bretherton & E. Waters (Eds.), Growing points of attachment theory and research. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 50 (1-2, Serial No. 209).
- Field, T. (1980). Interactions of preterm and term infants with their lower and middle class teenage and adult mothers. In T. Field, S. Goldberg, D. Stern, & A. Sostek (Eds.), <u>High Risk Infants and Children: Adult and Peer Interactions</u>. New York: Academic.
- Field, T., Widmayer, S., Stringer, S., & Ignatoff, E. (1980). Teenage, lower class, black mothers and their pre-term infants: An intervention and developmental follow-up. Child Development, 51, 426-436.

- Flanagan, P. (1998). Teen mothers: Countering the myths of dysfunction and developmental disruption. In C. Garcia Coll, J. Surrey, (Eds.), <u>Mothering Against the Odds: Diverse Voices of Contemporary Mothers</u>. New York: Guilford.
- Flanagan, P., Coppa, D., Riggs, S., & Alario, A. (1994). Communication behaviors of infants of teen mothers: An exploratory study. <u>Journal of Adolescent</u> Health, 15, 169-175.
- Flanagan, P., Garcia Coll, C., Andreozzi, L., & Riggs, S. (1995). Predicting maltreatment of children of teenage mothers. <u>Archives of Pediatric Adolescent Medicine</u>, 149, 451-455.
- Frodi, A., Grolnick, W., Bridges, L., & Berko, J. (1990). Infants of adolescent and adult mothers: Two indices of socioemotional development. <u>Adolescence</u>, 98, 363-374.
- Furstenberg, F., Brooks-Gunn, J., & Morgan, S. (1987). Adolescent mothers and their children later in life. Family Planning Perspectives, 19, 142-151.
- Garcia Coll, C., Hoffman, J., & Oh, W. (1987). The social ecology and early parenting of caucasian adolescent mothers. <u>Child Development</u>, 58, 955-963.
- Garcia Coll, C., Vohr, B., Hoffman, J., & Oh, W. (1986). Maternal and environmental factors affecting developmental outcome of infants of adolescent mothers. <u>Developmental and Behavioral Pediatrics</u>, 7, 230-236.
- Grossmann, K., Grossmann, K., Spangler, G., Suess, G., & Unzner, L. (1985). Maternal sensitivity and newborn's orientation responses as related to quality of attachment in northern Germany. In I. Bretherton & E. Waters (Eds.), Growing points of attachment theory and research. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 50 (1-2, Serial No. 209).
- Harwood, R. & Miller, J. (1991). Perceptions of attachment behavior: A comparison of anglo and puerto rican mothers. <u>Merrill Palmer Quarterly</u>, 37, 583-599.
- Harwood, R., Miller, J., & Irizarry, N. (1995). <u>Culture and Attachment:</u> <u>Perceptions of the Child in Context</u>. New York: Guilford.
- Hollingshead, A. (1975). <u>Four Factor Index of Social Status</u>. New Haven, CT: Yale University, Department of Sociology.
- Hubbs-Tait, L., Osofsky, J., Hann, D., & Culp, A. (1994). Predicting behavior problems and social competence in children of adolescent mothers. <u>Family Relations</u>, 43, 439-446.

- Hurlbut, N., Culp, A., Jambunathan, S., & Butler, P. (1997). Adolescent mother's self esteem and role identity and their relationship to parenting skills knowledge. Adolescence, 32, 639-655.
- Jones, F., Green, V., & Krauss, D. (1980). Maternal responsiveness of primiparous mothers during the postpartum period: Age differences. <u>Pediatrics</u>, 65, 579-584.
- Lamb, M., Hopps, K., & Elster, A. (1987). Strange situation behavior of infants with adolescent mothers. Infant Behavior and Development, 10, 39-48.
- Lamb, M., Thompson, R., Gardner, W., & Charnov, E. (Eds.). (1985). <u>Infant-Mother Attachment: The Origins and Developmental Significance of Individual</u> Differences in Strange Situation Behavior. New Jersey: Erlbaum.
- Lawrence, R., McAnarney, E., Aten, M., Iker, H., Baldwin, C., & Baldwin, A. (1981). Aggressive behaviors in young mothers: Markers of future morbidity? <u>Pediatric</u> Research, 15, 443.
- Levine, L., Garcia Coll, C., & Oh, W. (1985). Determinants of mother-infant interaction in adolescent mothers. Pediatrics, 75, 23-29.
- Main, M., & Cassidy, J. (1988). Categories of response to reunion with the parent at age six: Predictable from infant attachment classification and stable over a one-month period. Developmental Psychology, 24, 415-426.
- Main, M., & Solomon, J. (1990). Procedures for identifying infants as disorganized-disoriented during the Ainsworth Strange Situation. In M. Greenberg, D. Cicchetti, & E.M. Cummings (Eds.), <u>Attachment in the preschool years: Theory, research, and intervention</u> (pp. 121-160). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- McAnarney, E., Lawrence, R., & Atens, M. (1979). Premature parenthood a preliminary report of adolescent mothers and behavioral characteristics of their first born infants. Pediatric Research, 13, 328.
- McCullough, M., & Scherman, A. (1991). Adolescent pregnancy: Contributing factors and strategies for prevention. <u>Adolescence</u>, 26, 809-816.
- Miller, S. (1984). The relationship between adolescent childbearing and child maltreatment. Child Welfare, 63, 553-557.
- Milner, J. (1980). <u>The Child Abuse Potential Inventory manual (second edition)</u>. Illinois: Psytec.

- Parks, P., & Arndt, E. (1990). Differences between adolescent and adult mothers of infants. <u>Journal of Adolescent Health Care</u>, 11, 248-253.
- Radke-Yarrow, M., Cummings, E., Kuczynski, L., & Chapman, M. (1985). Patterns of attachment in two and three year olds in normal families and families with parental depression. Child Development, 56, 884-893.
- Ragozin, A., Basham, R., Crnic, K., Greenberg, M., & Robinson, N. (1982). Effects of maternal age on parenting role. <u>Developmental Psychology</u>, 18, 627-634.
- Rauch-Elnekave, H. (1994). Teenage motherhood: its relationship to undetected learning problems. Adolescence, 29, 91-104.
- Roosa, M., Fitzgerald, H., & Carlson, N. (1982). Teenage parenting and child development: A literature review. <u>Infant Mental Health Journal</u>, 3, 4-18.
- Roosa, M, & Vaughan, L. (1984). A comparison of teenage and older mothers with preschool children. Family Relations, 33, 259-265.
- Rothbart, M. (1981). Measurement of temperament in infancy. <u>Child Development</u>, 52, 569-578.
- Sandler, H., Vietze, P., & O'Connor, S. (1981). Obstetric and neonatal outcomes following intervention with pregnant teenagers. In K. Scott, T. Field, & E. Robertson (Eds.), <u>Teenage parents and their offspring</u>. New York: Grune & Stratton.
- Schneider_Rosen, K., & Cicchetti, D. (1984). The relationship between affect and cognition in maltreated infants: Quality of attachment and the development of visual self recognition. Child Development, 55, 648-658.
- Seifer, R., & Dickstein, S. (1993). Parental mental illness and infant development. In C. Zeanah (Ed.), <u>Handbook of Infant Mental Health</u> (pp.120-142). New York: Guilford.
- Seifer, R., Sameroff, A., Dickstein, S., Keitner, G., Miller, I., Rasmussen, S., & Hayden, L. (1996). Parental psychopathology, multiple contextual risks, and one year outcomes in children. Journal of Clinical Child Psychology, 25, 423-435.
- Seifer, R., & Schiller, M. (1995). The role of parenting sensitivity, infant temperament, and dyadic interaction in attachment theory and assessment. In E. Waters, B. E. Vaughn, G. Posada, & K. Kondo-Ikemura (Eds.), Caregiving, cultural, and cognitive perspectives on secure base behavior and working models: New growing points of attachment theory and research. Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development, 60 (Serial No. 244, pp. 146-174).

- Shapiro, J. & Mangelsdorf, S. (1994). The determinants of parenting competence in adolescent mothers. <u>Journal of Youth and Adolescence</u>, 23, 621-642.
- Shea & Tronick, E. (1984). The Maternal Self-Report Inventory: A research and clinical instrument for assessing maternal self esteem. In H. Fitzgerald, B. Lester, & M. Yogman, (Eds.), Theory and Research in Behavioral Pediatrics. Boston: Plenum.
- Spieker, S., & Booth, C. (1988). Maternal antecedents of attachment quality. In J. Belsky & T. Nezworski (Eds.), <u>Clinical implications of attachment</u> (pp. 300-323). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Teti, D., Gelfand, D., Messinger, D., & Isabella, R. (1995). Maternal depression and the quality of early attachment: An examination of infants, preschoolers, and their mothers. <u>Developmental Psychology</u>, 31, 364-376.
- Thompson, R., Lamb, M., & Estes, D. (1982). Stability of infant-mother attachment and its relationship to changing life circumstances in an unselected middle class sample. Child Development, 53, 144-148.
- Tronick, E. Z., Ricks, M., & Cohn, J. (1982). Maternal and infant affective exchange: Patterns of adaptation. In T. Field & A. Fogel (Eds.), <u>Emotion and Early Interaction</u>. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Turner, P. (1991). Relationship between attachment, gender, and behavior with peers in preschoolers. Child Development, 62, 1475-1488.
- Van Ijzendoorn, M., Goldberg, S., Kroonenberg, P., & Frenkel, O. (1992). The relative effects of maternal and child problems on the quality of attachment: A meta-analysis of attachment in clinical samples. <u>Child Development</u>, 63, 840-858.
- Van Ijzendoorn, M., & Kroonenberg, P. (1988). Cross cultural patterns of attachment: A meta-analysis of the strange situation. Child Development, 59, 147-156.
- Vaughn, B., Egeland, B., Sroufe, L. A., & Waters, E. (1979). Individual differences in infant-mother attachment at twelve and eighteen months: Stability and change in families under stress. <u>Child Development</u>, 50, 971-975.
- Vaughn, B., Lefever, G., Seifer, R., & Barglow, P. (1989). Attachment behavior, attachment security, and temperament during infancy. Child Development, 60, 728-737.
- Vaughn, B., Stevenson-Hinde, J., Waters, E., Kotsaftis, A., Lefever, G., Shouldice, A., Trudel, M., & Belsky, J. (1992). Attachment security and temperament in infancy and early childhood: Some conceptual clarifications. <u>Developmental Psychology</u>, 28, 463-473.

- Ward, M., & Carlson, E. (1995). Associations among adult attachment representations, maternal sensitivity, and infant mother attachment in a sample of adolescent mothers. <u>Child Development</u>, 66, 69-79.
- Waters, E. (1978). The reliability and stability of individual differences in infant-mother attachment. <u>Child Development</u>, 49, 483-494.
- Whitman, T., Borkowski, J., Schellenbach, C., & Nath, P. (1987). Predicting and understanding developmental delay of children of adolescent mothers: A multi-dimensional approach. American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 92, 40-56.
- Zuravin, S. (1988). Child maltreatment and teenage first births: A relationship mediated by chronic sociodemographic stress? American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 58, 91-103.