METHODOLOGICAL UNIVERSITY COLLEGE- GHANA

THE IMPACT OF BIOLOGICAL AND FOSTER PARENTING ON THE ADOLESCENTS’ PERSONALITY AND COGNITIVE PERFORMANCE: A CASE STUDY OF GHANA-LEBANON ISLAMIC SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL (GLISS) – GHANA.

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DECLARATION

I Asmau Ayub do hereby declare that except for references to other people’s work which I had cause to cite and duly acknowledge, this work is the result of my own research, and that this study has neither in part or a whole been presented for another degree elsewhere.

I also declare that neither my supervisors nor any other person but the author alone is responsible for all errors of commission and omission that may be found in this work.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this project work to the Almighty Allah who has always been there for me.

I also dedicate this to all my lecturers for the knowledge they have impacted to me, and to my supervisors, for their guidance and corrections throughout this project work.

I also dedicate this work to my husband Mr. Wasiu Yusuf and daughters (Alesha and Aaliyah) for their love and understanding.

Finally I dedicate this work to my parents, siblings, colleagues and all loved ones for their support in making this project work a success. God Bless You All!
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My greatest appreciation goes to the Almighty Allah for seeing me through this research. To the students and staff of Ghana-Lebanon Islamic Sec School for their cooperation during the time of this project work. I say a special thank you to my lecturer Mr Gladstone Abgakpe for his immense assistance, and finally to my supervisor’s Prof S.A Danquah and Rev. Dr. Daniel Bruce for their directions and guidance throughout the entire project.
**ABSTRACT**
Mental health and behavioural problems could be attributed to early childhood and the mother-child interactions. The study aimed at investigating what impact biological and foster parenting has on the adolescent’s personality, cognitive performance, self-esteem, depression and anxiety. A case study was adopted for this study and samples were selected on a randomized convenient sampling. A population of 200 students comprising 100 females and 100 males were studied of which 50 were of biological and 50 of foster parenting for both males and females. The population was drawn from the Ghana-Lebanon Islamic High School. The multivariate analysis, the Chi square and the independent t-test was used for the data analysis. Hypothesis that adolescents with biological parenting would have a higher score on cognitive performance than those with foster parenting is supported at α level of 0.05 significance. Differences also existed for various aspects of personality. Foster adolescents also showed to be more anxious than their counterparts raised by their biological parents. This reiterates the object relations theory which emphasizes interpersonal relationship primarily with mother and child. Further discussions are included in the main text of the thesis.
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CHAPTER ONE

1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The importance of parents to a child from infancy to adulthood cannot be over emphasized. Parents play diverse roles in nurturing and shaping the child. Thus parenting practices around the world share three major goals: ensuring children's health and safety, preparing children for life as productive adults and transmitting cultural values (APA, 2012). A high-quality parent-child relationship is critical for healthy development. Parents are gift to every individual, and thus there is often a special linkage between a child and parents. Parenting is thus a process of promoting and supporting the physical, emotional, social and intellectual development of a child from infancy to adulthood.

Parents and caregivers make sure children are healthy, safe, equipped with skills and resources to succeed as adults, and transmit basic cultural values to them. Parents and caregivers offer their children love, acceptance, appreciation, encouragement, and guidance. They provide the most intimate context for the nurturing and protection of children as they develop their personalities and identities and also as they mature physically, cognitively, emotionally, and socially. Although parenting is usually done by the biological parents of a child in question, sometimes other people either related by blood (aunties, uncles etc.) or (government, foster homes etc.) may also take up the responsibilities of parenting a child.

Foster parenting is a common practice all over the world, where children live with other persons known as foster parents for a period of time and are later sent back to their biological parents.
(IFCO, 2012). Foster parents usually provide food, shelter, love and protection to their foster child/children. Sometimes, these foster parents may have blood ties with the children and other times too they may not. Separating children from their biological parents may sometimes be very challenging for child, parent and foster parents. Many children may arrive in their foster homes scared and angry. Diffusing those feelings is important if attachment is to occur. Telling children in words they are safe and loved does not penetrate the armour of defenses with children who have heard it all before. It is not telling a child he or she is loved which will have the most impact. It is acting it out in joyous, yet intrusive ways, which will help parents get through the wall surrounding injured hearts.

In sub-Saharan Africa, families in rural areas send their children to be raised by their urban relatives, in order to provide the children access to a better education. At the same time, better educated urban workers could send money to their rural family. This also meant that the rural families could also more easily provide for the children that remained with them. While these ties have been thought of as being a bond between the families, more recent research has shown that it has – over time – weakened the rural families' welfare and the strength of the inter-family relationships.

The Ghanaian family system is predominantly an extended family system as compared to the nuclear family systems commonly with the western world (About A Child, 2012). Within this structure, children occupy a central place and are raised in close family group. It is common that responsibility for the social development of a child is shared by the members of the community. It is in this respect that it could be said that in the traditional system, there is hardly the illegitimate child. Even when parents are dead, a child would always have “parents”. Although
the mother has a fundamental responsibility for child upbringing and development, it is shared among all family members. There are therefore “several mothers to a child”.

Fostering in Ghana is closely tied to social customs such as kinship obligations and family ties rather than public intervention systems. It is not a problem in the Ghanaian context to temporarily accommodate children of other relatives. This practice is normal in the rural areas where child-fostering is an age-old tradition, and it is gradually gaining grounds in the urban centres also. It is perfectly normal for a grandmother to take part in the upbringing of a child, or for an uncle who has no child of his own to be sent a niece or a nephew, or a family friend to be sent with other children (V.Mazzucato, 2009). In terms of benefits, kinship care is believed to preserve continuing contact with family, siblings and the extended family network, to help maintain identity, to decrease trauma and distress of relocation and grief of separation from parents, to reduce the likelihood of multiple placements and to expand capacity for self-sufficiency, ongoing support throughout life, and that children and relatives provide mutual care and support (UNICEF, Child Protection Section 2009).

There are several factors for which reason children may be sent to foster parents, the traditional causes observed vary widely. They include illness, death, divorce, the parents’ separation, mutual help among family members, socialisation/education, and the general strengthening of family ties. For the societies involved, fostering is a characteristic of family systems, fitting in with patterns of family solidarity and the systems of rights and obligations.

In addition to reinforcing social bonds, this practice also appears to help maintain high fertility rates by more evenly spreading out the economic burden of child-upbringing. Whatever the reasons, fostering is a component in family structure and dynamics. Additionally, since the
institution of school appeared, enrolment has been a reason for child fostering and residential mobility. According to UNESCO (2003) EFA MONITORING REPORT, the extent of foster-child phenomenon among school-age children in West Africa is quite overwhelming. In Côte d’Ivoire, Ghana and Togo, approximately one child in four between the ages of 10-14 lives with neither parents: and for almost one child in five, both parents are alive but reside elsewhere. Additionally, children may be fostered because their biological parents have left their birth countries seeking for greener pastures abroad to support the family’s financial status.

According to the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the child, July 1979 (Monrovia-Liberia), the situation of most African children remains critical due to the unique factors of their socio-economic, cultural, traditional and developmental circumstances, natural disasters, armed conflict exploitation and hunger, and on account of the child’s physical and immaturity, he/she needs special safeguard and care. Recognizing that the child occupies a unique and privileged position in the African society and that the full and harmonious development of his personality, the child should grow up in a family environment in an atmosphere of happiness, love and understanding.

The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, the Ghanaian Law, International Foster Care Organisation, Guidelines for Foster Care and the State of Rhode Island, Department of Children, Youth and Families, Foster Care Regulations 1998 have all supported in one way or the other the African form of foster care, predominantly the kinship care.

The department of Social Welfare, in its Care Reform Initiative has also encouraged the system of foster care otherwise known as the kinship care. They have outlined the enormous benefits
that come with this system of child care. Notwithstanding the benefits, there are also some challenges that are cropping up with this system of care that needs attention.

Despite the numerous benefits that come with the Ghanaian family systems and children upbringing, there are other treats that may come along to the child/children raised under foster care for one reason or another whose biological parents are living. When children are sent to foster parents especially without their consent and approval, it is likely to have a detrimental effect on the child/children’s self-concept and their relationship with their parents and to themselves as well.

Adolescent undergoes dramatic changes. In addition to the biological changes of puberty, they experience cognitive changes that allow them to think more abstractly. According to Lerner & Spanier, (1980), the adolescence is a “period within the lifespan when most of a person’s biological, cognitive, psychological and social characteristics are changing from what is typically considered child-like to what is considered adult-like”. Adolescents become increasingly focused with peers, and as they do this they have more conflicts with parents. This period could also be a try-out period which may lead to a lifetime negative or positive consequence on the adolescent’s life. For both the adolescents and their parents, adolescence could be a time of excitement and of anxiety; of happiness and of troubles; of discovery and of bewilderment; and of breaks with the past and yet links with the future (Lerner & Spanier, 1980). Adolescence can be a confusing time for the adolescent experiencing this phase of life, for the parents who are nurturing the adolescents during his or her progression through this period, even for other adults charged with enhancing the development of youth during this period of life.
The adolescent’s personality development is not only about changes in traits but also about changes in other layers of self, such as the identity layer. Forming one’s identity is thought to be the key developmental task of adolescence, but profound changes in personality traits also occur in this period. Parents and caregivers during this time of the adolescents life may therefore have to play a more understanding and supportive role as they also allow for the child to be industrious.

The concept of personality arises from the fascinating spectrum of human individuality. We observe that people differ meaningfully in the ways they customarily think, feel and act. These distinctive behaviour patterns help define one’s identity as a person (Caspi & Roberts 2002). The concept of personality also rests on the observation that a given person seems to behave somewhat consistently over time and across different situations. From this perceived consistency comes the notion of personality traits that characterises an individual’s customary ways of responding to his or her world. Although only modest stability is found from childhood personality to adult personality, personality becomes more stable as we enter adulthood (Caspi & Roberts, 1999; Terraccianos 2006).

Personality refers to individual differences in characteristic patterns of thinking, feeling and behaviours that make a person unique. Personality arises from the individual and remains fairly consistent throughout life. Thus fundamentals of personality may include consistency in individual, psychological and physiological abilities, impact on behaviour and actions, and multiple interactions on how we display our thoughts, feelings and social interactions.
An individual’s personality is an aggregate composite of the decisions they have made throughout their life and the memory of the experiences to which these decisions lead. They are inherent natural, genetic, and environmental factors that contribute to the development of our personality. According to process of socialisation, “personality also colours our values, beliefs, and expectations (Caspi et al., 2006).

In as much as adolescents continually detach from parents and cling more towards their peers, the adolescents need their parent’s emotional support (Beckett, 2002). Parental support is critically important for adolescents in terms of emotional security and their ability to assert their independence during early adolescence. According to a study by Brendgen, Wanner, Morin & Vitaro (2005), problematic relationships with parents increase the possibility of a depressed mood during early adolescence. Crosnoe and Elder (2004) have also indicated in their work that parents play a role in terms of the child’s adjustment at school.
1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Francis, Last and Strauss (1987) in their study found that excessive distress on being separated from parents was prominent in many school children especially the adolescents. In Ghana, the most predominant family system is the extended family which mostly provides care and support to every member. Parents and caregiver’s have very significant roles to play in the lives of children. Foster care is an age old tradition in Ghana as it is viewed as a kinship obligation.

Quite common in the rural areas, it is now a common practice in the urban centers where children are being given out to other family relations and friends to live with to either serve their new foster family or for the purposes of being educated, and the likes.

Oppong, (1973) has indicated in his study on foster care in Ghana that fosterage knits the family together more closely- children get to know their relatives. It also involves childcare by experienced and mature relatives, rather than inexperienced parents, it spreads wealth through the family and finally that the services of fostering family in terms of performing tasks in the compound (for girls) or caring for livestock and running errands (for boys).

According to a 2003 UNESCO report, one out of every four Ghanaian child lives with neither parents and for one of every five children both parents are alive but reside elsewhere. Foster or biological, the outcomes of parenting to a large extent remain visible on child’s behaviour as it influences their personality. Literature reviewed indicates that most children in foster care may develop some form of emotional and behaviour problems. The question then is what form of emotional and behavioural problems do foster and biological parenting creates for adolescents? Additionally, how do foster and biological parenting influence adolescent’s cognitive development. This is the problem this research intends to grapple with.
1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
The primary purpose of this study is to find out the impact that living with biological parents and living with foster parents has on adolescent’s personality, cognitive performance, self-esteem, anxiety and depression.

1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY
The study is aimed at finding out the impact of biological and foster parenting on adolescents’ personality and cognitive intelligence. In light of this, the following objectives were explored:

1. Identify whether parenting (biological/foster) had any impact on adolescent’s personality, self-esteem, depression, anxiety and cognitive performance.
2. Find out reasons why some Ghanaian children are sent in foster care.
3. Find out emotional implications of children in foster care.
4. Find out the impact of biological and foster care on personality and cognitive performance.

1.5 RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY
Object relation theorists/attachment theorists have long studied the impact of maternal separation. This current study however studies and compares both biological and foster care to understand the extent of which biological or foster parenting impacts on the emotional, personality and cognitive intellectual ability. This study will therefore:

1. Contribute to the understanding of how foster care impacts on personality and intellectual performance.
2. Serve as experiential evidence to parents/caregivers to comprehend the outcomes of their parenting on the cognitive, emotions and behaviour of their wards.
3. And to make some recommendations based on evidence on the impact of foster care in Ghana on the emotions, behaviour and cognitive abilities.
CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.0 INTRODUCTION
Foster parenting in the Ghanaian society is an age old tradition widely acceptable by many. In this practice, children are made to leave their biological homes to live with their extended family relations or close family friends. In this chapter, I explore the theories of personality, the Object Relations theory, theory of parenting style and Cognitive intelligence theory. Additionally, I explore the work of various researcher’s which are in line with my study. Hypothesis that guided the study as well as operational definition of terms are also included in this chapter.

2.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK:

2.1.1 Psychodynamic theory of personality
The psychodynamic theory of personality is the first formal theory of personality advanced by Sigmund Freud in the early years of the 20th century, and it is the prototype of the psychodynamic approach. Psychodynamic theorists look for the causes of behaviour in the dynamic interplay of inner forces that often conflict with one another. Psychodynamic theory also focuses on unconscious determinants of behaviour. Sigmund Freud’s (1856-1939) psychoanalytic theory is one of the great intellectual contributions of modern times, and it continues to be.

According to Freud, personality is divided into three separate but interacting structures known as the id, ego, and superego. The id is the innermost core of the personality, the only structure present at birth, and the source of all psychic energy. It exists totally within the unconscious mind.
Freud described the id as “a chaos, a cauldron of seething excitations” (Freud, 1900/1965, p. 73). The id has no direct contact with reality and functions in a totally irrational manner, operating according to the pleasure principle, seeking immediate gratification or release, regardless of rational considerations and environmental realities. The id cannot directly satisfy itself by obtaining what it needs from the environment because it has no direct contact with the outer world. In the course of development, a new structure therefore develops known as the ego. The ego has direct contact with reality and functions primarily at a conscious level. It works with the reality principle which is the need to satisfy the demands of the id and reduce drives only in ways that will not lead to negative consequences. Freud wrote, “In popular language, we may say that the ego stands for reason and sanity, in contrast to the id which contains untamed passions” (Freud, 1900/1965, p. 238). The last personality structure to develop according to Freud and his psychodynamic theory of personality is the superego, the moral arm of the personality. The superego develops as a preschool-aged child learns the rules, customs and expectations of society. There are actually two parts to the superego: the ego ideal and the conscience. The ego ideal is a kind of measuring device. It is the sum of all the ideal and acceptable behaviour that a child has learned about from parents and others in the society. All behaviour is held up to this standard and judged by the second part of the superego, the conscience. The conscience is the part of the personality that makes people feel pride when they do the right thing and guilt, or moral anxiety when they do the wrong thing. It is not until the conscience develops that children have a sense of right and wrong.

The dynamics of personality involves a never-ending struggle between the instincts and drives in the id striving for release and counterforces generated by the ego and superego to contain them.
Observable behaviour often represents compromises between motives, needs, impulses, and defenses. When the ego confronts impulses that threaten to get out of control or is faced with dangers from the environment, anxiety results. Like physical pain, anxiety serves as a danger signal and motivates the ego to deal with the problem at hand. Understanding how anxiety develops from the psychodynamic perspective, this present study hypothesised that foster care children will record more anxiety than children with biological parents. Anxiety may be reduced through realistic coping behaviours or through the use of defense mechanisms if coping fails to work.

2.1.2 Humanistic theory of personality

This theory unlike the psychodynamic theory postulates that our behaviour is a response to our immediate conscious experience of self and environment (Kelly, 1955; Rogers, 1951). This emphasis on the primacy of immediate experience is known as phenomenology, of the past. These theorists also embrace a positive view that affirms the inherent dignity and goodness of the human spirit, as well as the individual’s creative potential and inborn striving toward personal growth. As a humanist, Carl Rogers (1902-1987) believed that the forces that direct behaviour are within us and that when they are not distorted or blocked by our environment, they can be trusted to direct us toward self-actualisation, the highest realisation of human potential. The central concept in Roger’s theory is the self, an organised, consistent set of perceptions of and beliefs about oneself (Rogers, 1959). Once formed, the self plays a powerful role in guiding our perceptions and directing our behaviour. The self thus has two facets: it is an object of perception (self-concept) and an internal entity that directs behaviour.
Rogers theorised that at the beginning of their lives, children cannot distinguish between themselves and their environment. As they interact with their world, children begin to distinguish between the “me” and the “not me”. The self-concept continues to develop in response to our life experiences, though many aspects of it remain quite stable over time. According to Rogers, the degree of congruence between self-concept and experience helps define one’s level of adjustment. The more rigid and inflexible people’s self-concept are the less open they will be to their experiences and the more maladjusted they will become. If there is a significant degree of incongruence between self and experience and if the experiences are forceful enough, the defenses used to deny and distort reality may collapse, resulting in extreme anxiety and a temporary disorganization of the self-concept. Just as Rogers explains, the researcher in this study assumed that children with biological parents would experience higher self-esteem compared to their counterparts in foster care. Foster care children as Rogers postulated in his theory are expected to experience a more rigid adjustment and conditional positive regard than children of biological care.

Additionally, Rogers believed that we are born with an innate need for positive regard for acceptance, sympathy, and love from others. Rogers viewed positive regard as essential for healthy development. Ideally, positive regard received from parents is unconditional, that is independent of how the child behaves. Unconditional positive regard communicates that the person is inherently worthy of love, regardless of accomplishments or behaviour. In contrast, conditional positive regard is dependent on how the child behaves; in the extreme case, love and acceptance are given to the child only when the child behaves as the parent want. A study by Avi Assor and coworkers (2004) suggest long-term negative consequences of this child-bearing
approach. College students who reported that their mothers and fathers used conditional regard in four domains (emotion control, prosocial behaviour, academics, and sports performance) also experienced up-and-down fluctuations in their self-esteem and perceived parental disapproval, and resented their parents as young adults.

Self-esteem, how positively or negatively we feel about ourselves is a very important aspect of personal well-being, happiness and adjustment (Brown, 1998; Diener, 2000). High self-esteem is related to many positive behaviours and life outcomes. People with high self-esteem are happier with their lives, have fewer interpersonal problems, achieve at a higher and more consistent level, are less susceptible to social pressure, and are more capable of forming satisfying love relationships (Brown, 1998). In contrast, people with low self-esteem are less likely to make themselves feel better when they experience negative mood in response to perceived failures in their lives (Heimpel, 2002). This may be one reason why they are prone to psychological problems such as anxiety and depression, to physical illness, and to poor social relationships and underachievement (Brown, 1998).

2.1.3 Trait factor theory of personality

People have described other’s traits from time immemorial, so have personality psychologists known as trait theorists. The goals of trait theorists are to describe the basic classes of behaviour that define personality, to devise ways of measuring individual differences in personality traits, and to use this measures to understand and predict a person’s behaviour (S. K. Ciccarelli & G.E. Meyer, 2009). Personality traits are relatively stable cognitive, emotional and behavioural characteristics of people that help establish their individual identities and distinguish them from
others. The trait theorists are particularly interested in identifying the behaviours that define a
specific trait. Gordon Allport combed the English dictionary and came up with about 18,000
words describing personal traits. Obviously it was impossible if not impractical to describe people
in terms of where they fall in an 18,000 dimensions (Allport & Odbert, 1936). The trait theorist’s
goal was then to condense all of these behavioural descriptors into a manageable number of
basic traits that can capture personal individuality.

Personality psychologists have taken two major approaches to discover and define personality
traits. One approach is to propose traits (“friendliness”, “dominance”) on the basis of words or
concepts in existing personality theories. This has been known as the lexical approach. Another
approach that is more systematic and uses the statistical tool is known as the factor analysis. The
factor analysis is used to identify cluster of behaviours that are highly correlated either positively
or negatively with one another, but not with behaviours in other clusters (S.K. et al, 2009). Such
behaviour clusters can be viewed as reflecting a basic dimension, or trait, on which people vary.
The pioneering trait theorists Raymond B. Cattell (1965) asked thousands of participants to rate
themselves on numerous behavioural characteristics; he also obtained ratings from people who
knew the participants well. When he subjected this mass of data to factor analysis, he identified
16 basic behaviour clusters which other trait researchers believed that Cattell’s 16 dimensions
are more than we need. Their factor analytic studies suggest that five higher-order factors, each
including several of Cattell’s more specific factors, are all that we need to capture the basic
structure of personality (McCrae & Costa, 2003). These theorists also propose that these “Big
Five” factors may be universal to the human species, for the same five factors have been found
consistently in trait ratings within diverse North American, Asian, Hispanic, and European
cultures (John & Srivastava, 1999; Trull & Geary, 1997). The Big Five factors acronym OCEAN is for **Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism**. Proponents of the **Five Factor Model** believed that when a person is placed at a specific point on each of these dimensions by means of psychological test, behaviour ratings, or direct observations of behaviour, the essence of his or her personality has been captured (McCrae & Costa, 2003).

As hypothesized by the proponent of the Big Five, the present research delves into identifying the different personality showed by children of foster care and those of biological parents as they are assessed using the Big Five Test. Trait theorists not only try to describe the basic structure of personality but also attempt to predict real-life behaviour on the basis of the person’s traits. Traits are viewed as enduring behavioural predisposition and thus they should show some degree of stability over time. Research literature has shown evidence for both stability and change (Caspi & Roberts, 1999; Helson et al., 2002). Some personality dimensions tend to be more stable than others. On the other hand, introversion/ extraversion, as well as more basic traits such as emotionality and activity level, tend to be quite stable from childhood into adulthood and across the adult years. Self-esteem also shows strong stability (Trzesniewski et al., 2003). On the other hand, both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies indicate that among the Big Five, Neuroticism, Openness, and Extraversion exhibit average declines from the late teens to the early 30s, whereas Agreeableness and Conscientiousness tend to increase (Costa & McCrae, 2002). Likewise, individuals can show developmental changes in many aspects of personality given influential life experiences, including involvement in counselling and psychotherapy.
2.1.4 Cognitive Intelligence Theory

Historically, two scientists with entirely different agendas played influential roles in the study and measurement of mental skills. The contributions of Sir Francis Galton and Alfred Binet set the stage for later attempts to measure intelligence and discover its causes. Psychologists have used two major approaches in the study of intelligence (Sternberg, 2003). The psychometric approach attempts to discover the kinds of mental competencies that underlie test performance. The cognitive process approach studies the specific thought processes that underlie those mental competencies. Psychometric theories of intelligence are statistically sophisticated ways of providing a map of the mind and describing how people differ from one another (Birney & Sternberg, 2006). What psychometric theories don’t explain is why people vary in these mental skills. Cognitive process theories explore the specific information-processing and cognitive processes that underlie intellectual ability (Robert Sternberg, 2004). Intelligence tests were originally developed to predict academic and other forms of achievement. They have done fairly well better than personality factors do (Kaia et al., 2007). Correlations of IQ with school grades are in the .60 range for high school students and in the .30 to .50 range for college students (Kuncel et al., 2004). In general, then people who score well on tests tend to do well academically.

The Raven’s Progressive Matrices originally developed by John C Raven (1936) is a test that measures cognitive intelligence. It is a nonverbal test that is frequently used in the educational settings. It is most common and popular test administered to groups ranging from 5 year old to elderly (Raven, 1962). It is made of 60 multiple choice questions, listed in order of difficulty. This format is designed to measure the test takers reasoning ability or (meaning-making) components of Spearman’s \( g \) which is often referred to as general intelligence. Raven test has been used
many cultures and measures a general mental capacity that is also measured by traditional intelligence tests in our culture (Jensen, 1998). Scores on the Raven correlate positively with measures of IQ derived from traditional tests, yet they seem to be more “culture fair”. In this current study the researcher looks at how cognitive intelligence of foster care children is affected compared to those with biological care. The Raven Matrices was used for this assessment as it is a cognitive intelligence test and therefore a good choice.

2.1.5 Other factors influencing cognitive development

In the current study, the researcher explores other factors other than the influence of either biological or foster care which may affect intelligence.

1. Sense organs: Sense organs are important because they receive stimuli from the environment. Their proper development helps in receiving correct stimuli and the correct concepts are formed. Defective sense organs collect defective stimuli and as a result wrong concepts can be formed and the cognitive development will not be perfect.

2. Intelligence: It has been seen that cognitive development of intelligent children is better. Children with low Intelligence Quotient are not able to receive stimuli from the environment properly, thus their cognitive development lags behind.

3. Heredity: Cognitive development may also be influenced by hereditary traits one gets from his parents. Their development may be similar to their parents’ cognitive development.

4. Maturation: As children become more matured they get more interactive with their environment. For a good cognitive development, interaction with environment is very
necessary. This the child does with the help of his mental and motor maturation. They help directly in the development of cognition.

5. Learning opportunities: Children develop their cognitive abilities through learning either formal/structured or unstructured form. The more opportunities they get the better is their cognition, because they are able to add to their mental capacities by learning through these opportunities.

6. Economic status: Economic state of the family also helps in the development of cognition. Children from better economic status get more opportunities and better training which help in cognitive development.

2.1.6 Psychoanalytic theory of object relations

Object relations theory is a contemporary psychodynamic theory that emphasises interpersonal relations, primarily in the family and especially between mother and child. “Object" actually means mother or caregiver. "Relations" refers to interpersonal relations and suggests the residues of past relationships that affect a person in the present. Object relations theorists are interested in inner images of the self and other and how they manifest themselves in interpersonal situations. The personalities in object relations theory include; Heinz Kohut (1913), Otto Kernberg (1928), Melanie Klein (1882), Anna Freud (1965), Margret Mahler and others. Object relationships are initially formed during early interactions with primary caregivers. The object often continues to exert a strong influence throughout life.

According to Melanie Klein (1952), she described babies who, as young as three weeks, interrupt their sucking to look at the mother's face, or, when perhaps two weeks older, respond to the
mother's voice and smile with a change of facial expression, as indicating that "gratification is as much related to the object which gives the food as to the food itself". Nevertheless, her theoretical account of the earliest period of development is much dominated by themes of food, orality, and the breast. The baby's first object relation is held to be to "the loved and hated-good and bad breast." She believed that the infant has an inborn striving for the breast: "the newborn infant unconsciously feels that an object of unique goodness exists, from which a maximal gratification could be obtained and that this object is the mother's breast.

Winnicott (2008) was not explicit about the origins of the infant-mother tie, but his discussion of mothering and the "good enough mother" make it clear that he did not give primary emphasis to orality. More important is physical holding, which he considered so basic a "form of loving" that he extended the term "holding" to cover the "total environmental provision" during the earliest period of development.

Fairbairn (1952) revised much of Freud’s model. He identified how people who were abused as children internalise that experience. Fairbairn’s “moral defense” is the tendency seen in survivors of abuse to take all the bad upon themselves, each believing he is morally bad so his caretaker can be regarded as good. This he referred to as the use of splitting as a defense to maintain an attachment relationship in an unsafe world. Additionally while emphasising orality, disavowed primary narcissism, and insisted that instinctual drives have objects from the beginning. Later he protested against the "assumption that man is not by nature a social animal" and explicitly pointed to ethology as demonstrating that even the newborn manifests object-seeking behaviour. Just as hypothesised by the psychodynamic object relations, this present study seeks
to understand and to add to the literature on what the result of interruption of mother-child relationship is on personality and cognitive development.

**2.1.7 Attachment theory**

Bowlby (1958, 1969), a psychoanalyst in the tradition of object relations theory, not only opposed the view of interpersonal ties as secondary acquisitions which have developed on the basis of gratification of primary drives, but urged an updating of psychoanalytic instinct theory to a view congruent with present-day biology. The infant-mother tie is based on a number of species-characteristic behavioural systems which, from the beginning, are activated or terminated by classes of stimuli most likely to emanate from other persons, and which facilitate proximity and interaction of infant and mother.

In the course of proposing a new approach to a child’s tie to his mother, a theory based on ethological principles, Bowlby (1958) thus sought to use the term attachment. John Bowlby (1907 - 1990) was a psychoanalyst (like Freud) and believed that mental health and behavioural problems could be attributed to early childhood. Bowlby’s evolutionary theory of attachment suggests that children come into the world biologically pre-programmed to form attachments with others, because this will help them to survive. Bowlby was very much influenced by *ethological theory* in general, but especially by Lorenz’s (1935) study of imprinting. Lorenz showed that attachment was innate (in young ducklings) and therefore has a survival value. Bowlby believed that attachment behaviours are instinctive and will be activated by any conditions that seem to threaten the achievement of proximity, such as separation, insecurity and fear.
Bowlby (1969, 1988) also postulated that the fear of strangers represents an important survival mechanism, built in by nature. Babies are born with the tendency to display certain innate behaviours (called social releasers) which help ensure proximity and contact with the mother or mother figure (e.g. crying, smiling, crawling, etc.) – these are species-specific behaviours.

During the evolution of the human species, it would have been the babies who stayed close to their mothers who would have survived to have children of their own and Bowlby hypothesized that **both infants and mothers have evolved a biological need to stay in contact with each other.** Relating to Bowlby’s hypothesis on maternal deprivation, this current study finds out the impact of attachment between children who are living with their biological parents. Additionally it also views the attachment between children under foster care whose parents are alive. The impact of these attachments is then reviewed on the personality and intellectual ability of the participants to comprehend the extent of interaction effect.

These attachment behaviours according to Bowlby initially function like fixed action patterns and all share the same function. The infant produces innate ‘social releaser’ behaviours such as crying and smiling that stimulate caregiving from adults. The determinant of attachment is not food but care and responsiveness. Bowlby suggested that a child would initially form only one attachment and that the attachment figure acted as a secure base for exploring the world. The attachment relationship acts as a prototype for all future social relationships, so disrupting it can have severe consequences.
2.1.8 Social learning theory of dependency and attachment

Social learning theorists have, for the most part, been concerned with dependency rather than with attachment, although recently some have shifted their interest from the generalised relationship implied in "dependency" to the specific relationship implied by "attachment." In either case it is assumed that the formation of the infant-mother tie can be accounted for by the same "general laws of behaviour" that comprehend all instances of learning-"laws" that vary somewhat from one theory to another. Social learning theorists fall roughly into two groups in regard to their views of dependency. The first group, like the ego psychologists, views dependency as an acquired or secondary drive. The second group presents "dependency" as a mere label to be applied to certain kinds of learned behaviour.

Those who view dependency as an acquired drive conceive of the infant's tie to his mother as originating in the fact that he is helplessly dependent on her for the gratification of his basic physiological needs-for the reduction of his primary drives. The crying and other behaviours characteristic of the baby when he is in a primary drive state are reinforced through his mother's nurturing actions-that is, strengthened and made more likely to occur again.

Meanwhile, the stimuli provided by the mother's face and presence become signals of gratification to come, and in this way the infant acquires a drive to be close to his mother and to seek her attention. This drive has been termed a "dependency drive." In the course of learning new behaviours are added to the cluster of dependency behaviours through which the drive is expressed. It is generally agreed that the behavioural expressions of a dependency drive come to include not only seeking physical contact and proximity but also seeking attention, help, and approval. Furthermore, through learning, the dependency drive becomes generalised so that it
is no longer directed solely toward the mother as the source of reinforcement but also toward other people, including father, teachers, other adults, siblings, and other children.

Beller (1955, 2008) provided a very explicit account of how the dependency drive develops:

The parent and his behaviour constitute a complex stimulus situation for the infant. Certain aspects of this situation may be assumed to occur regularly and repeatedly when the child experiences drive reduction, and therefore will acquire reward value by association. For instance, the infant experiences physical contact with the parent while it also experiences reduction of its hunger drive through food intake. Thus physical contact with the parent, and later with people generally, acquires properties similar to those of food. Just as in the case of food and hunger drive, the child will eventually manifest various kinds of behaviour which will be terminated by mere physical contact with the parent. Conversely, when such behaviour fails to lead to physical contact, frustration will set in. When this occurs, the child may be said to have developed a secondary drive for physical contact. Second as the child's sensory apparatus develops and he no longer needs to be held during feeding, proximity to the parent acquires properties similar to those for physical contact. Beller continued to describe how, in like manner, the child comes to acquire secondary drives for attention, help, and recognition (i.e., praise and approval). These secondary drives, Beller hypothesised, are related together as components of a general dependence drive. Thus just as this theory postulates, the present research first studies the parent-child relationship for biological and foster care. This is done using a parental authority questionnaire which participants responded to. Consequently they were assessed on personality including self-esteem, depression and anxiety, and cognitive intelligence to find out the impact of the mother-child relationship.
The present consensus among social learning theorists is that "dependency" is merely a convenient label for certain kinds of learned behaviour. This view is concerned neither with dependency as a generalised drive nor with dependency as a generalised trait. The shift in position parallels the gradual shift of emphasis in learning theory from the Hullian model to the Skinnerian operant conditioning model. This view considers that all social behaviour follows "the general laws of behaviour" and that one must proceed by examining the environmental stimuli which control behaviour. As Gewirtz (1961) said of the laws of operant conditioning: "These concepts can order the case under which (the components of) unconditioned responses of the child which occur (either reflex or `voluntary') are differentiated out and shaped (i.e. conditioned) by some of their immediate environmental consequences, which function as reinforcing stimuli."

The key concept for the instrumental conditioning group is the reinforcing stimulus-which is "any stimulus event which follows a response and affects certain of its aspects, e.g. its rate of emission, amplitude, or latency" (Gewirtz 1956). Positive reinforcers strengthen responses when they occur; negative reinforcers strengthen responses when they are removed. According to Bijou and Baer (1955), the essential function of the mother is to provide positive reinforcers to the infant and to remove negative ones. In doing these things, the mother herself, will, as a stimulus object, become discriminative for the two reinforcement procedures which strengthen operant behaviour. Thereby, she acquires positive reinforcing function, and lays the foundation for the further social development of her infant". Bijou and Baer offered a list of primary reinforcers, many of which are obviously related to basic physiological drives. In addition, they suggest that the mother provides tactual stimulation, stimulus change, and help to the infant in controlling his environment. None of this reinforcer's is offered as more "primary" or more important than
any other as a basis for the acquisition of dependency behaviour. Dependency is still linked to
the nurturing mother, to be sure, but nurturance is defined broadly and not narrowed either to
food giving or to tension reduction.

2.1.9 Baumrind theory of parenting styles
According to Diana Baumrind (1973), the differences in parenting style accounts for the way
children functioned socially, emotionally and cognitively (education.com, 2013). She identified
three styles of parenting mainly the authoritative, authoritarian and permissive.
The authoritative parenting style is considered the most “ideal” and it seems to produce children
with high levels of self-reliance and self-esteem, who are socially responsible, independent and
achievement-oriented. Authoritative parents set clear expectations and have high standards.
They monitor their children’s behaviour, use discipline based on reasoning and encourage their
children to make decisions and learn from their mistakes. They are also warm and nurturing,
treating their children with kindness, respect and affection (education.com, 2013).

Authoritarian parenting style tends to set rigid rules, demand obedience and use strategies such as the
withdrawal of love or approval to force a child to conform. These parents are more likely to use physical
punishment or verbal insults to elicit the desired behaviour. They lack the warmth of the authoritative
parent and may seem aloof to their children. Children with authoritarian parents may be well-behaved,
but they are also likely to be moody and anxious; they tend to be followers rather than leaders
(education.com, 2013).

Contrary to authoritarian and authoritative parenting style, the permissive style of parenting
according to Baumrind is in two folds, the permissive-indulgent and then the permissive-
uninvolved style of parenting. The permissive-indulgent parent is overflowing in parental warmth. This parent may be openly affectionate and loving but sets few or no limits, even when the child’s safety may be at risk. Permissive-indulgent parents make few demands for maturity or performance, and there are often no consequences for misbehaviour. Children of permissive parents often have problems with controlling their impulses; they may display immaturity and be reluctant to accept responsibility. On the other hand, permissive-uninvolved parenting is characterised by the same lack of limits or demands seen in the permissive-indulgence style.

However, the uninvolved parent displays little or no parental warmth. At its extreme, the uninvolved style can be neglectful or involve outright rejection of the child. Children with uninvolved parents are likely to have low levels of functioning in many areas. They tend to do poorly in school and, particularly as they move into high school, are more likely to exhibit delinquent behaviour and to be depressed (education.com, 2013).

2.1.10 Erik Erickson’s theory of psychosocial personality development
Much like Sigmund Freud, Erikson (1959) in his theory of psychosocial personality development believed that personality develops in a series of stages which is the eight psychosocial stages of personality development. The first four stages are; Trust versus Mistrust (0-1 year), Autonomy versus Shame/doubt (2-3 years), Initiative versus Guilt (3-6 years) and Industry versus Inferiority (7-12 years). The other four are; Identity versus Identity confusion (12-18 years), Intimacy versus Isolation (20-35 years), Generativity versus Stagnation (35-50 years) and Integrity versus Despair (50 years and beyond). Erikson's theory describes the impact of culture, society and social experiences across the whole lifespan and the conflict that takes place within the ego itself. One
of the main elements of his theory is the development of the ego identity which is the conscious sense of self which develops through social interactions.

According to Erikson, the ego develops as it successfully resolves crises that are distinctly social in nature. These involve establishing a sense of trust in others, developing a sense of identity in society, and helping the next generation prepare for the future.

Like Freud, Erikson assumes that a crisis occurs at each stage of development. For Erikson (1963), these crises are of a psychosocial in nature because they involve psychological needs of the individual (i.e. psycho) conflicting with the needs of society (i.e. social). According to the theory, successful completion of each stage results in a healthy personality and the acquisition of basic virtues. Basic virtues are characteristic strengths which the ego can use to resolve subsequent crises. Failure to successfully complete a stage can result in a reduced ability to complete further stages and therefore a more unhealthy personality and sense of self. These stages, however, can be resolved successfully at a later time.

The target participants used in this present study are adolescents and according to Erikson are at the ego identity verses role confusion stage. According to Bee (1992), by the end of this stage adolescents should have a reintegrated sense of self of what one wants to be or do, and of appropriate gender roles. The present study therefore hypothesised that those adolescents who live with their biological parents are more likely to have a successful transition of this stage of personality development than their counterparts in foster care whose parents are alive. This could otherwise be translated that those in foster care are at more risk of developing an
unhealthy personality and a sense of self. This may come as a result of interference from foster parents, the style of parenting experienced with their foster parents.

2.2 Review of related studies:
D. Conger and A. Rebeck (2001) conducted a study on how children’s foster care experiences affect their education. They used a combined database of school and child welfare records on more than 16000 foster children, they compared children's attendance rates, school transfers, 3rd through 8th grade test scores according to their foster care experiences, including length of stay in care, type of foster home, runaway history, placement history, reason for placement, and year of entry into care. They found out that while foster children have very poor attendance rates compared to students in the general population, several other groups of children improved their attendance after they entered foster care. The available evidence indicates that children in congregate care have lower educational attainment than children in more family-like settings. Additionally there are no such differences between children who are placed in foster homes with their relatives and those who are placed with strangers. Additionally, foster children and social workers report that transfers to new foster homes harm school outcomes.

In another study by E. Waters, S. Merrick, D. Treboux, J. Crowell and L. Abersheim (2003), sixty white middle-class infants were seen in the Ainsworth Strange Situation at 12 months of age; 50 of these participants (21 males, 29 females) were recontacted 20 years later and interviewed by using the Berkeley Adult Attachment Interview (AAI). The interviewers were blind to the
participants' Strange Situation classifications. Overall, 72% of the infants received the same secure versus insecure attachment classification in early adulthood, \( \kappa = .44, p < .001 \). As predicted by attachment theory, negative life events—defined as (1) loss of a parent, (2) parental divorce, (3) life-threatening illness of parent or child (e.g., diabetes, cancer, heart attack), (4) parental psychiatric disorder, and (5) physical or sexual abuse by a family member—were an important factor in change. Forty-four percent (8 of 18) of the infants whose mothers reported negative life events changed attachment classifications from infancy to early adulthood. Only 22% (7 of 32) of the infants whose mothers reported no such events changed classification, \( p < .05 \). These results support Bowlby's hypothesis that individual differences in attachment security can be stable across significant portions of the lifespan and yet remain open to revision in light of experience. The task now is to use a variety of research designs, measurement strategies, and study intervals to clarify the mechanisms underlying stability and change.

A paper written by Delilah Bruskas, RN,MN (May, 2008) indicated that most children in foster care, if not all, experience feelings of confusion, fear, apprehension of the unknown, loss, sadness, anxiety, and stress. Such feelings and experiences must be addressed and treated early to prevent or decrease poor developmental and mental health outcomes that ultimately affect a child's educational experience and the quality of adulthood. Systemic orientation for all children entering foster care is proposed as a preventive intervention that addresses associated experiences of children in foster care.
Other study by Wintre and Yaffe (2000) demonstrated that authoritative parenting based on Baumrind’s (1967, 1971) classifications of authoritative, authoritarian, and permissive parenting directly predicted social adjustment for male and female undergraduate students. Although parenting style was not directly implicated in the prediction of either perceived academic or personal and emotional adjustment, indirect effects were evident. Apparently, authoritative parents’ high levels of control, nurturance, age-appropriate expectations, and clarity of communication were beneficial in terms of participants’ perception of their adjustment to university.

A related study by Spitz (2013, studied institutionalised children in orphanages and hospitals. The institutions were poor quality and staff rarely interacted with the children. They found that a third of the institutionalised children died before the age of 1 year. The remainder failed to thrive and showed signs of ‘anaclitic depression’: apathy, withdrawal, and helplessness. These symptoms reversed if the period of maternal deprivation was less than three months but not if it was longer. Spitz compared children living in an orphanage with others living in a penal institution where they were cared for by their mothers. Although physical conditions in the orphanage were better, the children were ‘developmentally inferior’. Within two years 37% of the orphanage children were dead whereas 5 years later all the ‘prison’ children were still alive.

A study done by Stephanie, Esther, and Nayena, (2010) looked at the correlation between an individual’s attachments to his or her parents and how well he or she is able to make friends; this study specifically focused on college –age individuals. The study also looked at social anxiety as
the mediator. The result of this study showed that the more securely attached a person is to his or her parents; the easier it is for him or her to make friends.

In another related study by Bowlby (1944; 1946) he believed that the relationship between the infant and its mother during the first five years of life was most crucial to socialisation. He believed that disruption of this primary relationship could lead to a higher incidence of juvenile delinquency, emotional difficulties and antisocial behaviour. To support his hypothesis, he studied 44 adolescent juvenile delinquents in a child guidance clinic. The aim of the study was to investigate the effects of maternal deprivation on people in order to see whether the delinquents suffered deprivation.

According to the Maternal Deprivation Hypothesis, breaking the maternal bond with the child during the early stages of its life is likely to have serious effects on its intellectual, social and emotional development. Bowlby interviewed 44 adolescents who were referred to a child protection programme in London because of stealing- that is they were thieves. Bowlby selected another group of 44 children to act as ‘controls’. That is individuals referred to clinic because of emotional problems, but not yet committed any crimes. He interviewed the parents from both groups to state whether their children had experienced separation during the critical period and for how long.

The findings from this study were that more than half of the juvenile thieves had been separated from their mothers for longer than six months during their first five years. In the control group only two had had such a separation. He also found that several of the young thieves (32%) showed 'affectionless psychopathy' (they were not able to care about or feel affection for others). None of the control group was affectionless psychopaths. In a later paper, he reported
that 60 children who had spent time apart from their mothers in a tuberculosis sanatorium before the age of 4 showed lower achievement in school.

In yet another related study by Hodges and Tizard (1989), affectionless psychopaths show little concern for others and are unable to form relationships. Bowlby concluded that the reason for the anti-social behaviour and emotional problems in the first group was due to maternal deprivation. A comparison group was also studied. Hodges and Tizard compare their group of children with a matched group who had been with their families throughout their lives. Two comparison groups of children were established. One was drawn from the London area, and was made up of 16-year-old children who were matched one for one with the ex-institutional children on the basis of sex, position in the family, whether they were from one- or two-parent families, and the occupation of their family's main breadwinner. The other comparison group consisted a same-sex school friend (of the same age) for each of the ex-institutional children. An early finding of the study was that the children all received good physical care in the institutions, which also appeared to provide adequately for their cognitive development. However, staff turnover, and an explicit policy against allowing too strong an attachment to develop between children and the nurses who looked after them, had given the children little opportunity to form close, continuous relationships with an adult. This would seem to fit Bowlby's description of maternal deprivation.

Another study by Pears and Fisher (2005) examined a 3-5 year old maltreated foster children and a comparison group of same-aged, low-income children living with their biological families. It was revealed that being in foster care was significantly associated with worse emotion understanding and theory of mind capabilities.
Newman, Harrison, Dashiff and Davies, (2008), studied parenting styles on adolescent development. They concluded that adolescents raised in authoritative households consistently demonstrated higher protective and fewer risk behaviour than those from non-authoritative families.

In a study by Harden, (2004), on foster children and neurodevelopment, he concluded that foster children as compared to children raised by their biological parents have elevated levels of cortisol, a stress hormone. According to Harden, an elevated cortisol level can compromise the immune system. Most of the processes involved in healthy neurodevelopment are predicated upon the establishment of close nurturing relationships and environmental stimulations. Negative environmental influences during this critical period of brain development can have lifelong consequences.

Marsenich, 2002 also indicated in a study that Children in foster care have a higher incidence of posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD). In one study 60% of children in foster care who had experienced sexual abuse had PTSD, and 42% of those who had been physically abused fulfilled the PTSD criteria. PTSD was also found in 18% of the children who were not abused. These children may have developed PTSD due to witnessing violence in the home.

Additionally, a study conducted in Oregon and Washington state, the rate of PTSD in adults who were in foster care for one year between the ages of 14–18 was found to be higher than that of combat veterans, with 25 percent of those in the study meeting the diagnostic criteria as compared to 12–13 percent of Iraq war veterans and 15 percent of Vietnam war veterans, and a
rate of 4% in the general population. The recovery rate for foster home alumni was 28.2% as opposed to 47% in the general population.

According to Sandra, 2004, Children in foster care are also placed at greater risk educationally. In New York City, 3,026 foster care alumni were interviewed about their experiences in foster care. More than 40% stated that they did not start school immediately upon entering foster care, and more than 75% stated that they did not remain in their schools once placed in foster care. Nearly 65% reported that they transferred in the middle of the school year. More than half of the young people who responded reported that they did not feel prepared to support themselves after leaving foster care, and an equal number were not satisfied with the quality of education received while in foster care.

Sandra J. Altshulter examined whether the well-being of children in kinship foster care can be explained with factors that predict child well-being in non-related foster care. The study found that higher levels of child well-being were associated with the child’s birth mother. Lower levels of child well-being were associated with kinship caregiver’s, having identified problems that affect their ability to care for the child.

According to Thomas McDonalds, Reva Allen, Allex Westerfelt and Irving Piliavin in their study on assessing the long-term effects of foster care, they concluded in their findings that children raised in foster homes were more likely to drop out of school and to later take up vocations than those raised in a more biological family home.
Another study by Richard P. Barth interviewed 55 youth after leaving foster care. Findings were that this sample of former foster youth are often struggling with ill health, poor educations, severe housing problems, substance abuse, and criminal behaviour.

Timberlack and Verdieck (1987) assessed the psychosocial needs of youth about to leave foster care. They found out that one-quarter needed academic remediation and demonstrated psychosocial short fallings in such areas as self-control, managing home and school learning demands, and peer and adult relationships.

June in a study also compared the rates of mental health problems in children in foster care across three counties in California. A total of 267 children, ages 0-17 were assessed 2-4 months after entry into foster care using behavioural screening checklist, a measure of self-concept and in one county an adaptive behaviour survey. Results indicated that high rates of mental health problems across the three counties. Behaviour problems in the clinical and borderline range of the CBCL were observed at two and a half time the rate expected in a community population.

Rolleston, M.C (September 2010) studied on the Fosterage and Educational Access among the Dagomba of Savelugu-Nanton, in the Northern Region of Ghana and came up with the following findings. A modelling exercise using GLSS 5 data was undertaken to examine the prevalence of fosterage and the differences in ‘access chances’ for fostered children compared to biological children across all regions in Ghana. It found out that fostered children in the form of relatives other than biological children and grandchildren of the household head constitute around 10% of all children nationally and in the Northern Region, and that fostered children are significantly
less likely to have ever attended school in the presence of controls for household expenditure and other key factors, including adult education, in four regions of Ghana.

He also added that in the Northern region, a fostered child has a chance of ever attending school 19% lower than a biological son or daughter, other things being equal. This effect is approximately twice as large as the effect of a child being male as opposed to female, in a region where disparities in education are the largest in the country.

2.3 Statement of hypothesis:

1. Adolescents with biological parenting would perform better on cognitive test than their counterparts with foster parenting.

2. Adolescents with foster parenting will experience a higher level of depression than those with biological parenting.

3. Adolescents with foster parenting are more likely to experience a higher anxiety than those adolescents with biological parenting.

4. Adolescents with biological parenting would have a higher self-esteem as compared to those with foster parenting.

5. Adolescents with biological parenting would exhibit higher on positive personality traits than adolescents with foster parenting.

6. Female adolescents with biological parenting would show a higher self-esteem than female adolescents with foster parenting.
2.4 Operational definition of terms:

- **Biological parenting**: Child upbringing that is done solely by the child’s own biological parents.

- **Foster parenting**: Child upbringing that is done by other relatives of the child or family friends, which is not mandated by law.

- **Adolescents**: Any young adult male or female between the ages of 13 years to 19 years.

- **Personality**: A person’s cognitive, emotional and behavioural traits which are relatively stable over a period of time.

- **Cognitive performance**: Ability to reason logically, analyse and perform complex task on progressive matrices.
3.0 Introduction
This chapter aimed at investigating the impact of biological and foster parenting on the adolescents' personality and cognitive performance. Although many other research methodologies could be used to conduct this study, the researcher preferred to use the case study methodology. Case study methodology is a qualitative research technique, and as such it helps the researcher to collect desired responses from the respondents. The research design, population sample, instruments used, the procedure on how the study was conducted as well as how data collected was analysed are all inclusive in this chapter.

3.1 Research Design:
A correlational survey was used to conduct the study. Samples were randomly selected based on a convenient sampling non-probability base. This method was employed based on the availability and willingness of the respondents to participate in the study. The senior high form one, form two and form three classes were those who participated in the study.

3.2 Participants/sample and population:
The study was carried out at the Ghana-Lebanon Islamic High School (GLISS). The school is a private high school located in the capital city of Accra-circle opposite the Odorwna railways. The school has an approximate number of about 700 students made up of about 70% Ghanaians and 30% foreign students. Out of the 700 students, a sample size of 200 was used for the study comprising 100 males and 100 females between the ages of 13years and 19years. The samples
being used is stratified as the groups already existed and the researcher did not have to create the groups. Each participant had an equal chance of being part of the study. The independent variable is parenting and the dependent variables are personality and cognitive intelligence.

The sample size for the study was determined using Epi Info version 3.5.1 as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Population Size</th>
<th>700</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expected Frequency</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worst Acceptable Value</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Confidence Level</td>
<td>99%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estimated Representative Sample</td>
<td>178</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, to make room for inappropriate completion and non-return of the questionnaire, 22 (more than 10%) participants were added to round the figure up to 200.

### 3.3 Instruments/materials:

The present study made use of the following instruments and materials for information gathering to be analysed to obtain findings for the study.

**The Beck Depression Inventory (BDI):** Is a 21 item self-rated inventory with each item rated with a set of four possible answer choices of increasing intensity. Interval consistency for the BDI ranges from .73 to .92 with a mean of .86 (Beck, Steer, & Garbin, 1988). Similar reliabilities have been found for the 13- item short form. The BDI demonstrates high interval consistency with alpha coefficients of .86 & .81.

**The Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI):** Is a 21 question multiple-choice self-report inventory about how the subject has been feeling in the last month. Internal consistency (chronbach’s alpha) ranges from .92 to .94 for adults and test-retest (one week interval) reliability is .75. Concurrent
validity with the Hamilton Anxiety Rating Scale, Revised is .51; .58 for the state, .47 for the trait subscales of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory. The BAI has also shown to possess acceptable reliability and convergent and discriminant validity for both 14 to 18-year-olds and in-patients and out-patients.

**Big Five Personality Test:** It is a self-report inventory designed to measure the Big Five dimensions of *Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism*. It has 44 items total and consists of short phrases with relatively accessible vocabulary. Internal consistency reliability is .80.

**The Rosenberg Self Esteem Inventory:** It is a ten item Likert scale that measures global self-worth by measuring both positive and negative feelings about the self. Interval consistency was .77; minimum coefficient of reproducibility was at least .90. Test-retest reliability for two weeks interval was calculated at .85.

**The Raven Progressive Matrices (for adults):** It is a nonverbal test typically used in educational settings. It is the most common and popular test administered to groups ranging from 5 year to elderly. It is made of 60 multiple choice questions listed in order of difficulty. This format is designed to measure the test takers reasoning ability/“meaning-making” components of Spearman’s *g*, which is often referred to as general intelligence. In each test item the subject is asked to identify the missing element that completes a pattern. Many patterns are presented in the form of a 4×4, 3×3 or 2×2 matrix, giving the test its name. Internal consistency reliability ranges from .70 to .80.
The Parental Authority Questionnaire: It consists of a 30 statements about parents. Ten of the statements describe behaviours of the permissive parenting style, another ten measuring the authoritative parenting style and another ten measuring the authoritarian parenting style. Test re-test reliability estimates were $r=.92$ for authoritative, $r=.77$ for authoritarian, and $r=.77$ for permissive parenting.

3.4 Procedure:
A letter was first handed to the acting director of the school to grant the researcher official permit to undertake the study. After permission was granted, another letter was sent to the staff to inform them about the study and to gain their commitment when the study starts. A demographical questionnaire that included questions which required participants to state whether they were living with foster or biological parents was then sent round the classes for the student to fill-out. The information gathered helped the researcher to categorize the participants into two groups of biological parents and those with foster parents. A date was set and agreed on for the actual study.

A total of 250 responses from the demographic questionnaire were selected. The tests for the study were then administered to the 250 students. Participants were informed to return all the answered test and questionnaires within two days. A final 200 responses which was used for data analysis were selected comprising 100 participants who are living with their biological parents (50 females and 50 males) and the other 100 who are living with foster parents (50 females and 50 males).

All the participants were assured of utmost confidentiality and the will to decline from the study whenever they wanted.
3.5 Scoring of data:
In scoring the Parental Authority Questionnaire (PAQ), each question reflected particular kind of parenting style, and for each style, there are 10 questions. Questions 1,6,10,13,14,17,19,21,24 and 28 are those reflecting the permissive parenting style. Questions 2,3,7,9,12,16,18,25,26 and 29 are for the authoritarian parenting style whereas questions 4,5,8,11,15,20,22,23,27 and 30 are for authoritative parenting style. Each response was also on a 5 point likert type of scale with 5 being the strongest. All the answers were added and the total score for each style of parenting computed.

The personalities of the adolescents were investigated using the 44 items on the Big Five personality. Questions 1,6r,11,16,21r,26,31r, and 36 showed extraversion traits, 2r,7,12r,17,22,27r,32,37r and 42 showed agreeableness traits, 3,8r,13,18r,23r,28,33,38 and 43r represented conscientiousness, 4,9r,14,19,24r,29,34r and 39 are for neuroticism and 5,10,15,20,25,30,35r,40,41 and 44 reflected openness traits.

Depression was measured using the BDI on a 21 item self-rated inventory. A value of 0-3 is assigned for each answer and then the total score is compared to a key to determine the depression’s severity. A score of 0-9 indicates minimal depression, 10-18 for mild depression, 19-29 for moderate depression, and 30-63 for severe depression.

The BAI was used to measure anxiety which is a 21 multiple choice self-rated inventory. Each question has the same set of four possible answer choices, arranged in columns not at all- 0 points, mildly: it did not bother me much – 1 point, moderately: it was very unpleasant, but I could stand it – 2 points, and severely: I could barely stand it – 3 points. It has a maximum score of 63. A score of 0-3 is minimal, 8-15 mild, 16-25 moderate and 26-63 severe.
Self-esteem is measured using the 10 item likert scale Rosenberg self-esteem inventory. Items are answered on a four point scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree. For items 1, 2, 4, 6 & 7 strongly agree is 3, Agree is 2, Disagree 1 and strongly disagree is 0. For items 3, 5, 8, 9 & 10, strongly agree is 0, agree is 1, disagree is 2 and strongly disagree is 3. Scores range between 0-30. A score between 15 and 25 is within the normal range, below 15 indicates a low self-esteem.

Cognitive intelligence was measured using the Raven matrices for adults, a 60 multiple choice question. Each question is scored by one point.

3.6 Statistical analysis
The independent variable is parenting which is on two levels of (biological and foster), and the dependent variables are personality and cognitive intelligence. The multivariate analysis was used for the analysis of hypothesis 1, 2, 3 and 4. This is because in each of the four hypothesis, the same independent variables (Biological and Foster parenting) were measured against the dependent variables (intelligence, depression, anxiety and self-esteem) respectively. On the other hand, for hypothesis 5 the chi square was used whereas for hypothesis 6 the t-independent test was used for the analysis.
CHAPTER FOUR
PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

4.0 Introduction
This chapter reports the analysis of the data collected from the questionnaires completed by the students of GLISS regarding the impact of the style of parenting and their personality and cognitive intelligence. The version 16.0 of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (S.P.S.S) was used for the analysis of the data collected. Decision pertaining to rejecting Ho for all the hypothesis was set at 0.05 level of significance (α=0.05).

4.1 Response rate
A total 250 copies of the questionnaires were initially distributed out of which a final of 200 were received and computed, comprising 100 males and 100 females.

4.2 Demographic information
A form requesting for respondent’s demographic information was distributed. The form required from respondent’s the following information: gender, age, form/class and whether the respondent was living with either their biological or foster parents.
4.3 Graphical presentations

**Figure 1 - Gender/Type of Parenting**

![Gender/Type of Parenting](image1)

**Figure 2 - Parenting Style**

![Parenting Style](image2)
4.4 Test of Hypotheses

**HYPOTHESIS ONE**
Adolescents with biological parenting would perform better on cognitive test than their counterparts with foster parenting.

*Table 1 - MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS TABLE*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Biological (n=100)</th>
<th>Foster (n=100)</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive performance</td>
<td>65.9 22.02</td>
<td>59.4 23.05</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.144</td>
<td>.043*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>14.23 9.048</td>
<td>13.94 9.010</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.821ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>15.61 10.18</td>
<td>18.87 11.594</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.461</td>
<td>.036*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>18.71 3.78</td>
<td>18.45 4.08</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>.641ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td></td>
<td>198</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>29.42 11.61</td>
<td>26.85 11.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Source: field study, 2013

As shown in Table 1.1 above, the mean scores obtained on cognitive performance for adolescents with biological parent was 65.9 with a standard deviation of 22.02. The mean for the cognitive performance for adolescents with foster parents was 59.4 with a standard deviation of 23.05. From the multivariate analysis, Hypothesis one is supported and the result shows a significant difference between the two means; \textit{sig= 0.043} at \(\alpha=0.05\). This means that adolescents who are living with their biological parents performed better on the cognitive test (which used the Raven Progressive Matrices (adult version) than those who are in foster care. This result therefore supports the literature reviewed on cognitive development.

**HYPOTHESIS TWO**

Adolescents with foster parenting would experience a higher level of \textit{depression} than those with biological parenting.

\begin{table}[h]
\centering
\begin{tabular}{lcccccc}
\hline
Dependent Variables & Biological & Foster & & & & \\
 & (n=100) & (n=100) & df & F & Sig \\
M & S.D & M & S.D & & \\
Cognitive performance & 65.9 & 22.02 & 59.4 & 23.05 & 1 & 4.144 .043* \\
Depression & 14.23 & 9.048 & 13.94 & 9.010 & 1 & .052 .821ns \\
Anxiety & 15.61 & 10.18 & 18.87 & 11.594 & 1 & 4.461 .036* \\
Self-esteem & 18.71 & 3.78 & 18.45 & 4.08 & 1 & .218 .641ns \\
Error & & & & & & 198 \\
Total & 29.42 & 11.61 & 26.85 & 11.58 & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\end{table}
**Source: field study, 2013**

The above hypothesis is postulating that adolescents with foster parents are more likely to be depressed than their counterparts with biological parenting. From Table 1.2 depression among adolescents with foster parenting recorded a mean of 13.94 with a standard deviation of 9.010. Adolescents with biological parenting recorded a mean of 14.23 with a standard deviation of 9.048, sig= .821 at alpha level of (α=0.05). The outcome of this hypothesis is contrary to what the hypothesis had earlier postulated. This means that the level of depression shown by those with biological parents and those with foster parents were not so different. Several factors may have influenced this outcome, and some of these factors are discussed in chapter five under discussion of findings.

**HYPOTHESIS THREE**

Adolescents with foster parenting are more likely to experience a higher anxiety than adolescents with biological parenting.

**Table 3 - MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS TABLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Biological (n=100)</th>
<th>Foster (n=100)</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>S.D</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>65.9</td>
<td>22.02</td>
<td>59.4</td>
<td>23.05</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>14.23</td>
<td>9.048</td>
<td>13.94</td>
<td>9.010</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>15.61</td>
<td>10.18</td>
<td>18.87</td>
<td>11.594</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>18.71</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>18.45</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td></td>
<td>198</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>29.42</td>
<td>11.61</td>
<td>26.85</td>
<td>11.58</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Source: field study, 2013

This hypothesis intended to investigate whether there is a significant difference in the reported level of anxiety among adolescents with biological and foster parents. A review of the multivariate analysis Table 1.3 indicate that, anxiety reported by those with biological parenting recorded a mean of 15.61 and a standard deviation of 10.18 as compared to anxiety reported by those with foster parenting with also a mean of 18.87 and a standard deviation of 11.594. sig=.036*, at α= 0.05. Hypothesis three is therefore supported. This therefore indicates that adolescents in foster care are more anxious than those with their biological parents. Their anxiety may also be as a result of, but not limited to maternal deprivation as postulated by Bowlby (1958).

HYPOTHESIS FOUR
Adolescents with biological parenting would have a higher self-esteem as compared to those with foster parenting.

Table 4 - MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS TABLE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TABLE 1.4</th>
<th>MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS TABLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dependent</td>
<td>Biological</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>(n=100)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intelligence</td>
<td>65.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Depression</td>
<td>14.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anxiety</td>
<td>15.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>18.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1.4 above, shows the multivariate analysis for testing the hypothesis whether there is any significant difference in self-esteem of adolescents with biological parenting and their counterparts with foster parenting. The analysis indicated that the self-esteem of adolescents with biological parenting showed a mean of 18.71 with a standard deviation of 3.78, and the self-esteem of adolescents with foster parenting showed a mean of 18.45 and a standard deviation of 4.08. These were not significantly different (sig=.641. at 0.05 level of significance). Hypothesis four is therefore not supported. Therefore there is no significant difference between the self-esteem of adolescents with biological parenting and that of those with foster parenting.

**HYPOTHESIS FIVE**
Adolescents with biological parenting would exhibit higher traits on positive personality variables than adolescents with foster parenting.

**Table 5 - CHI SQUARE ANALYSIS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDEPENDENT VARIABLES</th>
<th>Biological</th>
<th>Foster</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This hypothesis claims that adolescents with biological parenting would exhibit higher traits on positive personality variables than those with foster parenting. A critical look at Table 1.5 indicates that the means for those with biological parenting on the personality variables were 78, 4, 11, 5, and 2 for openness, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism respectively. Those of foster parenting are 73, 3, 19, 4, and 1 for openness, extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, and neuroticism. At 0.05 level of significance, df 4, sig = 0.892. Overall, the differences recorded were not significant, but a look at the means for the biological and foster parenting shows that those with biological parent had more of positive personality traits than those in foster care. This result is discussed further in chapter five.

**HYPOTHESIS SIX**
Female adolescents with biological parenting would show a higher self-esteem than female adolescents with foster parenting.

*Table 6 - INDEPENDENT T-TEST ANALYSIS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent</th>
<th>Biological (females) (n=50)</th>
<th>Foster (females) (n=50)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variable</td>
<td>M  S.D</td>
<td>M  S.D</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-esteem</td>
<td>20 12.7</td>
<td>16 9.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: field study, 2013*
Following evidence in the literature review, the sixth hypothesis of the study seeks to find out whether a significant difference exist between foster cared females and biological cared females. The hypothesis stated that there will be a significant difference in the self-esteem of females with biological parenting and females with foster parenting. Females with biological parents recorded a mean of 20 and a standard deviation of 12.7, and females with foster parenting recorded a means of 16 with a standard deviation of 9.7. \[ t(98)=1.88, \text{ sig } = .063 \] at alpha level 0.05 significance. The result from this hypothesis was not supported.
CHAPTER FIVE
Discussion, Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

5.0 Discussions
Most children in foster go through negative emotions and this does not allow for proper understanding and adjustment at school. Foster children are constantly worried over what may be happening at their homes? What their parents are up to? especially where there is very little or no communication between them and their biological parents. The major findings from the study as shown by the statistical analysis are discussed as follows:

Hypothesis one postulated that adolescents with biological parenting would have a higher cognitive intelligence than their counterpart with foster parenting, this was supported.

Considerable evidence has indicated that children raised by their biological parents receive more warmth, disciplinary practice and communicate better (Newman & Dashiff 2008). Additionally, they tend to have better academic achievement and psychosocial development. They also receive more love, attention and support which they are later able to transfer to others and other aspects of their lives including school work.

This hypothesis is in relation to a study by Dylan Conger and Alison Rebeck in 2001, which is based on the Object Relation Theory. They studied how foster care experiences affects the children’s education (academic performance). The available evidence from their study indicated that
children in congregate (foster) care have lower educational attainment than children in more family-like settings.

Children who grow up with their biological parents are more relaxed, focused and are able to perform better at school. As much as they relate with their peers at school, they tend to rely comprehensively on their parents for love, support and encouragement whenever they are down. On the other hand, children who are away from home and in school are emotionally disturbed and anxious about what is happening back home. These feelings do not permit for successful assimilation of the subject content taught in school.

However, a study by Francis, Last & Strauss (1987) found that excessive distress on being separated from ones parents was prominent in many school children especially the adolescents.

Furthermore, foster children and social workers report that transfers to new foster homes harm school outcomes. In the work of Delilah (2008) indicated that most children in foster care, if not all experience feelings of confusion, fear, apprehension of the unknown, loss, sadness, anxiety, and stress. Such feelings if not addressed and treated early ultimately affect a child’s educational experience. Most children may arrive at their foster homes angry and scared. Diffusing these feelings is important if attachment is to occur. Moving away from a biological parent to foster parent to resettle for reasons such as schooling, financial difficulties and what have you requires that the child in question goes through a readjustment and orientation. However, very few parents really do consider the child’s view in deciding to be relocated to foster parents while the biological parents are living.
**Hypothesis two** stated that adolescents with foster parenting would have a higher depression than those with biological parenting. From the literature reviewed, it was found that a positive correlation existed between foster parenting and depression. Contrary to the researcher’s expectation, this hypothesis was not supported.

Although this hypothesis was not supported, there still appeared to be a difference between the levels of depression between the two groups. Those with foster parents scored a little above those with biological parents on depression. Generally, most of the participants for both group score within moderate to severe depression. Thus no conclusive evidence can be drawn to indicate that the participants may be clinically depressed.

Depression is normally a persistent sadness, lack of interest in ones surroundings, and loss of energy. This hypothesis is in line with a study conducted by Spitz (1965). He studied institutionalised children who were cared for by their mothers and compared them with orphanage children who were cared for by foster parents. Although the conditions in the orphanages were far better, most of the children in the orphanage showed negative emotions including depression. This he linked to be a result of maternal separation.

The result of this hypothesis could be ascribed to but not limited to the following factors; with regards to depression, most participants either with foster parents or biological parents scored within moderate to severe depression on the Becks Depression Inventory (BDI). On very few instances did some participants score severe depression.

Additionally, most of the participants of the study were at the time of data collection final year students who were getting ready for their external examinations. Most of these foster children
may rather be excited to write their final exams as it also meant that they were soon to reconnect with their biological parents after their exams. This joy and positive emotion may also have influenced the level of depression.

**Hypothesis three** stated that adolescents with foster parenting are more likely to experience a higher anxiety than adolescents with biological parenting. This hypothesis is supported indicating that foster children tend to be more anxious than those with biological parents.

Children who are brought up by their biological parents are able to express themselves better, are more sociable, less tensed and friendlier. This supports a study by Stephanie et al (2008) which looked at a correlation of individual’s attachments to their parents and their ability to make friends. The study also looked at social anxiety as a mediator. Results indicated that those who were securely attached to their parents were able to make friends easily, and they also showed less anxiety.

Unlike children who live with their own biological parents, most children in foster homes go through negative emotions and are often unable to freely express their desires and wishes. These unexpressed feelings with time may develop into fear and anxiety in them.

In addition, a result obtained from the present study also supports the work of Delilah et al (2008). They hypothesised that most children in foster care if not all experience feelings of anxiety and stress. They added that it is important for such feelings to be addressed and treated on time to prevent poor developmental and mental outcomes.

Bowlby (1998) also suggested that a child would initially form only one attachment and that the attachment figure acted as a secure base for exploring the world. The attachment relationship
acts as a prototype for all future social relationships, so disrupting it can have severe consequences. Deducing from theory, we can imply that disrupting a child’s stay away from their biological parents to a foster home without prior preparing the child’s mind ready to accept a change of environment could lead to several emotional problems including anxiety in the child.

**Hypothesis four** looked at the self-esteem of the two groups. The study hypothesised that children living with their biological parents will experience a higher self-esteem than those in foster care. This hypothesis was not supported as there was no significant difference in the self-esteem of the two groups.

Rosenberg (1979) defines self-esteem as “the wish to think well of oneself” (p.53). One of the problems of the developmental challenges facing adolescents in foster care is identity development and self–concept. Identity development is a process which begins early in life and continues through the life cycle (Conger, 1979; Kronger, 1989). It is usually shaped by influences such as the social environment including family relationships and past events. The adolescent’s phase of identity development includes the adolescent’s attempts to negotiate systems and determine how he/ she fits into society.

This hypothesis is in line with Carl Rogers’s humanistic theory of personality which hypothesised that our behaviour is a response to our immediate conscious experience of self and environment (Kelly, 1995; Rogers, 1951). A study by Sakinah & Stephan 1994) on the identity development and self-esteem of adolescents in foster care showed that those in foster care find it more challenging in their identity formation and in developing their self-esteem.
Despite the fact that children in foster care face the same developmental challenges as other children, their struggle for mastery take place within the context of an overwhelming emotional stress – separation from biological parents. For adolescents in foster care, progress towards achieving the developmental tasks of adolescents may be more challenging because of the additional stress of being separated from their birth families.

The hypothesis in this present study was not supported and this could be attributed to a number of factors; including the style of parenting. The kind of child upbringing that parents use for their wards has a positive correlation to their self-esteem. Out of the 200 participants, 91 of them had authoritative parenting, representing 46%. Out of this 20% were of children with foster parents and 26% were of biological parents. Children who grow up in authoritative homes are able to express themselves in the family and household issues; they play consultative roles, express love and warmth to others. Ability to have a high self-esteem means that the individual has self-worth, confident, sociable and assertive in communication.

**Hypothesis five** stated that adolescents with biological parenting would exhibit higher on positive personality traits than those with foster parenting. Overall, the hypothesis was not supported but an analysis of the various personality variables indicated a significant difference between the groups.

Openness was the most significant personality variable amongst the groups. Those with biological parents scored higher on openness trait than foster children. Individuals who score high on openness are mostly very open minded people, they have passion and interest in a wide
spectrum of things, and they show imaginative skills. They also love arts and beauty and are able to express their interest in a variety of field. People who are open-minded also tend to have good academic performance. On the flip side, those who are low on openness will usually have low or no interest in many activities. They are timid and very suspicious of people. As a result, they lack imaginative and creative skills. They may also tend to have a relatively low academic performance.

Extraversion was more prominent amongst those with biological parents than those with foster parents. This means that children who grow up with their birth parents are individuals with extraversion or extroverts and are “go getters”, they would usually say “let’s go for it” than to say “let’s leave it for another time”. They are assertive and express their feelings; they are also very energetic, adventurous and have more of positive emotions. They are warm and are able to show love and acceptance to others. Those who are introverts on the other hand, and in this study foster care children are unable to express their feelings openly, they have less energy and are more prone to negative emotions. They like to stay in their comfort zone and interact less with others.

In this study, adolescents with foster parents showed a relatively higher agreeableness trait compared to those with biological parents. This however means that, from the evidence of this study, foster care children are modest and less demanding. They are individuals who are warm and like to help others. They also happen to be more sympathetic with people as they tend to show more understanding than those of biological parenting. People with this trait also tend to be very forgiving and they also conform easily to new information. In addition, those who show
so much agreeableness may be also prone to have a low self-esteem. This is because they may be fast at accepting anything that comes their way even if they are not happy about it.

Conscientious people are those who are dutiful, organised, have self-discipline and thrive to achieve. They are not impulsive and they tend to be very efficient and effective at what they do. Those with biological parents scored higher than those with foster parents on this trait. People who are conscious are also able to focus more on their studies and will therefore achieve a higher academic performance. They are strong-willed and determined people who structure their lives tightly. This result thus corresponds to the hypothesis that those with biological parents will have higher academic performance than those with foster parents.

Neurotic behaviours characterise people who are emotionally unstable, generally hostile and show signs of depression. They are mostly shy and moody, and lack self-confidence. Individuals who are neurotic may develop anger and resilience towards other people. Although neuroticism was the least scored by participants among the personality variables, with just three out of the two hundred participants. Two of the participants are with their biological parents and one with foster parents. This result is rather contrary to the researchers expectations.

**Hypothesis six** postulated that female adolescents with biological parenting would show a higher self-esteem than female adolescents with foster parenting. Considering the findings of this research, self-esteem between the two groups was not significant. The outcome of this finding may also be but not limited to the following possible factors;

The style of parenting received by those from foster care and those cared for by their biological parents. Authoritative parenting style was 46% out of the 200 participants. Out of this 20% were
of foster parents and 26% were of biological parents. Authoritative parents are warmer and are able to communicate better with their wards. Consequently, children raised by authoritative parents tend to have a better perception of themselves and a better self-worth.

The nature and the environment of the school where the research was undertaken is also a contributing factor. Gliss is an international private school and it’s viewed as one of the best amongst its sister schools. Most students in the school are viewed as privileged and may be coming from average or a well-to-do home. Considering this background, it may be expected that most of the students would have a good perception and self-esteem of themselves. This may also be due to the grooming and orientation students receive at school.

From this study observing the impact of foster and biological parenting on the personality of adolescents and their cognitive intelligence, it becomes obvious that cognitive performance and our personalities are significantly influenced by the sort of parenting we receive, be it with our biological parents or foster. Thus being extrovert or introvert, neurotic or emotionally stable, conscientious or careless, agreeableness or antagonistic and openness or closeness to ideas and experience, the relationships between us and parents/caregivers will have a lasting impression on our being. However, universal underlying process in object relations theory, attachment theory and the social learning theory of dependency all view the disruption of the mother and child relationship as having a detrimental effect on the future relationship of the child.
5.1 Summary of Findings
The hypotheses examined in this study were to help investigate whether or not there is any impact on the cognitive intelligence and personality of adolescents who are with biological parents and those with foster parents. At the end of the study, adolescents with biological parents performed better than their counterparts with foster parents on cognitive performance using the Raven Matrices Test. This result affirms the work of Conger and Rebeck (2001) who studied how children foster care experiences affect their education. They concluded in their study that children in foster care have lower educational attainment than those in more family-like settings. In the work of Delilah et al (May, 2008) they indicated that most children in foster care, if not all experience feelings of confusion, fear, apprehension of the unknown, loss, sadness, anxiety, and stress. Such feelings if not addressed and treated early ultimately affect a child’s educational experience. In the present study, the anxiety, depression and self-esteem of the two groups were also investigated. Adolescents with foster parents showed a higher level of anxiety as has been indicated in the works of Delilah et al (2008). This anxiety could have had a direct manifestation on their cognitive performance. Thus the results produced.

The groups were assessed on the Big Five Personality (Openness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness and Neuroticism). Although differences existed between the five personality variables amongst the two groups, it was not statistically significant. The adolescents with biological parenting proved to have more positive personality traits than their counterparts with foster parenting. Depression and self-esteem did not also prove significant amongst the two groups; the style of parenting received by the two groups could be attributed to this result. The
most dominant parenting style for both groups was Authoritative where there is at least some form of negotiation between parents/caregivers and their wards. A positive correlation therefore existed between the personality assessments and the level of depression and self-esteem revealed. The most prevailing personality variable for the two groups is the Openness trait. Individuals who score higher on this trait tend to have imaginative skills, love art, are open to experience and new ideas, have excitable feelings and having unconventional values.

5.2 Conclusion

This study was aimed at understanding the underlying factors that impact on the cognitive performance and the personality of adolescents that are raised by their biological parents and those that are raised by their foster parents. The study tested a number of hypotheses and came out with the following conclusions:

A significant difference existed in the level of cognitive performance, Adolescents with biological parents performed better at the cognitive test than the adolescents with foster parents.

Additionally, the level of anxiety using the Beck Anxiety Inventory was also measured between the two groups. Adolescents raised by foster parents showed to be more anxious that the adolescents raised by their biological parents.

Overall on the Big Five personality, adolescents with biological parents tend to score a little above those with foster parents on positive personality scales. Statistically, this was not significant.
5.3 Recommendations

Further recommendations are that;

1. Parents and caretakers must acknowledge the impact of their decisions to transfer children under their care to other temporary or permanent foster homes. These children need to be adequately prepared and oriented ahead of time. It is also very necessary that the biological parents or caregivers for whom the child had already formed bond or attachments with one’s alive keep constant and regular contact with the child while they are with foster parents.

2. Parent should acknowledge the fact that long term separation from their children could create negative emotions such as anxiety in the children. As a result, it is pertinent to keep in contact with children once the biological parents are alive.

3. Additionally, educators, teacher’s and guidance counsellors in schools should acknowledge that although not all, most children living in foster homes may have some forms of special need with regards to their academics. It is in light of this that these children need some extra vigilance and care to make up for what they are losing from their biological parents. This may help in the children’s educational needs and general wellbeing.
References


Diseth, A. (2003), personality and approaches to learning as predictors of academic achievement. *European Journal of personality*, 143-155


Helson, R., (2002). Personality change over 40 years of adulthood. *Journal of Social psychology*: 83(3) 752-66


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APPENDICES

Appendix 1 (The Big Five Personality Test)

Instructions

On the following pages, there are phrases describing people's behaviours. Please use the rating scale below to describe how accurately each statement describes you. Describe yourself as you honestly see yourself, your responses will be kept in absolute confidence.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I see myself as someone who</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither Agree/Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Is talkative</td>
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<td>2. Tends to find fault with others</td>
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<td>3. Does a thorough job</td>
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<td>4. Is depressed, sad</td>
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<td>5. Is original, comes up with new ideas</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Is reserved</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Is helpful and unselfish with others</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Can be somewhat careless</td>
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<td>9. Is relaxed, handles stress well</td>
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<td>10. Is curious about many different things</td>
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<td>11. Is full of energy</td>
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<td>12. Starts quarrels with others</td>
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<td>13. Is a reliable worker</td>
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<td>14. Can be tense</td>
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<td>15. Is ingenious, a deep thinker</td>
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<td>16. Generates a lot of enthusiasm</td>
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</table>
17. Has a forgiving nature
18. Tends to be disorganized

19. Worries a lot

20. Has an active imagination
21. Tends to be quiet
22. Is generally trusting
23. Tends to be lazy
24. Is emotionally stable, not easily upset
25. Is inventive
26. Has an assertive personality
27. Can be cold and aloof
28. Perseveres until the task is finished
29. Can be moody

30. Values artistic, aesthetic experiences
31. Is sometimes shy, inhibited
32. Is considerate and kind to almost everyone
33. Does things efficiently
34. Remains calm in tense situations
35. Prefers work that is routine
36. Is outgoing, sociable
37. Is sometimes rude to others
38. Makes plans and follows through with them
39. Gets nervous easily
40. Likes to reflect, play with ideas
41. Has few artistic interests
42. Likes to cooperate with others
43. Is easily distracted
44. Is sophisticated in art, music or literature

**Test Scoring**

**THE BIG FIVE PERSONALITY**

- **Extraversion:** qstn no. 1, 6r, 11, 16, 21r, 26, 31r, 36
- **Agreeableness:** qstn no. 2r, 7, 12r, 17, 22, 27r, 32, 37r, 42
- **Conscientiousness:** qstn no. 3, 8r, 13, 18r, 23r, 28, 33, 38, 43r
- **Neuroticism:** qstn no. 4, 9r, 14, 19, 24r, 29, 34r, 39
- **Openness:** qstn no. 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35r, 40, 41r, 44

**Appendix 2 (Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale)**

Name:....................................................

Date:....................................................  >> Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale

**INSTRUCTIONS:** Below is a list of some common symptom. Please read each item in the list carefully and indicate how much you have experienced each symptom during the past few weeks, including today. Then mark the box that corresponds to the response appropriate to you.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with</td>
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<td>others.</td>
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<td>2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.</td>
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<td>3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.</td>
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<td>4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.</td>
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<td>5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.</td>
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<td>6. I take a positive attitude toward myself.</td>
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<td>7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.</td>
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<td>8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.</td>
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<td>9. I certainly feel useless at times.</td>
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<td>10. At times I think I am no good at all.</td>
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</table>

Your score on the Rosenberg self-esteem scale is: 0.

Scores are calculated as follows:

- For items 1, 2, 4, 6, and 7:
Strongly agree = 3
Agree = 2
Disagree = 1
Strongly disagree = 0

- For items 3, 5, 8, 9, and 10 (which are reversed in valence):
  
  Strongly agree = 0
  Agree = 1
  Disagree = 2
  Strongly disagree = 3

The scale ranges from 0-30. Scores between 15 and 25 are within normal range; scores below 15 suggest low self-esteem.
Appendix 3 (RAVEN PROGRESSIVE MATRICES)

Name:........................................................................... Age:..............................

Date:............................................................................ Gender:..............................

RAVEN PROGRESSIVE MATRICES

INSTRUCTIONS: Please study and carefully consider which of the following will best complete the image.

1.

![Image of a grid with a white arrow pointing to the right]

![Options for completing the grid]

2.
3.

4
20

![Diagram]

21

![Diagram]
30

31
50

51
**Appendix 4 (Parental Authority Questionnaire)**

**Parental Authority Questionnaire**

This questionnaire is designed to solicit information for a study on the role of parenting styles on self esteem of adolescents. Your contribution to this research through candid completion of this questionnaire is very much appreciated. Confidentiality is assured and information provided would be used strictly for academic purpose.

Thank you.

**Section A (Demography)**

1. Age:.............................................................
2. Name............................................................
3. Sex: Male                                      Female

**Section B**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. While I was growing up my parents felt that in a well-run home the children should have their way in the family as often as parents do.</td>
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<td>2. Even if their children did not agree with them, my parents felt it was for our own good if we were forced to conform to what they thought was right.</td>
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<td>3. Whenever my parents told me to do something as I was growing up, they expected me to do it immediately without asking any questions.</td>
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<td>4. As I was growing up once family policy has been established, my parents discussed the reasoning behind the policy with children in the house.</td>
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<td>5. My parents have always encouraged me verbal give and take whenever I have felt family rules and restrictions are unreasonable.</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. My parents always felt that what children need is to be free to make up their own minds and to do what they want to do, even if this does not agree with what their parents might want.</td>
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<td>7. As I was growing up my parents did not allow me to question any decision they had made.</td>
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<td>8. As I was growing up my parents directed the activities and decisions of the children in the family through reasoning and discipline.</td>
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<td>9. My pants have always felt that force should be used by parents in order to get their children to behave the way they are supposed to.</td>
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<td>10. As I was growing up my parents did not feel that I needed to obey rules and regulations of behavior simply because authority had established them.</td>
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<td>11. As I was growing up I knew what my parents expected of me in my family, but I also feel free to discuss those expectations with my mother/father when I felt they were unreasonable.</td>
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<td>12. My parents felt that wise parents should teach their children early just who is the boss in the family.</td>
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</table>
13. As I was growing up my parents seldom expectations and guidelines for my behavior.

14. Most of the time as I was growing up, my parents did what the children in the family wanted when making decisions.

15. As children in my family were growing up my parents constantly gave us direction and guidance in rational objective ways.

16. As I was growing up my parents would get upset when I tried to disagree with them.

17. My parents feel that most problems in society would be solved if parents would not restrict their children’s activities, decisions, and desires as they are growing up.

18. As I was growing up my parents let me know what behaviours they expected of me, and if I did not meet those expectations, they punish me.

19. As I was growing up my parents allow me to decide most things for myself without a lot of directions from them.

20. As I was growing up my parents took the children’s opinion into consideration when making family decisions, but they would not decide for something simply because the children wanted it.

21. My parents did not view themselves as responsible for directing and guiding my behaviour as I was growing up.

22. My parents had clear standards for the children in our home as I was growing up, but they were willing to adjust those standards to the needs of each individual child in the family.

23. My parent gave me directions for my behaviour and activities as I was growing up and expected me to follow their direction, but they were willing to listen to my concerns and to discuss that direction with me.

24. As I was growing up my parents allowed me to form my own point of view on family matters and they generally allowed me to decide for myself what I was going to do.

25. My parents have always felt that most problems in society would be solved if we could get parents to strictly and forcibly deal with their children when they do not do what they are supposed to as they are growing up.

26. As I was growing up my parents often told me what exactly they wanted me to do and how they expected me to do it.

27. As I was growing up my parents gave me clear directions for my behaviour and activities, but they also understood when I disagree with them.

28. As I was growing up my parents did not direct the behaviour, activities and desires of the children in my family.

29. As I was growing up I knew what my parents expected of me in the family and they insisted that I conform to those expectations simply out of respect for their authority.

30. As I was growing up, if my parents made a decision in the family that hurt me, they were willing to discuss that decision with me and to admit it if they had made a mistake.
### SCORING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERMISSIVE</th>
<th>AUTHORITARIAN</th>
<th>AUTHORITATIVE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Answer</td>
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