

**THE IMPACT OF PARENTAL AND PEER ATTACHMENT ON
AGGRESSIVE BEHAVIOR OF ADOLESCENTS**



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Chapter I**INTRODUCTION**

The definition of attachment is a long-term psychological relation between people. Attachment is defined as an early-life, reciprocal bond between a child and a carer. All elements of development, including neurological, physical, social bond emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and are profoundly and permanently impacted by this interaction. (Bowlby, 1969).

Attachment increases the likelihood that the baby will survive by keeping him or her close to the mother. There are hundreds of years of history about the concept of infant's emotional attachment to the caregiver based on the anxiety display by the infants and toddlers when they are separated from the caregiver (Bowlby, 1969). Both the psychoanalytic and behavioral perspective assumes that human infants make affectionate ties with the caregiver, for example parents who fulfill the infant's primary needs like food, become associated with the positive feeling. This can be explained with the classical conditioning as food is an unconditioned stimulus (reinforcer) which is paired with the presence of caregiver, resulting in the association of positive feeling with the caregiver (Wenar & Kerig, 2007).

Certain characteristics of attachment affect the strengths of the parent's child interaction. Four major characteristics of parental attachments are as follows.

For a child, the care giver is a safe haven, if care giver provide comfort, soothing and emotional refueling when the child feels threaten or afraid.

Care giver provides help along with secure and dependable base for the child, so that child can explore the world and learn new things.

If the child feels safety and security when close to their care giver, this will result in the maintenance of proximity, nearness or closeness between the child and care giver.

Also child will share his/her problems and emotions with the care giver. The child will grow agitated and distressed if they feel cut off from the care giver. (Bowlby, 1969).

One of the famous experiments of imprinting is used to explain the innate tendency of attachment. In those experiments, it was found that if graylag geese took care after hatching they would take the caring person like a parental bird. Even when they were adult, they would prefer that person on the other graylag geese. There is a critical time after birth during which the attachment develops with the primary care giver otherwise healthy attachment with parents doesn't develop (Loren, 1937 cited in Cardoso & Sabatini, 2001).

In order to show the potent impact of love, Harlow (1960) conducted a number of contentious experiments. The basic assumption was that human and non-human primates are alike in their need for a care giver who fully fills their needs promptly, appropriately and reliably for secure attachments. If there are any disturbances in these things, it will lead to insecurity, and anxiousness and disturb in forming romantic relationships in adulthood. In one of his experiments young rhesus monkeys were removed from their natural's mothers few days after birth. Then they were raised by two different types of mother, one made up of soft terry cloths mother who does not provide the food and other made of wire which provides food to baby through bottle. When compared to their wire mother, baby monkeys were shown to spend more time with the soft terry cloth mother. This shows that comfort provided by the caregiver is most important in the development of affection response or attachment than providing food (Harlow, 1958 & Wagner, 2008).

In a different experiment, either the surrogate mother was there or she was not, the baby rhesus monkeys were free to explore a room. It was found that the monkey will explore the room more safely when the mother is around, but when the mother is absent, the monkey does not explore the room and is shocked, shouted, and cries. Though they aid in understanding child development, Harlow's studies were criticised as immoral and horrifyingly brutal. (Wagner, 2008).

First to propose ⁵⁴ the concept of attachment, Bowlby defined it as a "lasting psychological connection ^{between} humans." When children get separated from their carers, they usually experience separation anxiety and anguish. Bowlby was interested in understanding this. ³¹ Early behavioural theories claimed that attachment is simply a learned tendency. These perspectives suggest that feeding interactions between the child and carer are ultimately what lead to attachment. The children become attached to the carer because they offer them food and nourishment. (Bowlby, 1969).

Bowlby noted that when youngsters were taken from their primary carers, not even feedings could lessen their distress. He said ²⁰ that attachment, was characterized by different behavioral and motivational patterns.

In order to feel reassured and cared for when they are scared, kids will gravitate towards being close to their primary care giver.

Bowlby's original work was considerably expanded upon by a psychologist. The pronounced behavioral impacts of attachment were made clear by the "Strange Situation" study. ¹⁴ Children between the ages of 12 and 18 months responded in the study, and researchers observed how they reacted when they were temporarily separated from their moms and then brought back together. (Ainsworth, 1970). Ainsworth identified three main types of attachment based on the answers the

researchers noticed: secure attachment, ambivalent-insecure attachment, and avoidant-insecure attachment. According to their study, it was later found that a fourth attachment style was created by researchers known as disorganized-insecure attachment. (Main and Solomon, 1986)

Since then, numerous research has confirmed Ainsworth's attachment theories and shown that these theories have an effect on behaviors as we age.

In longitudinal research, involving 60 infant, Rudolph Schaffer and Peggy Emerson examined the number of attachment bonds that develop. The newborns were observed throughout their early life were observed every four weeks, and then again at 18 months. There were four unique phases of attachment based on Schaffer and Emerson's observations including: Infants do not exhibit any special attachment to a particular carer throughout the pre-attachment stage, which lasts from birth to three months. Baby's positive reactions urge the carer to stay close, and the baby's signals, including as crying and fussing, naturally draw the caregiver's to give attention. Infants first exhibit uncritical attachment between the ages of six and seven weeks, when they start to demonstrate preferences for their primary and secondary carers. Infants start to feel more assured that the carer will attend to their requirements throughout this stage. Even though they will still accept care from others, as they get closer to seven months old, they get better at telling known people apart from unknowns. Additionally, they react positively to the main carer. Discriminatory affixing Infants display a strong attachment and preference for one particular person at this stage, which lasts from around seven to eleven months of age. When pulled from their primary attachment figure, separation anxiety makes them protest, while stranger anxiety makes them act uneasy around strangers. Beyond the primary attachment figure, children start developing strong emotional attachments with other carers after nine months of age. Frequently, the father, older siblings, and

grandparents are included in this.²⁶ Although this process may appear simple, a number of factors, such as the following, might affect how and when attachments form.

- The chance to form an attachment: Children who do not have a primary carer,⁵ such as those raised in orphanages, may not be able to build the necessary level of trust to do so.
- High-quality caregiving: Carers' rapid and consistent responses are an essential component of attachment because they teach kids that they can depend on the individuals who are in charge⁴³ of taking care of them. This is an essential component.

There are four types of attachment patterns, such as:

Secure attachment: When carers are removed from their charge, secure attachment is characterized by sadness and happiness. As you may recall, these kids trust and feel able to rely on their adult carers. Although the youngster may be distressed when the adult leaves, he or she is reassured that the parent or carer will come back. Securely linked kids will turn to adults for solace when they're scared. These kids are at ease approaching their parent or carer for consolation and assurance since they know they would offer it.

Ambivalent attachment: When a parent departs, ambivalent attachment children typically experience severe distress.⁶⁹ An estimated 7 to 15 percent of children in the US have this attachment pattern, making it very unusual. According to research, inadequate maternal presence is the cause of ambivalent attachment. These kids can't rely on their mother (or carer) to be there for them when they need something.²⁴

Avoidant attachment: avoiding a connection Kids that have an avoidant attachment are likely to avoid their parents or other carers.²⁴ These kids won't choose between a carer and a total stranger when given the option. According to research, distinct attachments may be the outcome of abusive

or uncaring carers. ⁵ Children who are disciplined for asking for aid from a carer will learn to decline assistance in the future.

Disorganized attachment: Children with a scattered connection frequently exhibit a confusing combination of behavior and may appear lost, perplexed, or confused. Children may try to avoid or resist their parents. According to some experts, carers' uneven behavior and the absence of a distinct attachments are likely related. ⁴⁵ In such circumstances, parents could act as a source of anxiety as well as comfort which will cause chaotic conduct.

Authoritative parenting: These parents are very picky and considerate. They communicate well with their children's parents. Gleiman, Reisberg, and Gross (2007) claim that strict parents assign laborious jobs, accept adult behaviour, and create and enforce norms of conduct for their kids. According to Baumrind (1967), authoritative parents are considerate of their kids' needs, refrain from using harsh punishment, and communicate with them in a loving and caring way. They support children's viewpoints and promote independence. When their own children reach adulthood, many parents place fewer restrictions on them. Secure attachment style is related to this parenting approach.

Authoritarian parenting: ¹⁰ Parents who choose this technique have severe rules for their kids regarding what they may and cannot say and do. Children are not permitted to discuss the rules they have established. They believe that since it is their command, the kids should follow it without protest. ¹⁰ Low on acceptance and big on control, these parents. These parents are unresponsive and demanding. When their kids misbehave, they discipline them harshly and harshly. The results of authoritarian parenting frequently resemble avoidant attachment style traits.

Permissive parenting style Specific dos and don'ts are established for children by permissive parents. They don't impose their will on young people. They don't impose limitations or a timetable of activities for kids. Rarely do they penalise someone for anything. According to Baumrind (1967), permissive parents have little self-control and self-reliance and make minimal expectations of their children. These parents' kids are described as apprehensive, immature, and lacking in initiative (Karen, 1998). The child-parent relationship is still a topic of discussion today.

These variables have been examined by the researchers in various contexts. In his paper, Karthik (2009) came to the conclusion that parents have a profound impact on their children's lives in all spheres and leave a lasting imprint. Both the mother and the father are crucial in their children's upbringing. Numerous research studies have shown that mothers form a kid's first bond because they provide comfort to the child. However, this does not negate the importance of fathers in a child's development. According to research studies by Passer & Smith (2007) and Broughton (2002), infants who had stable ties with their dads employed more coping mechanisms than those who did not. Considering these remarks, it can be said that both the mother and the father are crucial for a child's development. They had an impact on the child's life. Although the ways of interacting may be different, both have various effects on children's personalities.

In addition, it was proposed that primary parent-child relationships serve as models based on attachment theory. (Waters & Treboux, 1995), establishing the framework for future close connections (Furman, Simon, Shaffer, & Bouchey, 2002; Grossman, Grossman, & Waters, 2005; Waters, Treboux, Crowell, & Albershem, 2000). Children create internal working models of the self and of their carers depending on their interactions with them according to the theory of attachment. These models are relatively stable mental representations that function outside of consciousness. (Bowlby, 1969/1982; Bretherton & Munholland, 1999). According to Bowlby

(1969) the development and character of ensuing social interactions are significantly influenced by these ²⁹ experience-based models, which are norms and expectations for organizing information essential to attachment,

These models affect how information is processed and how emotions and behaviour are controlled. (Zimmermann, 1999), through controlling behaviour, ⁸ cognition, memory, attention, and learning in interactions with parents (Main, Kaplan, & Cassidy, 1985). Additionally, they affect and define how future relationships are portrayed (Bowlby, 1973). In fact, there is strong evidence linking peer attachment to parent-child attachment (Elicker, Englund, & Sroufe, 1992; Furman et al., 2002; Nada Raja, McGee, & Stanton, 1992). Attachment behaviour is frequently focused on non-parental figures, especially during adolescence when contacts with peers become ever more important (Kerns, Tomich, & Kim, 2006). The main sources of advice and support are regarded as being close friends. In addition, during adolescence, intimacy, mutuality, and self-disclosure to trends reach their height ⁸ (Berndt, 2002; Collins & Laursen, 2000). As a result, adolescents change from being dependent on both of their parents for care to becoming potential carers for close friends and family (Allen & Land, 1999).

²⁵ Peer groups are a particular kind of social organisation that consists of people who are of a similar age, social standing, and set of interests. ²⁵ A 4-year-old would not be in a peer group with 12-year-olds as a result. The same would apply to college instructors and their students not being in the same peer group (Armsden and Greenberg, 1987).

Examining the ³⁶ similarities and contrasts between the usual attachment styles of teenagers' parents and peer relationships is crucial given the significance of attachment in adolescence. From a theoretical standpoint, peer connections can therefore be viewed as a particular kind of attachment relationship.

Adolescence has historically been seen as a time when peer support increasingly replaces parental guidance, primarily as a result of generational conflicts over core beliefs, customs, and actions. (Coleman, 1961). However, research has not supported the notion that parents and teenagers argue over such matters, and in fact has revealed that there may be a lot of continuity in parent-child interactions throughout middle adolescence as well as childhood (Grotevant, 1997). The majority of teenagers still look to their parents for guidance and emotional support, despite their increasing reliance on friends (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). For instance, a great majority of the participants in a research of 2800 teenagers aged 12 to 15 named their parents as having a strong and crucial beneficial impact on their life (Blyth et al., 1982). Adolescence is thus now understood to be a time of developing autonomy as well as connection to parents and other important adults. The increased interest in applying attachment theory to parts of the life span outside of infancy supports the notion that parents continue to play a significant role in supporting children and adolescents. The initial definition of attachment was the close emotional connection that develops between the child and their primary carer, usually their mother (Bowlby, 1973). But in recent years, the concept of attachment has been reframed to encompass all major interactions throughout life, including those with friends and romantic partners. (eg, Armsden and Greenberg, 1987; Hazan and Shaver, 1987, Kobak and Cole, 1994, Kobak and Sceery, 1988). The idea that infants build models of relationships out of encounters with attachment figures is a key component of attachment theory (Bowlby, 1980, 1982).

As loyalty and constancy in friendship grow more important, peers become a more important source of support (Allen & Land, 1999; Berndt & Perry, 1990; Damon, 1983). Early teenage boys and girls regard friendships as realms over which they, not their parents, have control, which is a key component of their search for autonomy (Mounts, 2001).

¹ Despite the advancements in the research on friendship, there is still no coherent, all-encompassing developmental theory of friendship that tries to explain how it affects kids' ability to adjust socially, emotionally, and behaviorally (Furman, 1993; Newcomb & Bagwell, 1995). Researchers looking at how adolescent relationships with their parents and friends change have advised that it's necessary to look into the concepts of trust, intimacy, proximity, and communication. The foundation of attachment theory is these aspects of relationships. (Collins & Repinski, 1994). According to Ainsworth (1989) and Sroufe & Waters (1977), attachment theory can be used as a framework for the examination of friendship. ¹ There is evidence to suggest that some attachment components are obvious in friendships, even though it has been suggested that friendships are best described as associated interactions that serve the purpose of delivering stimulation and enjoyment (Hazan & Zeifman, 1994).

² The nature of the parent-child link is explained by attachment theory, a developmental theory that is widely accepted and scientifically supported. Attachment behaviours, which were first used to describe infants and young children, include a connection seeking, safe haven, and stable basis.

In proximity seeking, the attachment figure is approached, came close to and contacted. In the event of threat or danger, the attachment figure serves as a safe haven by providing comfort, support, and reassurance. The secure base phenomenon entails using the attachment figure as a foundation for exploratory behavior ² (Hazan & Zeifman, 1994). For children, adolescents, and adults, these three attachment components have been operationally defined using the WHOTO ⁶⁶ (Fraley & Davis, 1997; Hazan & Zeifman, 1994). ¹ The WHOTO asks about the person(s) with whom the respondent enjoys spending the most time and the person(s) from whom the respondent does not like to be separated in order to assess how much the proximity-seeking function contributes to attachment. The respondent is asked to choose the person with whom they wish to

be when unhappy and the person they may turn to for guidance in order to evaluate the safe haven function. ¹ The WHOTO asks about the person the respondent would like to inform first if something positive in order to gauge secure base.

A substantial body of research suggests that stable attachment connections are linked to consistent, long-term advantages for psychological health.

Children who have secure attachment patterns tend to exhibit greater competence, emotional well-being, self-assurance, and social skills compared to those with anxious attachment patterns, according to longitudinal studies (Elicker, Englund & Sroufe, 1992). In recent years, researchers have shown a growing interest in studying attachment during adults and children ¹ (Bartholomew, 1993; Collins & Feeney, 2000; Fraley & Shaver, 2000; Rice, 1990). They propose that the parent-child attachment relationship serves as a model for all close relationships (Ainsworth, 1989; Hazan & Shaver, 1987, 1994). Individual attachment patterns in adolescents are related ² to peer and romantic relationships, with secure attachment being associated ¹ with social competence and positive interpersonal functioning (Allen & Land, 1999; Black & McCartney, 1997; Rice, 1990). Conversely, insecure attachment has an inverse association with antisocial conduct (Marcus & Betzer, 1996).

¹ Security of attachment to parents is also associated with emotional functioning, social competence, a more harmonious balance between autonomy and attachment, problem-solving skills, and life satisfaction in older adolescents and young adults ¹ (Cotterell, 1992; Rice, 1990). Differences in attachment behaviors continue to influence social functioning even in adults, with ¹ insecurely attached people experiencing more interpersonal difficulties (Bartholomew, 1993; Crowell, Fraley, & Shaver, 1999).

According to theories put forth (Hazan & Shaver, 1994; Weiss, 1986, 1994), closeness seeking, safe haven, and secure foundation are essential during development but alter in form, leading to a number of changes between children's and adults' attachment relationships. In contrast to infant-parent attachment, adult attachment relationships are reciprocal, with both partners providing and receiving care.

The transformation of the attachment connection from external, observable interactions to inwardly reflected beliefs and expectations, where felt security becomes paramount, is another difference (Sroufe & Waters, 1977). Additionally, whereas an adult's primary attachment figure is typically either a close friend or a love partner, an infant's primary attachment figure is their parent. For newborns and adults, the safe haven function is likewise different. For instance, while adults seek for an attachment figure to ease their distress, provide comfort, or engage in sexual activity, infants primarily seek contact with their parents to ease worry and suffering. Adolescence is thought to be the time when the attachment system's structural organisation undergoes this major change (Allen & Land, 1999).

The Attachment Hierarchy and the Function of Peers Theorists have suggested that because close friendships are so important for early adolescents, older adolescent and adult peer relationships, especially those with romantic partners, can be conceptualized as attachment relationships (Fraley & Shaver, 2000; Hazan & Shaver, 1994; Hazan & Zeifman, 1994; Weiss, 1986). A model for how attachment ties are widened to include peers has been established by Hazan and Shaver. Children start to spend more time with peers than with parents due to proximity seeking. Close physical proximity is typically required for the development of relationships, albeit this requirement for proximity lessens over time.

According to a theory put forth by Crowell and Waters (1994), as a peer's behavior becomes more predictable and readily available,¹ the need for close physical contact lessens as the individual incorporates the peer's behavior into their internal working model and feels safe even when they are not together. Peers are frequently sought after for support and safe haven purposes¹ in late childhood and early adolescence, and attachment in adolescence is focused on this sense of security rather than proximity desire (Schneider & Younger, 1996).

¹The secure base phenomenon reveals itself via the internalization of the understanding that the peer will be there for you in difficult times once they have repeatedly shown themselves to be attentive in times of distress.² Parents are never given up as attachment figures in this concept. Instead, according to Hazan & Shaver and Hazan & Zeifman (1994), they descend the attachment hierarchy until, finally, a romantic partner takes the place of the parent as the main attachment figure in adulthood (Furman & Wehner, 1994; Hazan & Zeifman, 1994). In addition to serving as an attachment figure, a romantic relationship serves as an example of how the caring,² affiliative, and sexual behavioural systems interact (Furman & Wehner, 1994).

Before romantic partners become key figures in late adolescence and early adulthood,² according to Furman and Wehner, significant shifts in the attachment hierarchy take place in adolescence.

The idea that attachment factors change from parents to peers has some empirical evidence, but there are still many open concerns. With kids aged 6 to 17, the transfer of attachment hypothesis is made. In their study, the kids and teenagers were more interested in being close to their peers than their parents. Between the ages of 8 and 14, the majority of kids sought solace and emotional support from their friends, shifting the responsibility for providing a safe haven from their parents² to their peers.¹ Although 41% of the respondents described a peer as their major attachment figure

¹ in late adolescence, secure base functions were still primarily performed by parents (Hazan and Zeifman, 1994).

The indicated ¹ peer was usually a romantic partner in these instances. The timing of these shifts is consistent with accounts of young adults who claimed that while their adolescent romantic relationships served as sources of companionship and fun, later partnerships included greater components ¹ of trust and support. The Hazan and Zeifman study ¹ used a very small sample size of 100 and included kids across a wide age range, making it impossible to define precisely the distinctions between ² parents and peers as attachment figures. Shulman and Kipnis (2000).

Adolescents and young adults, are an expansion of attachment functions from parents to friends ¹ has also been studied. According to Fraley and Davis, the majority of young adults ¹ chose peers to satisfy their proximity-seeking needs, but only half of their sample chose peers to satisfy their safe haven attachment needs, while the majority reported that their parents satisfied their stable base needs. ² In Freeman and Brown's study, high school juniors and seniors were equally likely to name their parents and peers as their main attachment figures. It seems that parents continue to serve as ¹ the primary attachment figure throughout late adolescence and early adulthood, even if these results partially support the idea that attachment components ² migrate from parents to peers ² (Fraley & Davis, 1997; Freeman & Brown, 2001).

Adolescents may be more likely to engage in conflicts with their peers if there are issues in their peer interactions (Huang, 2013). Due to their lower levels of social integration into their peer group and higher rates of victimization, adolescents with behavioral issues and higher victimization rates are likely to assess their peer relationships poorly (Graham, 2003).

Social learning idea of two processes that result in the acquisition of personality traits like aggressive behavior. First, certain attitudes may be encouraged by parents and other socialization practitioners. As a result, the process by which responses are acquired is clear and structured, and it frequently involves both direct participation in guided learning experiences and the administration of a specific set of rewards and penalties based on performance ability.

Frustration theory of aggression: Human hostile behavior is also referred to as aggression. According to this belief, anger always results from dissatisfaction. In other words, frustration leads to hostility (Dollard et al., 1979 cited in Shaffer, 1988). There will be a higher likelihood of the initiation of aggressive behaviors if a person has high goals for achieving satisfaction and if there are many interfering factors that block person's responses towards the achievement of those goals (Dollard, et. al., 1939; Millar, 1948 cited in Baron & Richardson, 1994).

Hall outlined the typical psychological traits of the adolescent period. Strong relationships with peer groups grow as adolescents struggle against authoritative figures and find independence.

Additionally, attention-seeking and risk-taking behaviors increase during adolescence. Higher conflict levels are a result of these characteristics during the adolescent stage. Emotions frequently change dramatically and quickly. More than any other time in their lives, a person is more likely to feel anxious, unhappy, self-conscious, ashamed, and lonely at this particular time. Hall's view of adolescence continues to shape how we see this stage of growth. According to Hall, there are three basic types of storm and stress:

1. Parental conflict: In search of more independence and autonomy, adolescents frequently rebel against their parents and other authorities.

2. Unpredictable mood swings can be brought on by hormonal changes, adolescent psychological stress, and emotional instability.

3. Risky behavior: Adolescents take more risks due to their increased need for neurological stimulation and emotional immaturity. (Hall, 1904).

Literature Review

Aggression

Aggression is a universal phenomenon. Aggression is basic component of viol behavior and it is expressed in variety of ways including physical aggression, verbal aggression, relational aggression etc. (Matson, 2003). Aggression can cause problems in person's life and disturb the whole system of society.

Aggression is a behavior that is designed to hurt someone who does not want to be hurt, according to social psychologists. (Baron & Richardson, 1994).

Aggression is described as damaging behavior that defies social norms and may involve the purposeful intent to cause harm to another person or thing. (Bandura, 1973).

Aggressive behavior develops through social learning. Children typically pick up aggressive traits by watching violent behavior in the media and in the households around them. One of famous Bandura's studies, the "Bobo Doll Experiment" (1961), had the kids watching a model act violently towards a plastic doll. The model displayed verbal and physical violence by using foul language and engaging in kicks, punches, and tugging actions, among other actions and also showed verbal aggression by using the abusive language. First component is Attention is the first factor. To fully attend the important aspects of the modelled behavior, an individual must pay attention to the

social situation or stimuli. Retention is the second aspect. In order to remember information, one must store it in long-term memory where it may be retrieved. The replication of the observed behavior constitutes the third element. It should be possible for the person to behave as an example. Finally, there is reinforcement or motivation. High levels of motivation and encouraging feedback will make the modelled behavior more likely to persist (Bandura, 1965 cited in Allen & Santrock, 1993).

Aggressive behavior involves five stages of cognitive processing, according to the social information processing model. Encoding the information requires locating and focusing on the stimuli as the first stage. Utilizing social and emotional indicators, the information is then translated in the second stage. Finding every conceivable reaction based on the information's interpretation is the third phase. Choosing the most appropriate reaction is the fourth stage, and acting on the chosen response is the last step. (Crick & Dodge, 1994).

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Parental Attachment

The definition of attachment is a long-term psychological connection between people. A link that develops early on between a kid and a carer is known as attachment. All elements of

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development, including neurological, physical, emotional, cognitive, behavioral, and social development, are profoundly and permanently impacted by this interaction. (Bowlby, 1969).

Conceptualized attachment is an organized repertoire of biologically based behaviors (e.g., newborn crying, smiling, clinging, and seeking, etc.) that promote infant-parent relationship and increase survival. (Bowlby, 1969).

Parental area is an area of interest for many theories and a number of attempts have been made for describing the development of attachment style. Attachment theories have their origin from the observations based on animal. Different theoretical perspective described parental attachment in different manner.

According to psychoanalytical perspective the early years of life are very important in development of child. The most influential people during life period are the caregiver or the parents. The positive interaction with the caregiver provides secure basis for child development.

Internal Working Model of Parental Attachment As symbolic skills develop, the children with secure attachment for the internal working model in which loving image of self as loveable and love worthy. Internal working model reveals the past experiences and guides expectation for the future intimate relationships. Secure preschoolers will tend to be open and trusting. The child with avoidant attachment will likely to be guarded and standoffish. The child with resistant attachment will tend to be clingy, demanding and also exhibit bad temperament not only towards the caregivers but also with other people (Wenar & Kerig, 2007).

Diverse styles of parenting have diverse effects on the child and might contribute to behavioral issues later in life. According to research, internalizing behavioral issues are caused by preoccupied parental connection. Individuals with a dismissive or avoidant attachment to their

parents frequently struggle with attention, while those with a scared or avoidant attachment display externalizing behavior issues. Insecure maternal connection was thus ultimately found to be linked to the emergence of psychopathology (Hong, 2006). An early indicator of aggressive behavior in youngsters is a disorganized bond with parents. (Karlen, 1996).

According to research on the link between parenting methods and children's behavior, children who have experienced physical abuse tend to be more aggressive, have avoidant parent-child attachments, and ⁶⁷ are more likely to engage in antisocial behavior and harbor a persistent mistrust of others. While the neglected children exhibit social withdrawal, feelings of inadequacy, and uneasy or ambiguous parent-child attachment styles. (Finzi, Ram, Har-Even, Shiny & Weizman, 2001).

Correlation of Parents attachment and Aggression

For a long time, attachment theory was the primary theoretical framework that emphasized the significance of interpersonal connections ⁴ (Ainsworth, 1989; Bowlby, 1969). The importance of parent-child contribute to children's mental growth and social functioning has been recognized more and more recently (Bowlby, 1969; Mikulincer & Arad, 1999). The relevance ⁴ of attachment in psychological and behavioral consequences as well as social adaptations are supported by information from developmental research. ⁴ (Cole et al., 1994; Cummings & Davies, 1994; Rice, 1990).

The amount of research to date indicates a high correlation between outcomes like ⁴¹ aggression, social skills, and self-esteem, and the ⁴ degree of attachment between parents and children. (Kenny et al., 1998; Lyons-Ruth et al., 1997; Rice et al., 1997; Simons et al., 2001).

Researches also examined the impact of parents, siblings and economic patterns on the interpersonal aggression in adolescents was assessed. It was concluded that aggressive older siblings tend to have aggressive younger siblings. This type of association occurs in siblings' pairs with boys, two girls, one boy and one girl. It was observed that having a brother or highly aggressive sibling of either gender could cause greater aggression in younger siblings over the time. Similarly the aggression in the younger siblings increased the aggression in older siblings of either gender over the time. But having the non-aggressive younger sister results in less aggression in older siblings. Likewise, parental hostility plays an important role in children and adolescents, parental antagonism is a major factor in the emergence of violent behavior. As family economic pressure is linked with the Parental hostility thus it directly affect the parental attachment with children, and in aggression (William, Conger & Blozis, 2007).

Peer Attachment

Peer attachment is described as the degree ⁴² of attachment to parents, and to a lesser extent, peer attachment is linked to self-reported tendencies towards using more problem-solving coping mechanisms in stressful situations as opposed to attempting to control one's emotions (Armsden & Greenberg, 1986).

The capacity to sustain friendships as well as the development of one's own self-concept and independence from parents, which take place normally throughout adolescence (M. Pinquart & D. Teubert, 2012).

Peer connection gives adolescents assurance and a sense of security while they explore a new environment, and it frequently results in them having a high degree of self-esteem. (Merrill Palmer, 2011).

Abraham H. Maslow's 1954 description of his hierarchy of motivation model included the desire for love and a sense of belongingness as a step towards achievement. According to this perspective, lacking in more fundamental necessities makes it harder to reach goals. According to Maslow's hierarchy of wants, people cannot address their need for achievement until their needs for love and belongingness are met. For instance, a kid who struggles with impoverished relationships will find it harder to engage in classroom learning activities.

The social learning theory by Albert Bandura talks specifically to the interpersonal connections needed for learning. Learning by observation, often known as "vicarious" learning, is based on imitating others by first "modelling" them. The student will participate in learning and possibly put in more effort if they see and work with others who value learning by participating in learning activities. Peers that are supportive of learning will allow each other to set goals that contain chances to learn and succeed and will model this behavior for one another. Students will not prioritize learning in their own life if peer role models do not exhibit good attitudes towards learning. They will learn how to put other objectives first (Bandura, 1996).

It was hypothesized that adolescents with secure parental attachments would demonstrate better levels of interpersonal competence in a study on parental attachment and peer relationships in adolescents. (Schneider & Younger, 1996). Finding revealed that both positive and negative aspects of parental attachment in adolescent are found to be related with the adolescent's relationships with peers. At the same time it has been observed that those adolescents who have close and trusting relationship with parents showed negative opinion about peers (Schneider & Younger, 1996).

Correlation of peer attachment and aggression

Children who have high peer attachment are more aware of the availability and responsiveness of their peers (Nagle, 2005). Adolescents who experience issues in their peer interactions may be more likely to engage in confrontations with their peers (Huang, 2013). As a result, it is not surprising that adolescents with behavioral issues and greater victimization rates are more likely to assess their peer relationships poorly (Graham, 2003). This is because these adolescents are less socially integrated into their peer group. These teenagers also exhibit less empathy for their peers, and when combined with behavioral issues, this lack of empathy may increase the aggression these teenagers exhibit towards their peers furthermore adolescents' peer interactions directly affect their social integration, and when this integration is low, these adolescents struggle to successfully manage and handle relationships (Zandberg, 2004).

Adolescents frequently retaliate by being aggressive when they are teased by their peers, which leads them to form positive views towards these behaviors. According to the literature, more peer attachment is associated with less delinquency and violent behavior as well as more sympathetic attitudes towards peers (Laible, 2000).

Conceptual Framework

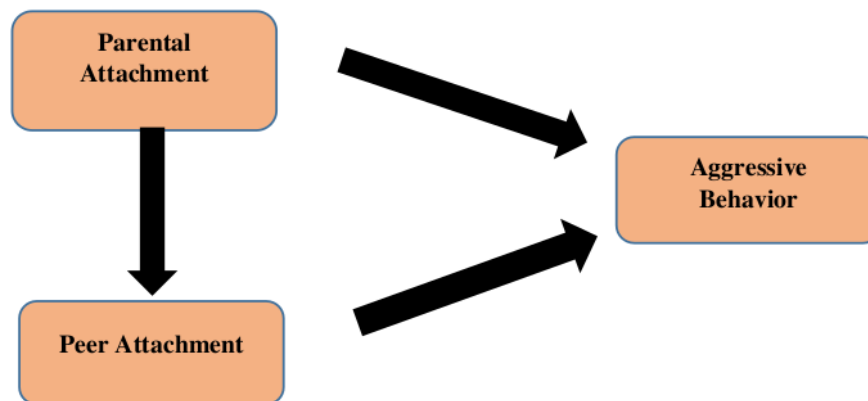


Figure 1: self-developed model of the study.

Theoretical Framework

The social development paradigm (Hawkins & Weis, 1985; Choi et al., 2005), says that parental attachment, peer attachment, and aggressiveness. Adolescent delinquencies, such as aggressive behavior, may rise as a result of peer affiliation, which may be encouraged by parental psychological control. According to the social development mode! (Hawkins & Weis, 1985), there is some study data that shows the mediating role of peer affiliation in the relationship between poor parenting and problematic adolescent behaviors, particularly violent behavior (Hinnant et al., 2015; Zhu et al., 2017). For instance, a longitudinal study of physical aggressiveness in Chinese kids in grades 7 through 9 found that pee affiliation moderated the impact of corporal punishment from parents on teenage physical violence.

Teenagers with working mothers performed much better than those with stay-at-home mothers. Teenagers with working mothers typically experience more loneliness throughout the day and are more likely to participate in anti-social behavior. In addition, they frequently feel abandoned by family members, leading them to believe that they are not receiving enough attention. Therefore,

these teenagers are more likely to be violent based on the negative effects of violence. (Datta & Firdoush, 2012).

According to certain theories, a strong parent-child bond may operate as a deterrent to youngsters acting aggressively (Ainsworth, 1989; Dryfoos, 1990). According to some theories, kids who have close bonds with their parents ⁴ are more inclined to accept rules and regulations and are less prone to commit violent or antisocial activities. So, secure and strong parent -child interaction is negatively associated with aggression (Belsky & Cassidy, 1994).

Researches on the gender differences in the manifestation of aggression showed that males and female manifest aggression in different ways. The findings indicated that, in comparison to females, males ²⁸ exhibit higher levels of physical violence, verbal aggression, and hostility. Although analysis showed no significant gender difference in manifestation of anger (Khalid & Hussain, 2000).

Research focused into how aggressive and non-aggressive children differed in how they perceived their parents' acceptance, rejection, and control. Findings revealed that aggressive children perceived their parents as rejecting aggressive, neglecting, authoritarian and permissive more than the non-aggressive children. Findings demonstrated that children perceived fathers as more neglecting than mothers and sibling number are positively related with aggression (Babree, 1997).

Significance of the study

Many investigations have been conducted to determine how parental attachment affects aggressiveness in adolescents. The current study looked at the distinctive and interacting ¹⁵ effects of parental and peer attachment on aggression as a factor in this stage and later phases of mental health. Professionals in the fields of health and education should know about ¹⁷ the effects of parental attachment on adolescent's violent behavior.

Research Objectives

1. To investigate the relationship between Parental Attachment, Peer Attachment, and aggressive behavior.
2. To find the impact of Parental Attachment and Peer Attachment on Aggressive Behavior.
3. To find out the difference in Parental Attachment, Peer Attachment and Aggressive Behavior along the demographic variables.

Research Hypothesis

1. There will be a relationship between Parental Attachment, Peer Attachment, and Aggressive Behavior.
2. There is a relationship between parental attachment and peer attachment.
3. There is a relationship between parental attachment and aggressive behavior.
4. There is a relationship between peer attachment and aggressive behavior.
5. Peer attachment mediates the relationship between parental attachment and aggressive behavior.

Chapter II**Method****Research design**

Quantitative approach was carried out using the correlational research design.

Inclusion criteria

- Participant's parents were alive.
- Participant were living with their parents.
- Participant knew how to read and write.

Exclusion criteria

- The participant did not have any physical disabilities.
- Participant were not financially independent.

Participants

The participants of the study will be 209 members with an age range of 14-19. Sample was taken from different schools and colleges of Islamabad by using convenient sampling methods.

Informed consent form

The participants below 18 years of age were provided with 2 separate consent forms to be signed by them and their parents. Participants 18 above years of age were also given a consent form. All of them were requested to participate voluntarily and a right to withdraw at any time without facing any penalties. They were informed that their identity and information would be kept confidential and the data they submit will be used for research only. The participants and parents were also given the right to view the findings of the study without invading the anonymity of any other research participant.

34

Demographic information sheet

Demographic information sheet included name, gender, age class, siblings, parents alive/dead, parent's education, parent's marital status.

Measures

17

Parent Attachment Scale – IPPA-R (Gullone and Robinson, 2005)

Parent Attachment Scale was 28 items scale, self-report that is developed by Gullone and Robinson (revised version) in 2005. The Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment–Revised (but not peer) was an index of the feelings of trust, quality of communication, and degree of alienation that adolescents and young adults perceive in their parental relationships. In this scale, negatively coded items were need to be reverse coded. The items were scored from 1 to 3 (Always True, Sometimes True, Never True). The reliability of the IPPA-R was ranging from .66-.86 and for its subscales, for parental attachment it was 0.60 and for its subscales (Trust, communication and alienation) was .79, .82 and .78

Peer Attachment Scale – IPPA-R (Gullone and Robinson, 2005)

The Peer Attachment scale was a 25-item scale, self-report that was developed by Gullone and Robinson (revised version) in 2005. The Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment–Revised (but not parent) is an index of the feelings of trust, quality of communication, and degree of alienation that adolescents and young adults perceive in their peer relationships. In this scale, negatively coded items were need to be reverse coded. The items were scored from 1 to 3 (Always True, Sometimes True, Never True) for peer attachment it was 0.88 and for its subscales (Trust, communication and alienation) was .86, .87 and .69 respectively.

Aggressive Behavior—SAGE baseline survey:

Straus created the self-reported measures of recent violent and other higher risk behaviors in 1979. Internal consistency of Beliefs supporting aggression is .66 while for Aggressive conflict-resolution style is .80. Items were taken into consideration individually or as a measure of violence-related behavior over a specific time period. A point was assigned for each item with a tick in one of the first three response categories, giving a possible range of 1-12, to generate an index for past-year violent or violence-related behavior.

Operational definition

Parental Attachment

Parental attachment refers to the emotional bond or connection between an individual and their parents or primary caregivers. It encompasses feelings of trust, security, and reliance on parents for guidance, support, and nurturing (Bowlby, 1969).

Peer Attachment

Peer attachment referred to the emotional bond or connection between an individual and their peers. It involved feelings of trust, security, and depending on peers for emotional support, companionship, and interpersonal interaction (Parker, Rubin, Erath, Wojslawowicz, & Buskirk, 2006).

Aggression

Aggressive behavior referred to actions or conduct that was intended to cause harm, pain, or injury to others. It was manifested as form of verbal or physical aggressiveness, such as name-calling and threats, or shoving and hitting. (Dodge & Coie, 1987).

Procedure

The participants approached through convenient sampling method. Written Informed consent of the participants and their parents was obtained, and it included ⁵⁹ information about the objective of the research, their right to confidentiality, privacy and withdrawal. Demographic information was obtained through a separate form. After that, Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment- revised scale, Aggressive Behavior—SAGE baseline survey was conducted.

Ethical considerations

The participants explained the objective of the research and the reason why this investigation was helpful in future. They were also given the consent forms to make sure that they were participating with their will and not because of any pressure on them. They were assured that their responses remained confidential and was only used for the research purposes. Furthermore, the participants were given the choice to withdraw at any time they want to.

Chapter III**Results**

⁵¹ The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS-IBM Version 25) was used to conduct statistical analysis. To measure the relationship between variables, ⁵⁰ Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used. To observe the causal relationship between variables; prediction hypothesis, to find the difference between two groups, t-test was used and ANOVA was used for three or more groups

Table 1*Descriptive Statistics of the participants (N=209)*

Variables	<i>f</i>	<i>(%)</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>S.D</i>
Age (years)			16.65	1.35
Siblings			3.12	1.59
Class				
9	31	14.8		
10	27	12.9		
11	97	46.4		
12	54	25.8		
Gender				
Male	140	67.0		
Female	69	33.0		
Mother's Education				
Undergraduate	154	73.7		
Postgraduate	55	26.3		
Mother's Occupation				
Housewife	171	81.8		
Working	38	18.2		
Father's education				
Undergraduate	129	61.7		
Postgraduate	80	38.3		
Father's Occupation				
Employed	203	97.1		
Unemployed	6	2.9		
Parent's Marital Status				
Married	200	95.7		
Divorced	9	4.3		

Note: *f*=frequencies of demographic variables, %= percentage, *M*= mean and *SD*= standard deviation

Table 1 allows to deduce that the mean age of the respondents was 16.65 years with a standard deviation of 1.35. The mean siblings of our respondents was 3.12 with a standard deviation of 1.59. In the total sample of 209, the participants belonged to different levels of class in which 31 participants (14.8) were from 9th class, 27 participants (12.9) were from 10th class, 97 participants (46.4) were from 11th class and 54 participants (25.8) were from 12th class. In the total sample of 209 participants, 140 individuals (67.0%) were males and 69 individuals (33.0%) were females. All of the 209 participants' (100%) parents were alive. When asked about mother's education 154 participants (73.7%) mothers were undergraduate while, 55 individuals (26.3) mothers' were postgraduate. When individuals were asked about mothers' occupation, 171 individuals (81.8%) were housewives whereas 38 individuals (18.2) were working women. When asked about father's education 129 participants (61.7%) fathers were undergraduate while, 80 individuals (38.3) father' were postgraduate. When individuals were asked about father' occupation, 203 individuals (97.1%) were employed whereas 6 individuals (2.9%) were unemployed. The participants were asked about their parent's marital status, 200 participants (95.7%) reported that both their parents were together while 9 participants (4.3%) reported that their parents were divorced.

Table 2

¹²
Psychometric Properties of Study Variables (N=209)

Variables	K	M	SD	Range		α
				Actual	Potential	
Parental Attachment	28					
Alienation	8	14.84	2.37	9-21	8-24	.89
Communication	7	13.11	2.51	7-20	7-21	.87
Trust	8	15.16	2.75	9-22	8-24	.89
Peer Attachment	25					
Alienation	7	14.33	2.2	9-20	7-21	.73
Communication	8	15.96	2.3	9-23	8-24	.75
Trust	9	18.08	2.54	10-25	9-27	.82
Aggressive Behavior	12	50.94	9.04	12-60	12-60	.89

¹²
 Note: k= numbers of items, M = means, SD = standard deviation and α – Cronbach's alpha

Reliability

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics and reliability analysis of parental attachment's subscales (alienation, communication and trust), peer attachment subscales (alienation, communication and trust), and aggressive behavior. There were a total of 28 items in parental attachment. The results showed that there were 8 items in alienation with a mean of 14.84, standard deviation of 2.37 and Cronbach alpha reliability was .89. There were 7 items in communication with a mean of 13.11, standard deviation of 2.51 and Cronbach alpha reliability was .87. There were 8 items in trust with a mean of 15.16, standard deviation of 2.75 and The Cronbach alpha reliability was 0.89.

There was a total of 25 items in peer attachment. The items of alienation were 7 items with a mean of 14.33, standard deviation of 2.2 and Cronbach alpha reliability was .73. There were 8 items in communication with a mean of 15.96, standard deviation of 2.3 and the Cronbach alpha reliability was .75. There were 9 items in trust with a mean of 18.08, standard deviation of 2.54 and the Cronbach alpha reliability was .82.

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Analysis

It was hypothesized that there is likely to be a relationship ¹⁵ between parental attachment's subscales (alienation, communication and trust), peer attachment subscales (alienation, communication and trust), and aggressive behavior. ²³ Pearson product moment correlation analysis was carried out to investigate the relationship between parental attachment, ¹³ peer attachment and aggressive behavior among adolescents.

Table 3

Pearson's bivariate correlation ¹⁵ between Parental Attachment and its subscales, Alienation, Communication and Trust, Peer Attachment and its subscales, Alienation, Communication and Trust, and Aggressive Behavior. (N=209)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Parental Attachment							
1. Alienation	-	-.888***	-.876***	-.796***	.692***	.814***	.078
2. Communication		-	.872***	.778***	-.676***	-.826***	-.161*
3. Trust			-	.772***	-.703***	-.820***	-.070
Peer Attachment							
4. Alienation				-	-.625***	-.740***	-.052
5. Communication					-	.713***	-.193**
6. Trust						-	-.026
7. Aggressive Behavior							
							-

Table 3 showed that descriptive statistics and reliability analysis of Parental Attachment subscales ⁷ (Alienation, Communication, Trust), Peer Attachment subscales (Alienation, Communication, Trust) and Aggressive Behavior. Parental Alienation ¹³ was found to be highly significantly positively correlated with peer communication and peer trust. Parental alienation was also found to be highly significantly negatively correlated with parental communication, parental trust and peer alienation. Parental Alienation was found to be non-significant with aggressive behavior. Parental communication was found to be highly significantly positively correlated with parental trust ²² and peer alienation and highly significantly negatively correlated with peer communication, peer trust and ⁶⁵ was found to be significantly negatively correlated with aggressive behavior. Parental trust ⁵⁵ was found to be highly significantly positively correlated with ²² peer alienation and highly significantly negatively correlated with peer

communication, peer trust and is found to be significantly negatively correlated with aggressive behavior. Peer alienation was highly significantly negatively correlated with peer communication, peer trust and is non-significant with aggressive behavior. Peer communication was found to be highly significantly positively correlated with peer trust and is significantly negatively correlated with aggressive behavior. Peer trust was found to be non-significantly correlated with aggressive behavior.

Results showed that age has a highly significantly positive correlation relation with siblings, Parental attachment (communication, trust), Peer Attachment (alienation) and has a highly significantly negative correlation with Parental attachment (alienation), Peer Attachment (communication, trust) and non-significant with aggressive behavior. The findings revealed that siblings have a non-significant relation with Parental Attachment (alienation, communication, and trust), Peer Attachment (alienation) and aggressive behavior and has significantly negative correlation with Peer (communication and trust). Parental Alienation has a non-significant correlation with aggressive behavior and a highly significantly negative correlation with Parental Attachment (communication, trust) and Peer Attachment (alienation). Parental Alienation has a highly significantly positive correlation with Peer Attachment (communication and trust). Parental Communication has a highly significantly negative correlation with Peer attachment (communication and trust) and has a highly significantly positive correlation with Parental attachment (trust) and Peer attachment (alienation). It also has a significantly negative correlation with aggressive behavior. Parental Trust has a highly significantly positive correlation with Peer Attachment (alienation) and it has a highly significantly negative correlation with Peer Attachment (communication and trust) and has a non-significant correlation with aggressive behavior. Peer Alienation has a highly significantly negative correlation with Peer Attachment (communication and trust) and has a non-significant correlation with aggressive behavior. Peer Communication has a highly significantly positive correlation with peer attachment (trust) and has a significantly negative correlation with aggressive behavior. Peer Trust has a non-significant correlation with aggressive behavior.

Table 5

7 *Direct effect of Parental Attachment (Alienation, Communication, Trust), Peer Attachment (Alienation, Communication, Trust) on Aggressive Behavior of Adolescents (N=209)*

Antecedent	Mediators				Consequent			
	Peer Alienation		Peer Communication		Peer Trust			
	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE	Coeff.	SE		
Parental Alienation	-.78***	0.03	.67***	0.04	.82***	0.04	.36**	0.56
Parental Communication	.79***	0.04	-.68***	0.05	-.83***	0.05	-.69***	0.57
Parental Trust	.77***	0.03	-.70***	0.05	-.83***	0.04	-.35**	0.53
Peer Alienation	-	-	-	-	-	-	.36**	0.57
Peer Communication	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.51***	0.45
Peer Trust	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.23*	0.49
Covariates	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mother's education	-	-	-	-	-	-	.18**	2.62
Mother's occupation	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.16*	2.98
<i>R</i> ²	.607		.464		.684		.248	
<i>F</i>	105.36***		59.16***		148.01***		11.12***	

Note: Coeff.= standardized regression coefficient

23 Table of direct effect states that Parental Alienation was found to be significant and positive predictor of Peer communication, Peer Trust and Aggressive Behavior whereas it was found to be significantly negatively predicted Peer Alienation. Parental Communication was found to be significantly positive predictor of Peer Alienation and was found to be significant and negative predictor of Peer Communication, Peer Trust and Aggressive Behavior. Parental Trust was found to be significantly positively predicted Peer Alienation and was found to be significant and negative predictor of Peer Communication, Peer Trust and Aggressive Behavior.

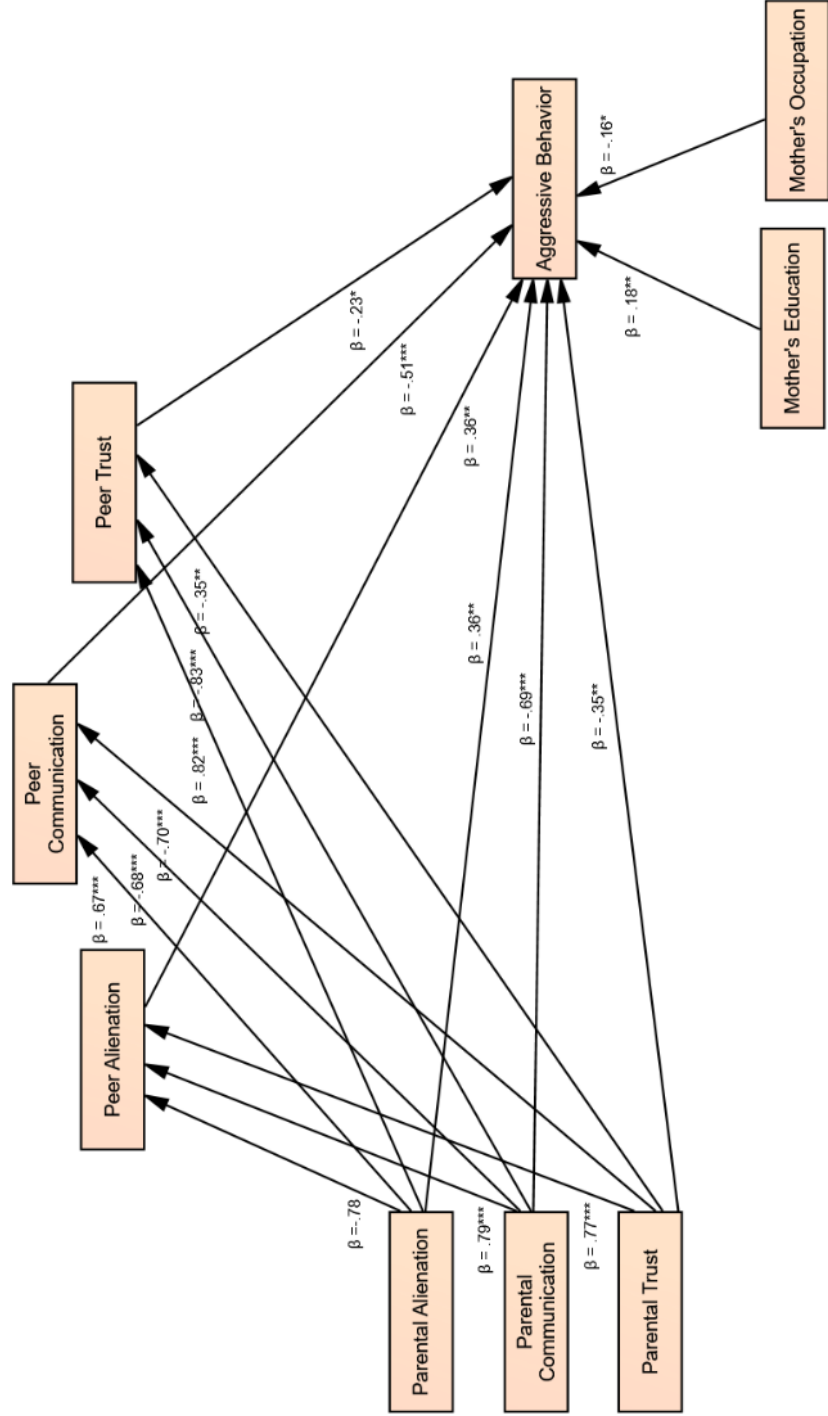


Table 6

Indirect Effect of Peer Attachment (Alienation, Communication, Trust) between Parental Communication and Aggressive behavior (N=209)

Mediator	<i>Effect</i>	<i>BootSE</i>	<i>95%BootCI</i>	
			<i>BootLL</i>	<i>BootUL</i>
Peer Alienation	.01	0.08	-0.14	0.17
Peer Communication	.34	0.07	0.21	0.48
Peer Trust	.19	0.11	-0.02	0.42

Note: BootSE=Bootstrap, Standard Error, BootCI= Bootstrap, Confidential Interval, BootLL=Bootstrap Lower Limit, BootUL=Bootstrap Upper Limit

Table of indirect effect showed that Peer Communication was found to be significantly mediate the relationship between Parental Communication and Aggressive Behavior, which indicates that decrease in Parental Communication tends to increase Peer communication and increase in Parental Communication tends to decrease Aggressive Behavior whereas Peer Alienation and Peer Trust was found to be non-significant mediators between Parental Communication and Aggressive behavior.

Table 7

Indirect Effect of Peer Attachment (Alienation, Communication, Trust) between Parental Trust and Aggressive Behavior (N=209)

Mediator	<i>Effect</i>	<i>BootSE</i>	<i>95%BootCI</i>	
			<i>BootLL</i>	<i>BootUL</i>
Peer Alienation	-0.09	0.08	-0.24	0.08
Peer Communication	.35	0.07	0.21	0.48
Peer Trust	.05	0.12	-0.19	0.27

Note: BootSE=Bootstrap, Standard Error, BootCI= Bootstrap, Confidential Interval, BootLL=Bootstrap Lower Limit, BootUL=Bootstrap Upper Limit

Table of indirect effect showed that Peer Communication was found to be significantly mediate the relationship between Parental Trust and Aggressive Behavior, which indicates that decrease in Parental Trust tends to increase Peer communication and increase in Parental Trust tends to decrease Aggressive Behavior whereas Peer Alienation and Peer Trust was found to be non-significant mediators between Parental Trust and Aggressive behavior.

Table 8

Indirect Effect of Peer Attachment (Alienation, Communication, Trust) between Parental Alienation and Aggressive behavior (N=209)

Mediator	<i>Effect</i>	<i>BootSE</i>	<i>95%BootCI</i>	
			<i>BootLL</i>	<i>BootUL</i>
Peer Alienation	.07	0.08	-0.10	0.23
Peer Communication	-.33	0.07	-0.47	-0.19
Peer Trust	-.03	0.11	-0.26	0.18

Note: BootSE=Bootstrap, Standard Error, BootCI= Bootstrap, Confidential Interval, BootLL=Bootstrap Lower Limit, BootUL=Bootstrap Upper Limit

Peer Alienation, Peer Communication and Peer Trust was found to be non-significant mediators between Parental Alienation and Aggressive behavior.

Table 9

Mean Comparisons of Parental Attachment, Peer Attachment and Aggressive Behavior among Men and Women (N=209)

Variables	Men (n=140)		Women (n=69)		t (207)	p	Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD			
Parental Attachment							
1. Alienation	15.84	4.25	15.94	4.18	-.17	.86	0.02
2. Communication	14.15	3.59	13.98	3.92	.30	.09	0.05
3. Trust	16.11	4.20	16.25	4.31	-.2	.81	0.03
Peer Attachment							
4. Alienation	13.30	3.23	12.96	2.83	.75	.05	0.11
5. Communication	14.69	3.59	14.04	3.19	1.27	.06	0.19
6. Trust	17.84	4.16	17.46	4.46	.61	.46	0.09
7. Aggressive behavior	42.34	16.96	41.96	17.95	.15	.25	0.02

Note: M=Mean, SD= Standard Deviation, p= Significance Level

The results showed that there were no significant differences found in men and women in terms of parental attachment subscales (alienation, communication, trust), peer attachment subscales (communication, trust) and aggressive behavior. There were significant

68 differences found as the results showed that there were significant differences found in men and women in terms of peer alienation as peer alienation was found to be greater in men than females with large effect size.

Table 10

Mean Comparisons of Parental Attachment, Peer Attachment, Aggressive behavior among adolescents of housewife and working mothers (N=209)

Variables	Housewife (n=171)		Working (n=38)		t (207)	p	Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD			
Parental Attachment							
Alienation	15.94	4.21	15.55	4.29	.51	.82	0.09
Communication	13.99	3.65	14.55	3.92	-.54	.34	0.16
Trust	16.09	4.26	16.45	14.12	-.47	.32	0.04
Peer Attachment							
Alienation	13.16	3.14	13.32	2.96	-.28	.09	0.05
Communication	14.48	3.47	14.47	3.52	.01	.65	.002
Trust	17.75	4.20	17.58	4.53	.22	.39	0.04
Aggressive behavior							
	43.20	16.87	37.76	18.46	1.77	.09	0.31

Note: M=Mean, SD= Standard Deviation, p= Significance Level

The results showed that there were non-significant differences found in adolescents of housewife and working mothers in terms of parental attachment (alienation, communication, trust), peer attachment (alienation, communication, trust) and aggressive behavior.

Table 11

¹³ **Mean Comparisons of Parental Attachment, Peer Attachment and Aggressive behavior among adolescents of employed and unemployed fathers (N=209)**

Variables	Employed (N=203)		Unemployed (N=6)		t (207)	p	Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD			
Parental Attachment							
Alienation	15.76	4.23	19.5	.84	-2.16	.000	1.23
Communication	14.21	3.67	10.0	1.79	2.80	.000	1.46
Trust	16.29	4.21	11.67	1.51	2.68	.000	1.46
Peer Attachment							
Alienation	13.27	3.11	10.83	1.17	1.89	.004	1.04
Communication	14.35	3.44	18.87	.82	-3.02	.002	1.81
Trust	17.58	4.23	22.50	1.05	-2.84	.000	1.59
Aggressive behavior							
	42.32	17.23	38.67	19.33	.51	.686	0.19

²¹ Note: M= Mean, SD= Standard Deviation, p= Significance Level

The results revealed highly significant differences found in adolescents of employed and unemployed fathers in terms of parental attachment (alienation, communication, trust), peer attachment (alienation, communication, trust) between employed and unemployed fathers with large effect size. There were non-significant differences found between adolescents of employed and unemployed fathers in terms of aggressive behavior.

Table 12

¹³ *Mean Comparisons of Parental Attachment, Peer Attachment and Aggressive Behavior among adolescents of Married and Divorced parents (N=209)*

Variables	Married (n=174)		Divorced (n=35)		t (207)	p	Cohen's d
	M	SD	M	SD			
Parental Attachment							
Alienation	15.96	4.21	14.00	4.09	1.36	.472	0.47
Communication	14.04	3.72	15.22	3.15	-.93	.049	0.34
Trust	16.10	4.23	17.44	4.30	-.93	.687	0.31
Peer Attachment							
Alienation	13.18	3.05	13.44	4.28	-.25	.232	0.07
Communication	14.48	3.49	14.56	3.21	-.06	.376	0.02
Trust	17.74	4.25	17.22	4.47	.36	.963	0.12
Aggressive behavior							
	42.06	17.32	45.78	16.20	-.63	.321	0.22

²¹ Note: M= Mean, SD= Standard Deviation, p= Significance Level

The findings showed that there were no significant differences found in adolescents of married and divorced parents in terms of parental attachment (alienation, trust) peer attachment (alienation, communication, trust) and aggressive behavior. There were significant differences found in adolescents of married and divorced parents in terms of parental communication.

Table 13

One-way Analysis of Variance in Parental Attachment, Peer Attachment and Aggressive Behavior across Different classes (9,10,11 and 12) (N=209)

Variables	9 th (N=31)		10 th (N=27)		11 th (N=97)		12 th (N=54)		F(2,206)	p	η^2
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD			
Parental Attachment											
Alienation	19.65	2.14	18.96	3.64	14.37	4.03	14.85	3.59	24.46	.000	.26
Communication	10.42	1.61	11.41	2.62	15.39	3.39	15.22	3.47	28.97	.000	.29
Trust	12.16	2.18	13.44	2.90	17.48	3.83	17.42	4.33	23.50	.000	.26
Peer Attachment											
Alienation	10.65	1.52	11.44	2.02	14.12	3.13	13.83	3.06	16.55	.000	.19
Communication	14.81	2.94	16.78	3.13	14.16	3.56	13.70	3.30	5.55	.001	.08
Trust	20.39	2.01	20.96	3.89	16.34	4.14	17.04	4.09	16.00	.000	.19
Aggressive behavior											
	50.39	11.56	37.63	19.66	41.68	17.36	40.78	17.45	3.20	.024	.05

Note: M=Mean, SD= Standard Deviation, η^2 = eta square (effect size), * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.00$

7 One-way Analysis of variance was carried out in terms of Parental Attachment (alienation, communication, trust), Peer Attachment (alienation, communication, trust) and Aggressive behavior across different levels of classes (9th, 10th, 11th and 12th). Results depicted that there were highly significant differences in adolescents in terms of Parental Attachment (alienation, communication, trust) and Peer Attachment (alienation, communication, trust) across different levels of classes (9th, 10th, 11th and 12th). There were significant differences found in adolescents in terms of Aggressive Behavior across different levels of classes (9th, 10th, 11th and 12th).

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The current research aimed to explore the effect of parental and peer attachment on aggressive behavior of adolescence. Three instruments were used to measure the variables of the present study. Inventory of parental and peer attachment (IPPA-R) was constructed by Elenora Gullone and Kym Robinson (2005) was used to measure parental and peer attachment, Aggressive Behavior- SAGE baseline survey was developed by Straus (1979) was used to aggressive behavior. English version of all the three instruments were used in the present study.

The psychometric properties of the instruments were determined by calculating the Cronbach's alpha. The reliability of the IPPA-R was ranging from .66- .86 (Gullone & Kym Robinson, 2005) and for its subscales, for parental attachment it was 0.60 and for its subscales (Trust, communication and alienation) was .79, .82 and .78 and for peer attachment it was 0.88 and for its subscales (Trust, communication and alienation) was .86, .87 and .69 respectively (Gullone & Kym Robinson, 2005). And for the current study reliability for parental attachment was 0.71 and its subscales (Alienation, communication and trust) have .89, .87 and .89 respectively. Peer attachment reliability was .61 whereas its subscales (Alienation, communication and trust) have .73, .75 and .82.

The Aggressive Behavior- SAGE baseline survey has a reliability of .80 (Straus, 202) and in the current investigation, the reliability of the scale was .89.

Results indicated enough evidence with the relevance to hypothesis of the research that there will be a relationship between study variables. It was further disclosed that the respondents with high on parental alienation were expected to have less parental communication, parental trust and

peer alienation and tends to score high on peer communication and peer trust. Previous research examines secure and insecure attachment with parents-child attachment and peer relations. This study explores how secure or insecure attachment with parents can impact the child's social interactions and relationships with peer. (Booth-LaForce, C., & Oxford M., L, 2008). Adolescents who score high on Parental communication. Were expected to have high parental trust and peer alienation and are likely to have low peer communication, peer trust and aggressive behavior. According to multiple studies, relationships between parents and children may operate as an inhibitor to ⁴¹ children's aggressive behavior (Ainsworth, 1989; Dryfoos, 1990). According to some theories, adolescents who have close relationships ⁴ with their parents are less likely to commit violent or antisocial activities and are more likely to comply with norms and regulations. So secure and strong parent-child interaction is negatively associated with aggression (Belsky & Cassidy, 1994). Adolescents who score high on parental trust are likely to score high on ²² peer alienation and low on peer communication and peer trust. Studies have revealed that adolescents who experience peer alienation but have high levels of parental trust maybe more resilient and able to seek support from their parents. This support in turn can facilitate better communication skills and the development of alternative social networks, leading to a reduction in peer alienation and improved peer communication. (Kochenderfer-Ladd & Pelletier, 2008).

Findings revealed that participants who scored high on peer alienation are likely to have low peer communication and peer trust. Peer alienation contribute to social withdrawal, academic difficulties and an increased risk of engaging in risky behaviors such as substance abuse. (Millis et al., 2017; Schwartz-Mette et al., 2019).

Adolescents who score high on peer communication are likely to have high peer trust and low aggressive behavior. Researches has consistently demonstrated ²⁷ that higher levels of peer trust are

associated with increased levels of life satisfaction, self-esteem and positive mental health outcomes in adolescents. Adolescents who feel supported and trust their peers tends to engage in prosocial behaviors and experience lower levels of psychological distress. (Chu et al., 2018; Schwartz-Mette et al.,2019).

Main study shows alpha coefficients of parental attachment, peer attachment and aggressive behavior when N=209. The alpha coefficient of parental attachment i.e 0.71, peer attachment is 0.61 and that of aggressive behavior is 0.89. this shows that all three scales are reliable for present research and yield nearly consistent results. The mean of parental attachment is 43.11, peer attachment is 48.37 and that of aggressive behavior is 50.94 which proves the hypothesis that lower the parental attachment greater will be the peer attachment and aggression among adolescents.

Main study shows that ¹² there are no gender differences in parental attachment and peer attachment with aggression. Cultural and social norms plays a significant role in shaping attachment patterns among adolescents. Research indicates that cultural contexts with more egalitarian gender norms tend to exhibit fewer gender differences in attachment. In such societies, both boys and girls are encouraged to develop close and secure affiliation with both parents and peers. As a result, gender differences in attachment maybe minimized. (Gungor et., 2016).

There were no significant differences between housewife and working mothers with aggressive behavior. The characteristics and qualities of mothers, such as their parenting styles, emotional wellbeing and involvement in their child's life, play a most significant role in shaping adolescent behavior than their employment status. A metanalysis published in developmental psychology concluded that maternal sensitivity, warmth and positive parenting practices were consistently associated with lower levels of aggression in children regardless of the mother's employment status. (Nomaguchi & Milkie, 2003).

There were significant differences found between adolescents of employed and unemployed fathers in terms of parental and peer attachment. The current study revealed that a father's employment or unemployment status does not have an effect on aggressive behavior but has an effect on parental and peer attachment. ²⁸ The quality of the bond between fathers and their children, including factors such as warmth, involvement and communication plays an important role in shaping adolescent behavior than the father's employment status. The quality of father-child relationships, characterized by high levels of emotional closeness and positive interactions, was associated with lower levels of aggression in adolescents, regardless of the father's employment status. (Flouri & Buchanan, 2003).

There were differences found in parental communication among the adolescents who are living along with their parents as compared to those who live with separated or divorced parents. This article explores the transition in parent-child relationships following divorce and highlights potential positive outcomes. It suggests that divorce may result in a shift from a hierarchical parent-child relationship to a more egalitarian and friendship-like relationship during adolescence. While there may be initial disruptions in communication, the article argues that over time the relationship can improve, fostering open and supportive communication between parents and adolescents. (Jensen & Fingerman, 2016).

Current study revealed that there were significant differences among Aggressive behavior across different levels of classes. Adolescence is a period characterized by significant developmental changes, both physically and psychologically. Research suggests that aggression tends to peak during early adolescence and then gradually declines. (Salmivalli, et al., 2000). These differences may be due to hormonal changes, increased independence and exploration during early adolescence. Peer group rejection and negative peer relationships are ³⁸ associated with higher levels

of aggression in adolescents. (Prinstein et al., 2001). As students' progress through different levels of grades, their peer groups and social dynamics change, potentially contributing to variations. In aggression levels.

Results showed that as the age increases parental communication, ¹⁷ parental trust and peer alienation also increases and parental alienation, peer communication and peer trust decreases.

As the number of sibling's increases, peer communication and peer trust decreases. Finding revealed that both positive and negative aspects of parental attachment in adolescent are ⁵³ found to be related with the adolescent's relationship with peers. At the same time, it has been observed that those adolescents who have close and trusting relationship with parents showed negative opinion about peers (Schneider & Younger, 1996). Strong attachment with parents can act as a protective factor against negative peer influences (Branje et al., 2004). Adolescents with strong parental attachment are more likely to resist negative peer pressure and engage in healthier behaviors. Conversely, weak parental attachment may amplify the influence of negative peer relationships and increase the likelihood of problem behaviors.

According to the hypothesis, the level of parental attachment influences the development of ¹³ aggressive behavior in adolescents, and this relationship is mediated by the quality of their attachment to peers. ⁶² Peer attachment refers to the emotional bond between adolescents and their friends, characterized by closeness, trust, and acceptance. ⁴⁶ It is hypothesized that the effect of parental attachment on aggressive behavior is explained by the strength of peer attachment.

Several studies have provided support for the proposed hypothesis. For example, research by Kinsfogel and Grych (2004) examined the connection ⁶⁴ between parental attachment, peer attachment, and aggression in a sample of adolescents. It indicated that parental ¹³ attachment was negatively associated with aggressive behavior, and this relationship was partially mediated by

peer attachment. It suggested that adolescents who have stronger parental attachment tends to form secure attachments to peers, which, in turn, reduces aggressive behaviors.

Furthermore, another study conducted by Haltigan et al. (2018) explored the ³³mediating role of peer attachment in the relationship between parental attachment and externalizing behaviors, including aggression, in a sample of at-risk adolescents. The findings revealed that peer attachment significantly mediated ³³the relationship between parental attachment and externalizing behaviors, indicating that peer attachment played a important role in the manifestation of aggressive behavior among adolescents.

These studies provide empirical evidence supporting the hypothesis that peer attachment acts as a mediator ³²between parental attachment and aggressive behavior in adolescents. It suggests that the strength of peer attachments, influenced by the quality of parental attachments, plays a significant role in shaping adolescent behavior, including their tendencies towards aggression.

Conclusion

It was concluded, based on the ⁷¹results of current study that parental attachment negatively predicted peer attachment and negatively predicted aggression among the adolescence. Adolescents exhibited high attachment and low aggression. Peer attachment acts as a mediator ³²between parental attachment and aggressive behavior in adolescents. It suggests that the strength of peer attachments, influenced by the quality of parental attachments, plays a significant role in shaping adolescent behavior, including their tendencies towards aggression. Prospective study is required, but our findings show that interventions and training for high-risk helping professions could make use of the power of positive traits that can be preserved, accumulated, and fostered.

The results of this study confirm and underline the necessity of programs meant to strengthen parental attachment in adolescents.

Limitations

We selected the topic on impact of ¹⁵parental and peer attachment to find the effect of these factors on aggression among the adolescence. It has to do with a person's psychology, behaviour, interactions with their parents, and level of attachment. These are the huge phenomena's and we must cover major variables such as person's welfare, trauma, or tragedy, even significant sources of stress, relationships, self-control and positive expectations. Getting sufficient results for each variable was really difficult, but we explored many sources to close the gap. Although it was our first attempt to conduct research on a chosen topic and form it into an article, our work was at a preliminary level.

We had sample of 209 respondents including girls and boys of Islamabad and Rawalpindi schools and colleges. This sample size was not enough for coverage of this broad topic. Also, there are chances that participants may not have responded accurately because of lack of time or interest for filling whole questionnaire. It may also be possible that respondents may have had some confidentiality issues regarding their responses.

Implications

The study demonstrates the detrimental impact of peer and parental attachment on adolescent's aggression. This research would greatly help the parents in reducing those factors that play the role in the child's aggressiveness and counter it effectively.

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