ABSTRACT

Title of Document: FAMILY PROCESSES AND LEISURE ACTIVITY INVOLVEMENT ACROSS THE HIGH SCHOOL TRANSITION: THE MEDIATING ROLES OF ADOLESCENT INTERNALIZING PROBLEMS AND SELF-ESTEEM.

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Parents are among the most important socializing agents in adolescents' lives. The purpose of the current study was to examine the prospective relations between family processes and leisure activity involvement across the high school transition. Specifically, I explored the meditational role of adolescent psychological well-being (internalizing problems and self-esteem) in these relations. The *first* aim of the present study included two dimensions: 1) to examine whether there were prospective relations between family processes (maternal and paternal parenting) and adolescent leisure involvement across the high school transition; and 2) to investigate the extent

to which psychological well-being mediated the relations between family processes and adolescent leisure activity choices, based on Eccles and Harold's (1991) research linking parenting dimensions to leisure outcomes.

The *second* aim of this study was to explore whether boys and girls differed in the extent to which their psychological well-being mediated the relations between family processes and leisure activity involvement from the 8th to the 9th grade.

It was hypothesized that perceptions of maternal and paternal parenting would differentially relate to adolescent leisure activity intensity and enjoyment. Likewise, I hypothesized that internalizing problems and self-esteem would act as mediators in these relations. Finally, I hypothesized that gender would moderate some of the meditational relations. OLS regression and bootstrapping techniques were used to test simple mediation and moderated mediation for all variables. Significant mediation effects emerged for relations between *perceptions* of *paternal involvement* and *sports intensity* and *enjoyment* through *internalizing problems*. Additionally, *internalizing problems* mediated the relation between *perceptions* of *paternal support* and *sports enjoyment*. An indirect effect emerged for the relation between adolescent's *perceptions* of *maternal negativity* and *arts enjoyment* through *self-esteem*. Subsequent hierarchical regressions revealed significant *gender* by *family process* interactions when predicting leisure involvement and one significant *gender* by *internalizing problems* interaction effect emerged when predicting *social activity enjoyment*. These findings suggest that maternal *and* paternal parenting play significant and differential roles in adolescent leisure activity involvement across the high school transition. These results also suggest that adolescent psychological well-

being effects the relations between adolescent *perceptions* of parenting and their leisure activity involvement.

FAMILY PROCESSES AND LEISURE ACTIVITY INVOLVEMENT ACROSS THE HIGH SCHOOL TRANSITION: THE MEDIATING ROLES OF ADOLESCENT INTERNALIZING PROBLEMS AND SELF-ESTEEM.

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2010

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DEDICATION

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to some of those most dear to my heart-

To my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ: You are my Rock, my Fortress, and Shelter in the storm. This dissertation is just a reminder of how omnipotent and gracious you are. I thank you for choosing and using me and I pray that my life work will continue to glorify your name.

To my mother: You have been such an inspiration to me. Throughout the years you've taught me integrity, perseverance, and strength; you are an awesome role model. Without your sacrifice, I wouldn't have had the opportunity to excel in my studies and leadership. I am grateful for everything you have done for me. So, let the pages of this work be a testament to your love and devotion.

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To my brother: I've always been your baby girl and you have given me so much support through the years. You've been my protector and a great friend and I thank you for always being there when I've needed you.

To my husband: My beloved, time has only proven that your love for me has no bounds. I thank you for the sacrifices you have made to support me through this process. You've really been a true example of God's unconditional love. I am grateful to have a husband as supportive as you and hope to share many more successes with you in the future.

Last but not least, I would like to dedicate this work to my Nana. She was a quiet spirit, noble, and humble in heart. Through her, I learned what it meant to be a true servant to my fellow man. Although she did not live to see me receive my doctorate, I know that she would be proud of all that I've been able to accomplish.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Adolescent Leisure Activity Involvement: A Historical Overview

Leisure is an important context for adolescent development. The act of choosing and participating in a variety of leisure activities affords young people the opportunity to exercise freedom and express their unique identities (Munson, 1993). Leisure experiences also give them a platform to utilize their newfound autonomy and develop cooperation and social negotiation skills that will carry them into adulthood (Silbereisen & Eyferth, 1986).

Only in the recent past have developmental scientists begun to examine leisure as a viable developmental construct. In the early stages of adolescent development research, many investigators viewed the study of adolescent time use as counterproductive. For instance, Coleman (1961) proposed that the adolescent subculture was misguided, lacking in academic values. From this perspective, engagement in non-academic leisure stifled academic and intellectual progress and had negative consequences for society. This "zero-sum" model supposed that commitment to structured and unstructured leisure activities impeded progress in academic related domains (Coleman, 1961). Some researchers also concluded that adolescent leisure time was synonymous with idle time or viewed leisure outcomes through a maladaptive lens (see Greenberger & Steinberg, 1986 and Kleiber & Powell, 2005).

The study of adolescent free time has since taken a turn. Now, many researchers view adolescent leisure as the "fourth environment" (Van Vliet, 1983).

Beyond home, school, and work environments, the “fourth environment” includes neighborhood institutions such as community centers and places used for social gatherings (e.g., the mall) and is viewed as a domain where adolescents can exert more control over their experiences than they otherwise could in adult-supervised venues (Kleiber, 1999; Van Vliet, 1983). Leisure is now widely accepted as a milieu for positive youth development with potential mental health benefits.

Leisure: A Developmental Perspective

According to Kleiber (1999), leisure experiences are directly related to processes of human development in four ways: they are (1) *derivative*, (2) *adjustive*, (3) *generative*, and can be (4) *maladaptive*.

Leisure activity involvement is a *derivative* process because leisure choices and the level of involvement in specific activities can result from developmental changes (e.g., socialization and transitions from one developmental stage to another) (Kleiber, 1999). A primary example of developmental change occurring during adolescence is the transition from a psychological dependence upon parents to an increasingly autonomous pattern of behavior. Reflected in leisure activity choice and involvement, adolescents can begin to choose whether or not they would like to engage in activities involving their parents. Another normative change that occurs during this developmental period is the experience of school transitions. During this time, adolescents are met with a greater complexity of peer relationships, an increase in academic demands (e.g., homework), and a more autonomous student experience than in years past (Newman et al., 2000). As such, the transition from one school to another can be very stressful for adolescents. The transition from middle school to

high school can be particularly stressful as serious adjustment problems (e.g., decreased attendance, lower academic achievement, greater delinquency and substance use, and suicidal ideation) are associated with this transitional period (Siedman et al., 1996). Ultimately, the new demands and stressors that confront adolescents across the high school transition can potentially influence their choice of one activity over another.

Leisure experiences can also be *adjustive* in nature. Acting as a buffer in light of stressful developmental transitions, some activities might provide respite for adolescents who are in volatile households or provide a degree of continuity across school transitions (Kleiber, 1999).

The *generative* nature of leisure experiences is evident in the qualitative characteristics of the activities themselves. Some activity experiences (e.g., community service activities and civic engagement) can generate personal growth and transformations. Activities such as these can also teach adolescents lessons about self-discipline and social responsibility.

On the other hand, some activities may reflect *maladaptive* characteristics. For instance, maladaptive behaviors such as drug use and other delinquent activities have no developmental benefit for adolescents. Additionally, over commitment to activities can lead to the neglect of other developmentally appropriate tasks (e.g., scholarly pursuits). Overall, leisure activity involvement is a viable context for adolescent development. However, some research provides mixed evidence about the relation between leisure and this developmental stage.

The Leisure Activity-Family Process Link

Much like leisure, the family is also a very important context that affects adolescent development. Ecological factors like parenting practices, parenting styles, and parent-adolescent relationship quality jointly affect the well-being of adolescents within the family system. During this developmental period, parents must negotiate with their adolescents about independent decisions such as their leisure choices. Sometimes, the choice between positive and negative leisure habits creates friction in the parent-adolescent relationship. In some instances, controlling parents can create conflict in the parent-adolescent relationship by not allowing their children the freedom to choose their free-time activities. In other instances, permissive parents can indirectly encourage their adolescents to make bad leisure choices by not setting appropriate boundaries for their behavior. Parent's restrictiveness or permissiveness might impact adolescents' involvement in leisure activities. However, do other factors influence the relation between parenting behaviors and adolescent leisure choice? Perhaps a child's individual characteristics, like their psychological well-being, play a role in this process. For instance, if a parent really wants their child join the debate team, the adolescent might not be inclined to participate if they are shy or withdrawn. Likewise, if a parent wants their adolescent to get involved in theatre, the child might not want to participate if they have negative feelings about their self-worth or ability. Ultimately, an adolescent's psychological well-being might interfere with a parent's direct influence on adolescent leisure activity involvement, regardless of a parent's encouragement. Few studies to date have examined the complicated dynamic between parents and adolescent free-time use and the direct and

indirect association between these two contexts have gained little attention in the literature extant.

An ecological systems approach evaluating the correlates and consequences of adolescent leisure activity involvement would suggest that the act of choosing and participating in leisure activities occurs within a complex ecological context (Bronfenbrenner, 1988; Meschke & Silbereisen, 1998). Investigations examining the roles of the macrosystem (e.g., gender) and microsystem (e.g., parent-adolescent interactions) in adolescent development supports the inclusion of these particular measures in leisure studies. Unfortunately, few researchers have examined the role of these social factors in adolescent leisure choice. Likewise, few studies have considered adolescent psychological well-being as a mechanism through which family processes influence leisure involvement over time.

Independently and collectively, leisure and family contexts affect the way adolescents navigate through their social world. On the one hand, positive leisure experiences can provide a new social space for learning and foster the acquisition of skills that are necessary for social, emotional, and psychological maturation. Likewise, a positive family environment, which includes effective parenting and positive parent-adolescent relationships, can offer a balance of guidance, autonomy granting, and support that facilitates age-appropriate exploration. The multiplicative effect of leisure and family processes (e.g., parenting practices and parent-adolescent relationship quality) may be powerful. Utilizing effective parenting strategies, parents can help encourage their adolescents to be more productive with their free time. Adolescents can learn lessons about social collateral through parents'

encouragement and they can eventually internalize the values of being productive, responsible citizens in their communities. By giving their adolescents the freedom to choose from a variety of constructive leisure activities, parents can also help their adolescents learn lessons of *responsible* independence. Giving adolescents increased autonomy in this manner can only help foster a positive parent-adolescent relationship and reduce the likelihood that some youth will participate in less constructive leisure, such as risky behaviors.

Although developmentalists have begun to make great progress in adolescent leisure research, there are still multiple deficiencies that require attention. First, little is known about the psychological and social correlates and predictors of adolescent leisure choice. Few researchers have examined the combined influence of social and psychological factors (e.g., family processes and psychological well-being) on adolescent leisure choice over time. Second, few researchers have examined the interaction between macrosystem and microsystem measures (e.g., gender and family) in the prediction of leisure activity over time. The present study will serve to begin filling this gap in the literature.

Theoretical Bases

As suggested by Silbereisen and Todt (1994), the importance of developmental contexts lies not in the independent contributions of each factor but the interactions between them. Truly, adolescent development occurs within a dynamic system of interrelated contexts and each context adds an important piece to the adolescent social world. For instance, characteristics of an adolescent's family system (his/her microsystem), along with community and national leisure

programming opportunities (macrosystem), work together to affect the access that an adolescent has to particular leisure activities. For instance, those adolescents from a lower socioeconomic status might not have access to expensive leisure activities like golf. However, well-resourced communities with clubs like the YMCA can compensate for inadequate economic resources and give disadvantaged youth the opportunities to engage in sports like these. In this particular case, an interaction between parental encouragement and community resources could give poorer adolescents a wide variety of leisure activities to choose from.

Although the literature extant highlights numerous theories that explain the interconnectedness of social and psychological systems in an adolescent's life, the present study used the Expectancy-Value Model of Achievement Choice (Eccles, Adler, Futterman, Goff, Kaczala, Meece, & Midgley, 1983) to operationalize an ecological model of relations between family processes, adolescent psychological well-being, and leisure activity choices across the high school transition.

The Expectancy Value Model of Achievement Choices. Expectancy-value theory posits that the motivation to engage in achievement related activities lies in expectations about goal achievement (Atkinson, 1964). The theory further suggests that numerous external factors contribute to the development of expectations and values related to activity participation. Specifically, factors within one's culture (macrosystem), one's family system (microsystem), and one's self-perceptions contribute directly and indirectly to achievement related activity choices (Eccles et al., 1983,1985). Based on Eccles (1983, 1984) application of the expectancy-value theory, the following conclusions can be made about processes associated with

behavioral decisions. First, stereotypes about gender appropriate activities can be transmitted directly through cultural contexts and influence an adolescent's decisions to become involved in gender-typed activities. Second, parental beliefs within the family system can transfer values about the appropriateness of activities to adolescents and influence their decision-making. Third, the individual characteristics of an adolescent (e.g., their self-perceptions) play a large role in the way they process the messages transmitted through their culture and family systems about the value of participation in certain activities.

Over the years, expectancy-value models have been utilized in the study of numerous behaviors. This includes academic achievement behaviors and more recently, leisure behavior (Dempsey, Kimiecik, & Horn, 1993; Eccles, et al., 1983; Feather, 1982). However, much of the literature utilizes this model in the study of academic and career achievement outcomes and few studies have examined its application within the leisure context (e.g., Eccles, 1994; Wigfield & Eccles, 2000). In an attempt to apply expectancy-value theory to a broader range of behaviors, Eccles and colleagues (1983) developed an *Expectancy-Value Model of Achievement Choices* (Eccles et al., 1983; see Figure 1) which suggests that intrinsic motivators (e.g., an adolescent's self-concept) and extrinsic motivators (e.g., an adolescent's parents) play a key role in determining involvement in achievement related activities. In this model, intrinsic achievement motives like the enjoyment of an activity and desires for performance excellence along with extrinsic motives like the desire for tangible rewards or approval from authority figures (e.g., parents and teachers) both contribute to individual's choices to engage in one activity over another (Eccles et al.,

1983). This model explicitly helps to explain the role that parents play as socializers of achievement experiences.

More recently, Eccles and Harold (1991) extended their model to examine its relevance for leisure behaviors of boys and girls. Viewing family processes (specifically, parenting beliefs and behaviors) as interpretative systems by which adolescents generate values and perceptions about themselves and leisure options, Eccles and Harold (1991) have linked this model directly to *sport* leisure activity involvement. Inherent in this model is the importance of parental socialization behaviors to the development of their children's self-perceptions, and ultimately their leisure choices. Other researchers have since applied this model to aspects of physical activity involvement (e.g., Dempsey, Kimiecik, & Horn, 1993). However, there are still multiple deficits in the present literature that need addressing.

First, few researchers have examined the differential impact of mother and father parenting on adolescent leisure outcomes. Although some researchers have acknowledged the different influences of mother and father factors on their children's leisure choice, these studies are few and far between (e.g., Fredericks & Eccles, 2006).

Second, the majority of literature linking family processes to leisure activity involvement has focused on sports or physical activity involvement. The benefits of community service in adolescent development have been well documented (e.g., Conrad & Hedin, 1982; Flanagan, 2005; Janoski, Musick, & Wilson, 1998; Johnson, Beebe, Mortimer, & Snyder,1998; Reinders & Youniss, 2006; Youniss & Yates, 1999). Yet, little research is available on the unique benefits of creative activities

(e.g., arts) during adolescence (e.g., Eisner, 2002; Wolf, Edmiston, Enciso, 1997). Not many leisure researchers make community service and arts activities the primary focus of their studies and there is a greater need for analyses that incorporate these domains as primary factors.

Third, not enough studies account for the potentially positive contributions of unstructured leisure to youth development. Most studies which have incorporated unstructured leisure activity involvement (e.g., social time with friends) in their analyses have focused on their associations with maladjustment or psychopathy. As I will mention later in this text, engagement with peers and spending reasonable amounts of time alone can be very adaptive during adolescence. Therefore, more studies need to consider this positive aspect of unstructured leisure.

Lastly, most of the above relations have been limited to samples of mid-to-late adolescents. There is still a need for studies examining the relations between maternal and paternal parenting and adolescent leisure activity involvement during early-to-middle adolescence.

Given the small amount of research linking leisure to family dimensions, it is still unclear how much parents influence the leisure activity patterns of adolescents across the high school transition and whether the impact of these factors is dependent upon other mediating variables. Therefore, the present study was designed to examine the relations between family processes and leisure activity choice across the high school transition, taking into consideration the individual characteristics of adolescents. The *first aim* of this study was to examine whether specific aspects of maternal and paternal parenting (child-report and parent-report) differentially

influenced the intensity of involvement and enjoyment felt by adolescents in structured (sports, arts, and community service) and unstructured (social leisure and free time alone) activities across the transition to high school. Additionally, I intended to evaluate whether these relations were mediated by adolescent psychological well-being (internalizing difficulties and self-esteem). The *second aim* was to determine whether direct or indirect relations between family processes (maternal and paternal parenting), adolescent psychological well-being, and specific structured and unstructured leisure activity differed among boys and girls.

Chapter 2:

Literature Review

Definitions

Early and Middle Adolescence. Adolescence is a unique period of human development, marked by three different phases (Santrock, 2005; Steinberg, 2005). *Early adolescence* (ages 10 through 13), *middle adolescence* (ages 14 through 17), and *late adolescence* or *emerging adulthood*, (ages 18 through 22) are often distinguished from one another due to the psychological and social changes occurring within each phase (Steinberg, 2005). The participants in the present study were adolescents in the 8th and 9th grades (ages 13-15); thus, for this literature review, I have focused on youth within the period of early and middle adolescence.

Transitioning to Adolescence. The transition from childhood to adolescence can be particularly stressful. According to Bronfenbrenner (1979), individuals encountering ecological transitions throughout the lifespan experience changes in activities and shifts in social roles and relationships that either lead to distress or adaptation (Felner, Farber, & Primavera, 1980). The changes marking adolescence would constitute an ecological transition. Specifically, the biological changes, shifts in family processes, and changes in social contexts like school, all affect adjustment and well-being during this developmental period.

Biological Changes. The onset of puberty is one of the most seminal developmental changes that occurring in adolescence. Hormone stimulation at the

onset of puberty triggers physical transformations like growth spurts, definition of sex characteristics, and reproductive maturation (Marshall, 1978). Additionally, this hormone production generates noticeable changes in adolescent mood. Most studies which investigate the relation between hormones and mood find the greatest relation among early adolescent participants (Buchanan, Eccles, and Becker, 1992). In fact, changes in hormone levels during this period have been associated with increased aggression and irritability among males and increases in depression among females (Buchanan et al., 1992). Researchers suggest that adolescents report more negative moods than adults and children and their moodiness is associated with increased negative affect (Larson and Asmussen, 1991; Larson, Csikszentmihalyi, and Graef, 1980). Consequently, this increased negativity can disturb the parent-adolescent relationship and create tension within the family system. In these instances, parents have to readjust their parenting strategies to accommodate or combat their child's negative emotions.

Changes in Family Processes. Although adolescents are met with individual challenges as they transition out of childhood, the family system is inevitably affected by this transition also. Both adolescents and their parents are met with uncertainty as a result of the psychological and physical transformations that occur in their children's development. Much of the stress occurring after the transition into early adolescence has been attributed to struggles related to perceived parental autonomy-granting and the exertion of parental control (see Buchanan, Eccles, & Becker, 1992; Montemayor, 1986; Paikoff & Brooks-Gunn, 1991).

Following the transition to adolescence, parent and adolescent expectations change and can become more discrepant (Collins, Laursen, Mortensen, Luebker, and Ferreira, 1997). During this time period, adolescents can expect both an increase in more adult-like responsibility (e.g., grooming, elective school decisions) and greater freedom in leisure activities. However, disagreements about the timing and extent of autonomy-granting often lead to tension in the parent-adolescent relationship. In an examination of parent and adolescent's beliefs about the appropriate timing of activities and responsibilities, Collins and colleagues (1997) found that there were many discrepancies between mother and adolescent responses. When adolescents were asked when violations of parental wishes were more likely, the majority of them stated that they violated parental authority when there were discrepancies in expectations about responsibilities and freedoms (Collins et al., 1997). In fact, adolescents ages 13-15 disagreed more with their mother's opinions about timing than 16-17 year olds and engaged in activities and responsibilities without their mothers' knowledge (Collins et al., 1997). Although many people believe that the entire adolescent developmental period is troublesome, the above findings suggest that the parent-adolescent relationship is potentially more strained during early adolescence.

Changes in Social Contexts. In adolescence, school transfer is also a major ecological transition. During the graduation from middle school to high school, young adolescents experience a more impersonal school environment, increased levels of academic and social competition, and greater diversity of teachers and peers (Eccles, Midgley, & Adler, 1984). Additionally, transitioning from early to middle

adolescence means more of an opportunity to choose from different curricular and extracurricular activities. On the one hand, this transition can be filled with excitement as high school students are given an opportunity to explore new constructive interests, cultivate positive relationships, and develop a greater commitment to long-term goals (Erikson, 1968). On the other hand, this transition can also be marked by fear and anxiety as young adolescents are confronted by unfamiliar peers, different school staff, new rules and expectations (Akos, 2002). During this time, if students fail to find their niche, they can end up withdrawing from activities and the peer group or increase in truancy (Barone et al., 1991; Reyes, Gillock, & Kobus, 1994).

Some studies have indicated that boys and girls might adjust to the high school transition differently. For instance, in an attempt to associate the high school transition with psychological adjustment, Blyth, Simmons, and Carlton-Ford (1983) found that boys who transitioned from middle school to high school reported higher levels of self-esteem immediately following the transition than they did in the 7th grade. Girls, on the other hand, reported lower levels of self-esteem after the school transition and their average self-esteem was even lower in the 10th grade (1983). The same study also concluded that both boys and girls experienced lower levels of leisure activity participation after their transition to the 9th grade (1983). The above findings suggest that the transition from middle school to high school is particularly stressful for early adolescents and can affect their psychological well-being and participation in constructive leisure activities.

Additionally, the role of family processes in an adolescent's ability to adapt after school transitions has been well documented. For instance, Lord, Eccles, and McCarthy (1994) found that parents who accommodated their children's needs for increased autonomy helped facilitate a positive developmental trajectory for their children after a school transition. In fact, adolescents' perceptions of parental autonomy-granting were positively associated with self-esteem after the school transition (Lord, Eccles, & McCarthy, 1994). Results from other studies (e.g., Dadds & Powell, 1991; Ohannessian, Lerner, Lerner, & von Eye, 1994) suggest that those adolescents who encounter elevated parent-child negativity after a school transition experience decreased adjustment post-transition. Unfortunately these studies, and many similar in nature (e.g., Crockett, Peterson, Graber, Schulenberg, & Ebata, 1989; Wigfield, Eccles, Mac lver, Reuman, & Midgley, 1991) focus on the transition from elementary school to middle school. Although this time is also stressful, challenges encountered across the high school transition can be more significant. Given the changes that occur with the onset of puberty during the transfer from middle school to high school, this transition may have a greater impact on the family system as well. Yet still, few researchers have focused on these changes in the parent-adolescent relationship after the *high school* transition.

Families and Family Processes. American families come in many different forms. Major social shifts occurring over the last few decades have led researchers to reconsider the definition of "family" in America. Now, family compositions that were once rare (e.g., blended families, adoptive families, single-parent households, and households with two homosexual parents) have become increasingly common. A

greater number of women wait longer to get married or have children, broadening the age range between parents and children. There are also fewer full-time homemakers, more joint custody arrangements among single mothers and fathers, and greater rates of divorce, which have led to a larger number of step- and reconstituted families than there once were. For the purposes of the present study, family processes like parenting and parent-adolescent relationship quality were examined within the context of diverse household compositions and included residential mothers along with residential and non-residential fathers. Non-residential fathers were included in the study because adolescents can also have a bond with their non-residential fathers and the nature of that relationship can have an impact on their psychological well-being. In fact, there is increasing evidence which suggests that regardless of residential status, fathers' high-quality involvement is beneficial to children's well-being (Amato & Gilbreth, 1999; Lamb, 2004). Additionally, the resources provided (or not provided) by non-residential fathers can have a direct influence on the climate of the home and the quality of the father-adolescent relationship. If non-residential fathers meet basic needs, then adolescents are less likely to experience the amount of economic stress that results from insufficient resources (Amato, 1998). Consequently, the less stress the non-residential father causes the residential family, the more likely adolescents will possess more positive feelings toward their non-residential fathers.

Ultimately, the present study incorporated all family composition types in order to capture the depth and richness of the parent-adolescent relationship within the family system. Eliminating family composition types (e.g., single-parent homes)

would have limited the extent to which findings could be generalized to a broader population.

Leisure Involvement: Activity Classification. Structured leisure activities, otherwise known as "organized" leisure activities, are salient contexts for adolescent social and emotional development. Characterized by adult supervision and clear programmatic organization, these activities emphasize skill building and goal achievement (see Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003), and foster the acquisition of numerous, age-appropriate abilities. Structured leisure activities take on many forms and can be found in school (as "school-based extracurricular activities" or "school-based after school activities") or in the community (as "after-school programs" or "community programs"). Both school- and community-based extracurricular activities are believed to establish environments that can promote healthy physical, psychological, and social habits, which are essential during adolescence. Examples of structured leisure activities include school-based after school clubs such as the debate team, community football teams, and national programs such as the YMCA and Girls Scouts of America. With the adolescent developmental period marked by exploration and the integration of skills, school- and community- based structured leisure programs also assist in adolescent identity formation, the development of personal efficacy, intimacy with peers, and the acquisition of tangible tools that prepare them for a transition into adulthood, post-secondary education, and vocational training (Brown, Clasen, & Eicher, 1986; Collins, 2003).

Structured leisure activities can be a stark contrast of "unstructured" leisure in both function and consequence. Including such active and passive pastimes as watching television, hanging out with friends, eating, sleeping, and playing video games, *unstructured leisure* has been associated with more negative outcomes than structured leisure because they often involve circumstances of adolescent self-care (e.g., "latch-key" environments) and are characterized by the absence of, or reduced adult supervision, less structure, and more socializing with peers (Osgood, Anderson, & Shaffer, 2005). Overall, structured leisure involvement can result in increased positive self-perceptions of the adolescent world (including school, community, peer, and parent domains) and act as an agent of situated learning where adolescents learn to internalize tools and cultural norms through interaction with expert adults in organized settings (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989; Greeno, 1993). Yet unstructured leisure (e.g., deviant behavior), can have much more negative consequences on adolescent development. It is important to note however, that activities such as hanging out with peers can also have developmental benefits. As demonstrated by peer relations researchers, interactions with peers play an important role in the development of social-cognitive and prosocial skills (e.g., Eisenberg & Fabes, 1998; Rubin & Rose-Krasnor, 1992; Selman, 1980). Unfortunately, much of the literature extant has linked unstructured activities with maladjustment (e.g., Agnew & Peterson, 1989; Flannery, Williams, & Vazsonyi, 1999; Fuligni & Stevenson, 1995; Larson & Richards, 1991) and has suggested that unstructured activity involvement has few developmental benefits.

The current study takes a more balanced stance about unstructured leisure involvement and its effects on adolescent well-being. Activities like social time with friends and free time alone are very adaptive, especially during the adolescent period (Larson, 1997; Larson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1977; Long & Averill, 2003). However, the benefits of being alone or spending time with friends depends on the individual. For example, an adolescent who spends time alone because he or she is rejected by the peer group or withdrawn due to internalizing difficulties might not experience the benefits of aloneness because it is a consequence of pathology (Larson & Csikszentmihalyi, 1977). In these cases, aloneness turns into *loneliness*, which is not a positive outcome. In other instances, adolescents who are aggressive might not reap the benefits of socializing with peers if they like to hang around those who are like themselves. Consequently, these aggressive individuals can engage in deviancy training (Dishion, Spracklen, Andrews, & Patterson, 1996). Overall, it is only appropriate to consider the benefits *and* detriments of time alone and social time with peers when studying adolescent leisure. Few researchers have taken this stance on the matter. Even fewer have examined unstructured leisure as a potentially positive outcome while linking adolescent leisure to adjustment and well-being. Therefore, the present study sought to explore this further.

Leisure and Adolescent Development

Adolescents have a plethora of opportunities to engage in constructive leisure (Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Quinn, 1999). However, the following questions remain: What makes an adolescent choose one activity over another? What role might psychological well-being have in determining leisure outcomes? Recently,

developmentalists have become concerned with these and other questions regarding the relations between leisure activity involvement and adolescent development. Specifically, researchers have begun to explore both the positive and negative associations between general activity involvement and adolescent adjustment. They have also begun to explore how the breadth of activity involvement, duration of participation, and intensity of involvement are associated with adolescent well-being. Investigators have explored the relations between specific activities and adolescent psychological and behavioral outcomes (Eccles & Barber, 1999; Hansen, Larson, & Dworkin, 2003; Pederson & Seidman, 2005) and much of the available research has focused on community and school-based activities (see Eccles & Gootman, 2002; Stattin et al., 2005; Barber et al., 2005; Fredericks & Eccles, 2006).

Generally, researchers suggest that there are positive relations between involvement in structured leisure and adolescent development (e.g., Barber, Eccles, & Stone, 2001; Mahoney et al., 2003; Newmann, Wehlage & Lamborn, 1992). Both quasi-experimental and experimental investigations alike conclude that participation in structured leisure activities during after school hours has potentially positive effects on adolescent adjustment outcomes (see Mahoney, Larson, Eccles, & Lord, 2005).

Breadth, Intensity, and Duration of Involvement

Although most investigators have argued the importance of general involvement (that is, the fact that adolescents are involved in activities at all), some researchers have suggested that simply being involved is not enough to have a positive impact on youth development. Adolescents also need to be involved in an

optimal *amount* of activities (quantity and intensity) over an appropriate interval of *time*. In a recent study, Fredericks and Eccles (2006) concluded that more time spent in school-based afterschool programs (school clubs, organized sports, and prosocial activities) was positively related to adolescents' sense of belonging in school and their grade point averages. Zill et al. (1995) found similar results indicating that participation in extracurricular activities for 5-to-19 hours per week dramatically decreased the likelihood of drug use among teens. Additionally, Elder et al. (2000) demonstrated that adolescents who participated in one or two extracurricular activities during the week were less likely to begin smoking cigarettes, smoking marijuana, or consuming alcohol.

Traditionally, researchers have operationalized leisure activity participation in two ways: by measuring activity *breadth* and *intensity* of involvement. Leisure activity *breadth* includes the number of activities that a person participates in while *intensity* involves the amount of hours spent participating in a given activity (Simpkins, Eccles, & Becnel, 2008). Although many researchers use both dimensions to measure adolescent leisure activity participation, participation *intensity* might be a more accurate indicator of involvement. Denault and Poulin (2009) outline two major reasons for this assumption.

First, the amount of hours spent participating in an activity is a very clear measure of investment in an activity. An adolescent who spends 5 hours a week practicing for a recital is clearly more invested than one who spends only 1 hour a week. The adolescent who invests more time is more likely to develop better activity specific skills than the adolescent who dedicates less time. Consequently, the

successful mastery of skills within an activity can motivate an adolescent to remain involved over time and provide an opportunity for him or her to reap the full benefits of involvement (Eccles & Harold, 1991).

Second, variability in *intensity* is probably higher than variability in *breadth* of activity involvement in a given school year. Adolescents can easily be limited in the number of activities they have access to, because of their parents or because of the resources available to them in their schools or communities. Adolescents who have limited access due to these reasons have fewer leisure opportunities available to them during the school year. On the contrary, there can be less of a limitation on the amount of time an adolescent can spend in an activity they are involved in. Although parents, schools, and communities might set a limit on the amount of leisure hours in a given day, this construct is much more variable, depending on the nature of the activity.

In a recent longitudinal study examining the influence of breadth and intensity on adolescent development outcomes, Busseri, Rose-Krasnor, Willoughby, & Chalmers (2006) found that greater intensity of involvement was associated with positive well-being (e.g., low levels of depression and anxiety; moderate to high levels of positive self-esteem; optimism). In contrast, intensity of involvement (e.g., sports, school-sponsored clubs, or community service activities) was not significantly associated with levels of substance use, delinquency, or social functioning (e.g., parent-child relationships; Busseri, et. al, 2006). Longitudinal outcomes of the study revealed that increases in activity intensity predicted greater well-being among adolescents.

In a study examining the links between extracurricular involvement and educational attainment, Mahoney, Cairns, and Farmer (2003) discovered that consistent extracurricular participation throughout adolescence predicted educational status in adulthood. Darling (2005) found similar results with regard to intensity of involvement. Intensity moderated the effects of negative life events (e.g., losing a boyfriend or girlfriend; death in the family; a parent losing a job) on outcomes such as marijuana and other illicit drug use and smoking. Among those who were involved in structured extracurricular activities, more time spent in activities moderated the effects of negative life events on substance use. Intensity, however, did not directly predict substance use, depression, or scholastic attitudes.

Clearly, many researchers agree that there are multiple benefits to commitment in specific activities during adolescence. However, concerns have begun to emerge about how much time is too overwhelming for some adolescents. Over the past three decades, adolescents have experienced a dramatic increase in the amount of structured leisure that they participate in after school. For some, investing a lot of time in leisure activities during the week results in more positive peer interactions and a greater opportunity to self-actualize. For others, intense involvement in one or more activities can create excessive stress and anxiety. It is possible that the benefits of intensity of activity involvement during adolescence can be better understood by examining the interaction between individual psychological characteristics (e.g., personality, internalizing, and externalizing problems) and type of activity involvement rather than activity type alone. Few researchers have

attempted to examine these relations, especially among adolescents with varying degrees of internalizing problems and self-esteem.

Activity Enjoyment

Enjoyment gained through these leisure experiences can also have lasting implications for other domains of adolescents' lives. According to Csikszentmihalyi (1981), a person's sentiments about the enjoyment they have in leisure provide a foundation for evaluating more instrumental roles in domains like school and work. If an adolescent enjoys leisure experiences such as playing video games, artistic activities, or social time with significant others, researchers suggest that they may evaluate instrumental activities like school or work more positively (Csikszentmihaly, 1981). Leisure researchers have concluded that enjoyment is an important component of the leisure experience (Iso-Ahola, 1980; Neulinger, 1981).

Overall, enjoyment reflects the positive affect associated with one's investment in a task (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975; Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) and feelings toward an activity might play a large part in determining activity choice and involvement over time. A small portion of the leisure literature has attempted to relate perceptions of ability, motivation, skill mastery, coping, competition, and positive perceptions of adult influence with leisure enjoyment (e.g., Brustad, 1988; Scanlan & Lewthwaite, 1986). Unfortunately, this entire body of research has focused on *sports* involvement. According to these researchers, youth who participate in sports find the most enjoyment when: 1) they think they are good at what they do; 2) they are task oriented; 3) they have favorable competitive outcomes; 4) adults recognize their abilities and provide positive reinforcement; and 5) they need to

escape from or cope with issues that are present outside of the sports domain (Scanlan, Babkes, & Scanlan, 2005). No research to date has examined the correlates of other types of activity enjoyment among young adolescents. Therefore, it was important to integrate measures of diverse leisure enjoyment experiences into my analyses. By doing this, the present study begins to fill this gap by reporting the antecedents of structured *and* unstructured leisure enjoyment. Likewise, this study evaluates the associations between family processes (e.g., parenting) and levels of enjoyment in different activities. This is the first study to examine these relations; especially within a racially diverse sample of early and middle adolescents.

Unstructured Activity Involvement and Development

As the old adage implies, there is nothing worse than an idle mind. Research corroborates this claim and suggests that adolescents, who engage in unstructured or unsupervised leisure activities on a regular basis, tend to experience negative outcomes in life.

A majority of the developmental and criminology literature has linked unstructured, unsupervised leisure involvement to maladaptive behaviors. When involving peers, unstructured leisure can potentially lead to deviant behavior. As seen in the work of Dishion and colleagues (Dishion, Andrews, & Crosby, 1995; Dishion & Owen, 2002), associations with deviant peers can predict higher levels of norm breaking and deviancy.

It is important to note, that this and other research (e.g., Childers & Ross, 1973; Comstock, 1991; Newman, 1988) have suggested that the relation between unstructured leisure involvement and negative developmental outcomes is often

mediated by factors such as after-school care arrangement, adult supervision, and the type of program being watched. Take for instance, the research of Mahoney, Stattin, and Magnussen (2001). In an investigation of the influence of Swedish Youth Center participation on males, Mahoney and colleagues (2001) found that frequent participation in the Youth Center activities (e.g., playing ping pong, pool, or darts; watching television, listening to music-all activities relatively low in structure) was significantly associated with increases in criminality, including increased juvenile offending and persistent offending over time. Persson, Kerr, and Stattin (2004) replicated these results for females in the youth centers. They found that females who attended the centers became more highly involved with peers (increasing their contact with peers who might have engaged in risky behaviors), became more romantically involved with boys, and engaged in more normbreaking behaviors. Youth Centers in Sweden are often unstructured, have little adult supervision, and are filled with adolescents who have negative personality characteristics and poor home environments (Persson, Kerr, & Stattin, 2004). Thus, many of the males and females in both of these studies had multiple risk factors that could explain their maladjustment.

It is clear that the lack of supervision, types of after school care, and negative peer influence are not the only factors that determine the maladaptive consequences of adolescent unstructured leisure involvement. Although many types of unstructured leisure involvement can be associated with maladaptive outcomes such as delinquency, substance use, and teen pregnancy, researchers must be cautious not to over generalize these results to *all* unstructured activity.

For instance, unstructured out-of-school activities such as watching television could very well lack direct adult supervision and guidance. However, the developmental consequences of consistent television viewing are more directly tied to the *types* of programs being watched, perhaps more than the simple act of television viewing (Wartella, Caplovitz, & June, 2004).

The impact of unstructured leisure involvement on youth development can be more readily explained by an extension of Coleman's (1961) zero-sum model. Although Coleman (1961) applied the original model to the associations between structured extracurricular activities and academic achievement, the same principle can apply to the relations between *structured* leisure activity involvement and *unstructured* leisure involvement as well as between *unstructured leisure* involvement and domains of positive development such as social competence. Being increasingly involved in unstructured leisure (e.g., hanging out with friends without adult supervision and engaging in activities which aren't constructive) is no doubt an impediment to adolescents' ability to become involved in structured activities. This is especially true because of the finite nature of time. If a student spends more than half of his/her free time engaged in unstructured, unconstructive activities, he/she has less time to dedicate to constructive, more beneficial pastimes.

Overall, the present literature suggests that it is important to consider the independent and collective roles of multiple factors when evaluating the impact of unstructured leisure on adolescent development. The type of unstructured leisure, along with the interaction of individual and family factors should be considered in

order to best explain the predictors of unstructured leisure involvement during adolescence.

Leisure and Psychological Well-Being

Based on Erikson's (1963) stage theory of development, there are potential relations between the fulfillment of specific needs and psychological well-being. According to Erikson, the development of trust (or positive emotional relationships with adults), a sense of self-sufficiency, the ability to exercise initiative, self-efficacy, a well-formed personal identity, and the ability to express intimacy with others are important assets that prove critical to healthy psychological development. Research suggests that structured leisure involvement can foster trust and intimacy and aid in adolescent identity formation and the development of self-efficacy (see Barber, Stone, Hunt, & Eccles, 2005; Larson, Hansen, & Walker, 2005; McIntosh, Metz, & Youniss, 2005). Unfortunately, few researchers have examined the associations between structured leisure involvement and psychological well-being.

Studies linking adolescent leisure activity involvement and psychological adjustment have produced mixed results. Some researchers have concluded that structured leisure involvement is linked to positive psychological outcomes. However, others have presented evidence that involvement has no connection with adolescent psychological well-being. While examining stress related outcomes, Larson, Hansen, and Moneta (2006) reported higher stress related conditions among those who participated in sports activities compared to those who participated in other types of structured leisure. On the other hand, in a cross-sectional examination of the associations between extracurricular activity involvement and adolescent adjustment,

Darling (2005) concluded that general participation in extracurricular activities was not associated with depressive symptomology. More recently, Bohnert and Garber (2007) found that higher levels of internalizing and externalizing symptoms in the 8th grade predicted lower levels of involvement in academic clubs during high school.

Some researchers suggest that structured activity participation is *indirectly* associated with adolescent psychological well-being. In fact, some investigators have proposed that structured activity environments, which are good-fits for adolescents' talents and personality characteristics, are positively associated with psychological adjustment. The work of Holland and Andre (1987) supported this hypothesis and demonstrated that male athletes' participation in sports was significantly correlated with higher self-esteem. They proposed that the relation between self-esteem and sports involvement emerged because the challenges faced in the sports environment best matched these boys' natural abilities and validated their self-concepts. In a relatively recent qualitative evaluation of adolescent psychological adjustment and leisure involvement (Fredericks et al., 2002), adolescents who were appropriately placed in programs that complemented their talents and abilities experienced greater confidence and were more likely to remain in the program compared to their peers who engaged in programming for other reasons (e.g., because their parents made them). In light of the available literature in this area, research linking extracurricular involvement and psychological well-being is still rather sparse. Additionally, few researchers have examined psychological well-being as an independent variable and fewer investigators have examined the relations specifically between *internalizing* difficulties and activity involvement.

Although it is important to understand the role that activity involvement plays in the prediction of adolescent psychological well-being, it is equally important to examine the direct effects of psychological well-being on adolescent leisure activity choice. The expectancy-value model of Eccles and colleagues (1983) is very useful in evaluating this relation. Using this theoretical model, one can understand how characteristics like internalizing difficulties (e.g., anxiety and depression) can predict leisure activity choice. According to the expectancy-value model (Eccles, 1983), choices are guided by personal values of achievement, motivation to complete tasks, and the importance an individual sees in an activity helping them to achieve future goals. Adolescents with internalizing problems can experience a loss of interest or motivation to do things, impatience, and even lack of interest in the future. Therefore, it may be possible that these dispositions can predict leisure activity choice over time.

Activity Involvement and Internalizing Problems

Results regarding the relations between internalizing difficulties and adolescent leisure activity choice are mixed, varying by activity type. For instance, in a longitudinal study evaluating adolescent activity involvement from the 10th to the 12th grades, Eccles and Barber (1999) found that civic involvement (church and community service activities) in the 10th grade was associated with fewer internalizing problems in the 12th grade. In a follow-up to this study, Barber and colleagues (2001) found that participation in arts activities during the 10th grade predicted higher suicide attempts by age 24 (Barber et al, 2001). The authors suggested that these results emerged as a result of adolescents with internalizing

problems choosing the arts as their preferred activity. In fact, individuals with internalizing problems were 44% more likely to choose the performing arts over other activities (e.g., sports, cheerleading, and student government). Viewed as "non-conformist" activity in which "marginalized" youth find refuge and a free place to express their identities (Barber et al, 2001), these activities were popular among members of this group. In a more recent study conducted by Bohnert and Garber (2007), the investigators examined whether adolescent internalizing problems predicted structured activity (e.g., sports, academic clubs, performing arts) involvement across the high school transition. These results suggested that students with higher levels of internalizing difficulties in the 8th grade exhibited lower levels of involvement in academic clubs during high school. In contrast, Fredericks and Eccles (2006) found no relation between involvement in prosocial activities and psychopathology (internalizing and externalizing problems). Overall, there exist few studies that examine the direct or indirect effects of psychological well-being on adolescent leisure activity involvement. Even fewer have examined internalizing problems as a predictor of leisure choices. Therefore, the present study explored these relations.

Activity Involvement and Self-Esteem

Drawing again on Eccles' (1983) model (Figure 1), it is possible that self-esteem plays an important role in adolescent leisure choice as well. Since the model posits that activity choice is mediated by interpretive systems such as the self-system, it is plausible that perceptions of one's self can have a direct effect on adolescent leisure activity involvement. Researchers have suggested that the self-concept of

ability is directly linked to sports activity choice (Calsyn & Kenny, 1977; Covington & Moelich, 1979; Eccles & Harold, 1991). Likewise, several researchers have associated domain specific self-concept to sport leisure choice (Duda, 1988; Roberts, Kleiber, & Duda, 1981; Weiss, 1987; Weiss, Bredemeir, & Shewchuk, 1986). For instance, Duda (1988) found that individuals who believed that mastery of a sport was an important reason to become involved, dedicated more time to sports activities than individuals who joined sports teams for other reasons. In a more recent study, Eccles and Harold (1991) applied the expectancy-value model in their study of adolescent sports involvement across the junior high school transition and found that beliefs about sports achievement (e.g., their perceptions of how good they were at sports) lead to differences in involvement among boys and girls. Boys rated themselves as better sports performers than girls and were significantly more involved in sports than their female peers (Eccles & Harold, 1991), even though both boys and girls reported more involvement in sports activities than math or reading activities. Although perceived importance of competence in sports performance played a role in distinguishing gender differences, perhaps overall positive self-esteem contributes to involvement in some activities more than others. More studies are necessary to understand the elements of the self-system that might impact adolescent leisure choice. Thus, I included this dimension in the present study analyses.

Family Processes, Psychological Well-Being, and Leisure Choice

Families are significant socializing agents during adolescence (Collins, Maccoby, Steinberg, Hetherington, & Bornstein, 2000). As such, parents can have both direct and indirect effects on adolescents' decisions to engage in constructive

leisure (Caldwell, Darling, Payne, & Dowdy, 1999; Eccles, Lord, & Roeser, 1996; Hutchinson, Baldwin, & Caldwell, 2003). Historically, developmental researchers have been interested in examining the connections between parenting and adolescent adjustment outcomes such as academic performance (Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Marchant, Paulson, & Rothlisberg, 2001), peer relationships (Fletcher, Darling, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1995; Mounts 2001), and risk taking behaviors (Barnes & Farrell, 1992; Moon, Jackson, & Hecht, 2000). Those examining these family processes have discovered that high levels of parental negativity and low levels of parental nurturance/warmth and support have been associated with high levels of internalizing problems (e.g., depression) in adolescents (e.g., Cumsille & Epstein, 1994; Sheeber, Hops, & Davis, 2001). Overall, few investigators have examined the roles played by parents in adolescent leisure involvement (Fletcher, Elder, & Mekos, 2000; Mahoney, 2000). Even fewer have examined the links between specific family processes (e.g., quality of the parent-adolescent relationship and parent supervision), adolescent psychological well-being (e.g., extent of internalizing problems and self-esteem), and adolescent leisure choice (see Bohnert, Martin, & Garber, 2007; Hutchinson, Baldwin & Caldwell, 2003; Guest & Schneider, 2003; Persson, Kerr, & Stattin, 2007).

Parenting Practices and Styles. Over the years, contemporary parenting researchers have attempted to classify parenting attitudes and behaviors in order to identify factors associated with positive and negative child outcomes. In the 1970's, Baumrind (1971; 1978) created a parenting style typology that identified three qualitatively different levels of parental authority---authoritarian, authoritative, and

permissive parenting styles. According to Baumrind (1996), the authoritarian style is characterized by a parent-focused relationship within which a parent demands behavioral compliance, discourages autonomous behavior of children, and exhibits low levels of nurturance and support. Permissive parents, on the other hand, encourage autonomy and emphasize a child-focused relationship that requires little behavioral compliance and extreme levels of nurturance and support. Authoritative parents maintain an effective balance between demandingness, autonomy granting, and parental support. The literature extant suggests that authoritative parenting is more positively related to cognitive and moral development, internal locus of control, academic achievement, self-esteem, compliance, and social competence whereas styles lacking high levels of parental support (e.g., authoritarian parenting) are believed to yield negative socialization outcomes (e.g., low self-esteem, delinquency, deviance, drug abuse, and social withdrawal; e.g., Hamner & Turner, 2001).

In the 1980s, Maccoby and Martin (1983) expanded Baumrind's typologies to include more specific and diverse dimensions of parenting (e.g., various levels of demandingness such as control, supervision, and maturity demands). Currently, there exist additional taxonomies of parenting behavior and style. For instance, Weiss and Schwarz (1996) examined the relation among six parenting styles (authoritative, democratic, nondirective, nonauthoritarian-directive, authoritarian-directive, and unengaged) and adolescent behavior across four domains (personality, adjustment, academic achievement, and substance abuse). Results suggested that adolescents in authoritative (nurturing and supportive) homes had favorable scores in all four domains whereas those in authoritarian-directive homes yielded weak academic

aptitude and achievement compared to children in non-directive, authoritative homes. Likewise, in a similar investigation, Glasgow and colleagues (Glasgow, Dornbusch, Troyer, Steinberg, & Ritter, 1997) concluded that adolescents from authoritative households were more successful personally and socially than their counterparts.

Results from the aforementioned studies highlight the important role that parenting practices and styles play in adolescent adjustment. Although practices and styles together have an impact on the parent-child relationship, there is a clear distinction between these two parenting dimensions. Parenting *practices* are specific, goal-oriented behaviors that parents exhibit with their children whereas *styles* represent the general emotional climate that is present within the home. Styles are highly dependent on the levels of parental warmth, behavioral control, and psychological autonomy granting that are exhibited in the household. Both dimensions are very important in childrearing. However, it is possible that each dimension can have different effects on adolescent development and subsequently, on adolescent leisure.

While research exploring the influence of parents on adolescent leisure in general is sparse, several investigators have explored the ways in which parenting styles and behaviors are associated with leisure involvement. Evidence suggests that warm, authoritative parenting (when compared to permissive/neglectful parenting) discourages adolescents from engaging in deviant and risky behaviors (e.g., substance use and early sexual activity; Caldwell, et al., 1999; Coombs & Landsverk, 1988; Mahoney & Stattin, 2000). Fletcher, Elder, and Mekos (2000) also reported that parental warmth, emotional and instrumental support (in youth activities) was

associated with the likelihood that adolescents would become involved in school- and community-based extracurricular activities. Likewise, Csikszentmihalyi, Rathunde, and Whalen (1993) discovered that gifted youth whose parents were warm and who reinforced activity participation were more likely to seek activities that supported their talents and abilities.

Despite the studies evaluating the relations between parenting and adolescent leisure, the distinction between the significance of parental support and parental control in the prediction of adolescent free-time use is still unclear (Hutchinson, Baldwin, & Caldwell, 2003). It is evident that supportive parenting is related to positive youth outcomes; however, little is known about the relations between parental control and adolescent leisure activity involvement.

Although the study of psychological and behavioral control is present in the early parenting research, attention to these constructs, in general, is lacking within adolescent samples. Psychological or behavioral overcontrol can have potentially negative effects on the parent-adolescent relationship and overcontrol in adolescent leisure choice can potentially lead to resentment within the parent-adolescent relationship and to rebellious behavior. Characterized by invalidation, constraints on verbal expressions of love, love withdrawal, and guilt reduction, psychological control is viewed as a negative construct, which might be related to detrimental development outcomes among adolescents (Schaefer,1965). Psychological control can impede an adolescent's ability to develop a healthy self-concept, impair adolescents' abilities to have healthy interactions with others, and ultimately promote internalizing behaviors such as withdrawal, loneliness, and depression (see Barber,

2002 for review). Such negative outcomes can have a large impact on adolescent leisure choice. For instance, if a parent is continually invalidating and intrusive, an adolescent may be more reluctant to engage in constructive leisure activities that compliment their abilities. It is possible that adolescents who have overcontrolling parents are likely to engage in activities that they do not like and choose to engage in unstructured leisure wherein adult authority figures are absent. Conducting research to explore these relations could make a valuable contribution to developmental research.

Parent Supervision. Parent monitoring, better known as the persistent knowledge of a child's companions, locations, and activity involvement (see Fletcher, Darling, & Steinberg, 1995), is an important developmental predictor of adolescent outcomes (see Crouter & Head, 2002; Dishion & McMahon, 1998). Parents who have more knowledge of their children's daily activities and whereabouts act as protective factors against adolescent substance use and abuse, deviant behaviors, academic problems, and more positive psychosocial development (Fletcher et al., 1995; Chilcoat, Dishion, & Anthony, 1995). Additionally, adolescents who have parents who monitor them are less likely to develop depression, have higher self-esteem, better academic outcomes, and associate less with deviant peers (Steinberg, Darling, Fletcher, Brown, & Dornbusch, 1995; Waizenhofer, Buchanan, & Jackson-Newsome, 2004).

As adolescents mature though, they spend decreasing amounts of time at home and parents are unable to observe their children's behavior directly. Consequently, monitoring becomes indirect, as parents rely on the adolescents

themselves to provide information about their daily activities (Crouter et al., 1990). The amount of truthful information that adolescents disclose to their parents is a direct consequence of perceived support and warmth in the parent-child attachment relationship.

Although parent monitoring is an essential tool in the parent-child relationship, researchers believe that it has little to no significant influence on adolescent leisure choice (Mahoney & Stattin, 2000). A longitudinal investigation examining the predictive relation between parent monitoring or peer influences and adolescent substance use behaviors (Fletcher, Darling, & Steinberg, 1995) provided evidence that parent monitoring might play some role in adolescent leisure choices. Results from this study demonstrated that adolescent perceptions of high levels of parent monitoring was associated with deterred substance use and was associated with decreased levels of substance use over time for both males and females. However, when peer influences (e.g., peer pressure and peer encouragement to engage in said activity) were introduced, peers had a greater influence on adolescent substance use than parents (Fletcher, Darling, & Steinberg, 1995). Regardless of the amount of parental monitoring and supervision, the presence of peer coercion appeared to be associated with decisions to engage in substance use.

In another study exploring the associations between family systems and leisure time use, Huebner and Mancini (2003) found that parent monitoring was positively related to time spent in community service activities. Although this finding is inconsistent with prior research (see Mahoney & Stattin, 2000), it illustrates the importance of parent monitoring in leisure activity choice. It is possible that the more

knowledge a parent has about a child's after-school involvement and who they are involved with, the more they have the opportunity to connect their children with activities that are suitable for them. In terms of community service activities, parents may play an important role in establishing connections between their children and community organizations and consequently have more influence over their children's activity choices in this activity domain than others.

Additional research has yet to replicate these findings and developmental research is still lacking in this area. Regardless, parental monitoring has a potential influence on adolescent leisure choice. It is possible that monitoring can act as a constraint to adolescent leisure freedom. Parents who excessively monitor their children (by setting early curfews, excessively calling their children when they are hanging with friends, or frequently checking in with other parents while their children are out) often intend to help their children make responsible leisure choices and believe that their restrictiveness will discourage their adolescents from engaging in risky behavior. Unfortunately, excessive behavioral control can often damage the parent-child relationship and have the reverse effect, leading children to rebel against parental wishes and engage in activities against parental will. Few investigations have tested these assumptions; exploring hypotheses such as these are secondary in developmental research.

Parent Negativity. Parent negativity is a construct which consists of parent-adolescent conflict and parental punitiveness (Furman & Buhrmester, 1985). Popular culture paints adolescence as a period of excessive conflict and turmoil in the home, yet there is an overwhelming amount of scientific evidence that suggests only a small

fraction of parents and adolescents experience unbearable levels of friction in their relationships. In fact, research demonstrates that only 5%-to-15% of parents experience excessive alienation, rebellion, and active rejection of adult authority (Collins & Laursen, 2004; Steinberg, 1990). Some researchers have also concluded that moderate levels of conflict within the parent-adolescent relationship are healthy (Adams & Laursen, 2001, Steinberg, 2001), with closeness and support remaining stable over time, even with the conflict present (Smetana, Metzger, Campione-Barr, 2004).

Punitiveness includes parental behaviors that attempt to exert control over adolescent behaviors and force them into compliance (Peterson & Leigh, 1990). Often operationalized as behavioral or psychological control, this dimension of parental negativity would involve communicating expectations about adolescent curfew, homework completion, relations with the opposite sex, dress code, and hygiene (Barnes & Farrell, 1992). When an adolescent fails to meet these expectations, a parent may become punitive by disciplining their child as a result of misbehavior (1992). This can include scolding, enforcing behavior restrictions, or taking away privileges (Amato, 1989).

In most cases, parent-adolescent conflict and punishment occurs when there are disparate views about authority, responsibilities, and autonomy (Dekovic, Noom, & Meeus, 1997; Montemayor, 1983; Smetana, 1989, 1995). Researchers have suggested that greater levels of conflict are associated with higher levels of internalizing difficulties (Buehler & Gerard, 2002; Pelton & Forehand, 2001; Robin & Foster, 1989) and those who experience high levels of conflict with fathers and

mothers report lower levels of self-esteem (Tucker, McHale, & Crouter, 2003). However, few researchers have examined the predictive relationship between these constructs.

Given that parent-adolescent conflict has been associated with adolescent internalizing problems and self-esteem, and these constructs are associated with leisure activity involvement, it is safe to assume that parent negativity (conflict and punishment) may be related and even predictive of adolescent leisure choice across the high school transition. The present study examined these relations among mother and fathers, daughters and sons.

Gender Differences

The above review of literature suggests that there might be a linear relationship between family processes and adolescent leisure activity involvement. Additionally, the literature extant supports the notion that adolescent psychological well-being might mediate the relation between parenting and adolescent leisure outcomes. However, the question remains: does parent and child gender influence these relations? Socialization theorists would argue that gender plays a significant role in the extent to which adolescents experience their social worlds. As children transition into adolescence, they either experience an increase in gender stereotypical behaviors (Hill & Lynch, 1983) or they exhibit increases in gender flexibility (Eccles, 1987). Parents are viewed as one of the primary gender socialization agents in adolescents' lives so it is important to understand how gender plays a role in the way mothers and fathers parent their sons and daughters (e.g., Eccles, Freedman-Doan, Frome, Jacobs, and Yoon, 2000). Likewise, it is equally important for researchers to

understand the way that boys and girls experience variability in internalizing problems and self-esteem across the high school transition (e.g., Leadbeater, Kuperminc, Blatt, & Hertzog, 1999; Kling, Hyde, Showers, and Buswell, 1999) and the extent to which each gender group is involved in specific leisure activities (e.g., Eccles & Harold, 1991; Hendry, Shuchsmith, Love, & Glending, 1993).

Gender and Family Processes. Contemporary researchers would argue that parents are the primary socialization agents in their children's lives (Collins, Maccoby, Steinberg, Hetherington, & Bornstein, 2000). In fact, parents may provide different role models to their sons and daughters and afford girls and boys different social experiences due to gender bias (Leaper, 2002). Parents can also have different expectations for sons and daughters and encourage or provide different opportunities to their same-or different-sex children (Bussey and Bandura, 1999; Huston, 1985). Parents can also monitor and manage their sons' and daughters' activities differently (Crouter & Head, 2002). For instance, researchers suggest that fathers are more likely to encourage gender-typed activity participation than mothers (see Leaper, 2002).

Research findings reveal that specific parenting dimensions can have an influence on boys' and girls' self-esteem and leisure activity participation during early adolescence. For instance, studies show that girl's perceptions of closeness to and acceptance from their mothers is associated with high self-esteem (Burnett & Demnar, 1996; Ohannessian, Lerner, Lerner, and von Eye, 1998). This relation was less prominent for boys (Dickstein & Posner, 1978). Likewise, parental acceptance and support have been more positively associated with the self-esteem of daughters than sons during early adolescence (Buri, Lousiselle, Misukanis, and Mueller, 1988;

Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986). In other studies, parental control and autonomy-granting have been strongly associated with the self-esteem levels of sons more than daughters (Gecas, & Schwalbe, 1986; Kawash, Keer, and Clewes, 1985).

While predicting leisure activity involvement, Fletcher and Shaw (2000) found that parental monitoring was associated with higher levels of involvement among their 14 year old daughters. Results were not significant for sons.

Although many of the above findings failed to differentiate between maternal and paternal parenting effects, they suggest that parenting can have a significant influence adolescent psychological functioning and leisure activity involvement.

Gender and Adolescent Psychological Well-Being. Developmental psychologists posit that gender differences in internalizing symptomologies (e.g., anxiety and depression) are best explored within socialization contexts. For example, Carolyn Zahn-Waxler (2000) stated that studies need to examine the socialization processes by which males and females experience varying levels of internalizing symptomology.

Research supports the notion that adolescent girls experience a higher prevalence of internalizing problems then adolescent boys (e.g., Allgood-Merten, Lewinsohn, & Hops, 1990; Nolen-Hoeksema & Girgus, 1994; Peterson, Sargiani, & Kenney, 1991). For example, in a study examining gender differences in growth rates of internalizing problems among adolescents, Scaramella, Conger, and Simons (1999) found that girls generally exhibited higher levels of internalizing difficulties than boys. In fact, internalizing scores were significantly higher for girls and for adolescents whose mothers and fathers were below the median level on measures of

parental warmth, child management than boys and those not below the median level on the above parenting dimensions (Scaramella, Conger, & Simons, 1999). This would corroborate past claims that there is a negative relation between positive aspects of the parenting (e.g., nurturance, support, and monitoring) and adolescent internalizing symptomology (Downey & Coyne, 1990; Dubois, Felner, Brand, Adan, & Evans, 1992). Thus, one can assume that parents who exhibit low levels of nurturance, low levels of support, and high levels of negativity are contribute to their adolescents' psychopathology (Kaslow, Deering, & Racusin, 1994; Sheeber, Hops, & Davis, 2001).

Much like gender differences in internalizing problems, researchers suggest that there exists gender variability in self-esteem. There is an extensive body of literature discussing the relation between gender and self-esteem during childhood and adolescence (Block & Robins, 1993; Hirsch & Dubois, 1991; Simmons & Blyth, 1987; Wigfield, Eccles, MacIver, Reuman, & Midgley, 1991; Wilgenbusch & Merrell, 1999). However, research findings have been mixed. In a discussion of the self-esteem literature and theory, Wylie (1979) concluded that scholars lacked strong, credible evidence to suggest that boys and girls differed in their self-esteem, at any point in their developmental trajectories. Some earlier studies reported that boys had moderately higher levels of self-esteem compared to girls (Seidner, 1978). While other investigations revealed no significant gender differences in self-esteem (Marsh, Parker, & Barnes, 1985; Mullis, Mullis, & Normandin, 1992). For example, in a longitudinal examination of self-esteem among high school adolescents, results suggested that there were no significant gender differences. Holding grade level

constant, there were no significant differences in male and female mean scores of self-esteem over a three-year period (Mullis et al., 1992). Crain and Bracken (1994) found similar results during their nationally representative longitudinal study. Among a sample of 2,501 students ages 9-19, the authors reported no significant differences between the mean scores of self-esteem among boy and girl participants. On the other hand, a more recent meta-analysis conducted by Wilgenbusch and Merrell (1999) revealed that across studies, boys reported higher levels of self concept in domain-specific areas of mathematics, physical appearance, athletic competence, and affect. They also reported higher levels of global self-worth when compared to girls (Wilgenbusch & Merrell, 1999). Girls only demonstrated high levels of self-concept on verbal competence measures (Wilgenbusch & Merrell, 1999).

Given the fact that adolescent girls have a higher incidence of internalizing problems than adolescent boys and given that specific parenting dimensions have a direct impact on adolescent psychological well-being, the present study examined the relations between family processes and internalizing difficulties.

Likewise, given the disparate conclusions about gender differences in adolescent self-concept, it would be safe to conclude that generally, one should expect no significant differences in self-esteem among adolescent boys and girls. However, results could show significant differences when considering social antecedents. According to Harter (1999), self-concept is both a cognitive and a social construct. In fact, the social aspect of self-concept (specifically self-esteem) develops

within the contexts of experiences with others, such as caregivers (Harter, 1999). This is a very relevant question that can be addressed by my study.

The Present Study

The present study used data from the "Friendship and the Transition from Middle School to High School" project to examine the meditational role of adolescent psychological well-being in the relations between maternal and paternal parenting and adolescent leisure involvement across the high school transition. Although most of the aforementioned studies have established separate associations between specific parenting dimensions, adolescent psychological well-being, and leisure, no study to date has examined the relations between all three prospectively. Fewer researchers have evaluated the influence that internalizing problems and self-esteem have on leisure activity outcomes. Even fewer have explored the differential contributions of mother and father parenting to adolescent leisure.

The *first goal* of the present study was to examine whether there were prospective relations between maternal and paternal parenting and adolescent leisure involvement across the high school transition and to investigate the extent to which psychological well-being (specifically internalizing problems and self-esteem) mediated the relation between maternal and paternal parenting dimensions and adolescent leisure activity. This particular goal is grounded in Eccles and Harold's (1991) research linking parenting dimensions to leisure outcomes.

The *second* goal of this study was to explore whether boys and girls differed in the extent to which their internalizing symptomology and self-esteem mediated the

prospective relations between family processes (maternal and paternal parenting) and leisure activity involvement from the 8th to the 9th grade.

Based on evidence that there may be differences in maternal and paternal socialization behaviors and that these behaviors might differentially affect boys and girls, I explored the role of gender differences in my research questions. In general, I hypothesized that mother's and father's reports of their parenting behaviors *prior* to the high school transition would differentially impact adolescent psychological well-being and leisure activity involvement *after* this transition. Additionally, I believed that adolescent *perceptions* of maternal and paternal parenting would differentially predict the same outcomes.

Considering the above assumptions, the following hypotheses were offered to explain how *paternal* parenting dimensions might predict adolescent leisure activity involvement and how dimensions of psychological well-being would mediate those relations:

1) Given that fathers are more likely than mothers to socialize their children into gender stereotyped activities (Leaper, 2002), and given that there may be gender differences in levels of self-esteem and internalizing problems (e.g., Scaramella, Conger, & Simons, 1999; Seidner, 1978), I hypothesized that self-esteem and internalizing problems would partially mediate the affects of paternal family process indicators (nurturance, restrictiveness, support, autonomy granting, and involvement) on adolescent girls' arts and community service *intensity* and *enjoyment*.

2) Since fathers often socialize their sons into gender-typed behaviors (Leaper, 2002) and boys have demonstrated potentially higher levels of self-esteem and lower levels of internalizing problems than girls across the high school transition (Wilgenbusch & Merrell, 1999; Scaramella, Conger, & Simons, 1999), I hypothesized that paternal family process indices (nurturance, restrictiveness, support, autonomy granting, negativity, and involvement) would have a direct effect on adolescent boys' sports, social, and free-time leisure *intensity* and *enjoyment*, regardless of their psychological well-being.

The following hypotheses were also offered to explain how *maternal* parenting dimensions might predict adolescent leisure activity involvement and how dimensions of psychological well-being would mediate those relations:

4) Since mothers are less likely than fathers to socialize their children into gender stereotyped activities (Leaper, 2002), I hypothesized that self-esteem and internalizing problems would partially mediate the affects of maternal family process indicators (nurturance, restrictiveness, support, autonomy granting, negativity, and involvement) on all aspects of leisure activity *intensity* and *enjoyment*, regardless of adolescent gender.

Finally, the following hypothesis was offered to explain how *parental supervision* might predict adolescent leisure activity involvement and how dimensions of psychological well-being would mediate those relations:

5) Parental supervision would have a direct effect on all adolescents' leisure activity *intensity* and *enjoyment* outcomes, regardless of psychological well-being and adolescent gender.

CHAPTER 3:

METHODS

Participants

The current study participants were drawn from a larger longitudinal sample (n = 1,611) of adolescents and their parents who participated in the "Friendship and the Transition from Middle School to High School" project at the University of Maryland, College Park. The present longitudinal study included 234 adolescents (110 boys, 124 girls) who transitioned from three middle schools (the 8th grade) to feeder high schools (the 9th grade) in Montgomery County, Maryland. Data were gathered from each adolescent participant, along with their mothers and fathers, on demographics, maternal and paternal parenting behaviors and practices, adolescent psychological well-being, and family functioning (consent rate = 84%). Available county-wide demographic information indicates that Montgomery County is relatively diverse and has a large international representation. In 2008, 54% of the population was reported to be European American, 16% African American, 13% Asian, 15% Hispanic, and 2% other or of mixed race (U.S. Census Bureau, 2009). Levels of affluence also varied, with the median household income being $94,200 and a majority of families classified as middle to upper-middle class (U.S. Census Bureau, 2009). Affordable housing initiatives (e.g., the Housing Opportunities Commission; the Moderately Priced Dwelling Unit Program) and public assistance programs have helped foster greater integration within Montgomery County

communities though, providing low- income families access to resources throughout the jurisdiction.

The present study reflects these county characteristics fairly well. Among the 234 adolescents in this study, 54% were European American, 13% were African American, 11% were Latino/Hispanic American, 16% were Asian-American, and 6% reported being of other or mixed race. Additionally, the present study included families where 54% of mothers and 47.4% of fathers were reported earning a college or graduate degree. Some researchers suggest that parental education level is a strong proxy indicator of socio-economic status (e.g., Leigh, 1993; Goodman, 1999). Therefore, these education statistics would verify that my sample had characteristics similar to the county population demographics.

Based on these statistics, my study sample is unique in a number of ways. First, it contains a relatively balanced racial and ethnic distribution and includes Latino/Hispanic American, Asian American, Mixed and other racial groups. A majority of the research exploring the correlates and consequences of adolescent leisure have included relatively homogeneous samples. The present study has a good representation of diverse groups of adolescents, which is an advantage over many studies. Second, the present study was conducted in a county where systems are in place to integrate social classes. This initiative helps provide residents with equal access to resources. This is truly a unique characteristic because low-income families in this county are given the opportunity to live and go to school in affluent communities. This also means that adolescents from these families have greater access to diverse leisure resources.

Procedures

In the spring of their 8th grade school year, four cohorts of adolescents (from 2003-2007), completed a battery of questionnaires either in the laboratory or at home regarding their relationships with their parents, their self-esteem, internalizing and externalizing difficulties, and leisure activity involvement. Mothers and fathers were invited to complete questionnaires regarding their relationships with their children and their children's psychological well-being. Students were initially recruited during school assessments in the fall and spring semesters of their 6th grade school year or during the spring semester of their 8th grade year. All of the 8th graders who participated in the school assessments were later telephoned and invited to complete questionnaires during mid-winter of their 9th grade year.

It is important to note that this subsample of the larger study's participant pool was selected based on systematic criteria. Of the 1,611 students in the larger study, only 401 of these participants completed a laboratory visit in the 6th grade. During 8th grade recruitment, efforts focused on acquiring these students, in addition to new students, to maximize our longitudinal sample. The final study sample of 234 adolescents is based on the total number of participants who completed leisure activity data in the 8th and 9th grades. Since the present study is concerned with the leisure patterns of adolescents, I based my study sample on the amount of leisure activity data we had for longitudinal participants.

Measures

Demographics (Appendix A). Demographic information was obtained from mothers regarding the ethnicities, marital status, relationship status, educational

background, and family structure (e.g., the presence of other children and other adults in the home) for themselves and the fathers of their children. Additionally, mothers were asked to identify the sex and age of their children. The present study utilized data regarding adolescent sex, ethnicity, and mother and father education. Ethnicity was originally coded into 5 racial categories (European-American, African-American, Latino/Hispanic-American, Asian-American, Mixed or Other Race).

Maternal and paternal education were used as proxy indices for socioeconomic status. Given the potential influence of parent education on the quality of the family environment and adolescent leisure activity involvement (Barber et al., 2001; Eccles, 2005), maternal and paternal education variables were included as covariates in my analyses.

Child Rearing Practices Report (CRPR-Q; Rickel & Biasatti, 1982; Appendix B). The *CRPR* is a 42 item parent self-report measure and was designed to assess maternal and paternal childrearing attitudes and values and yields scores on levels of parental *nurturance* and *restrictiveness*. The present study utilized scores pertaining to *maternal* and *paternal nurturance* (e.g., "*I express affection by hugging, kissing, and holding my child*" and "*My child and I have warm, intimate moments with each other*"; grade 8 alphas = .78; .83; grade 9 alphas = .89; .88), and *maternal restrictiveness* and paternal *restrictiveness* (e.g., "*I believe children should not keep secrets from their parents*" and "*I believe that a child should be seen and not heard*"; grade 8 alphas =.83; .81; grade 9 alphas = .86; .83).

Network of Relationships Inventory (NRI; Furman & Buhrmester, 1985; Appendix C). The *NRI*, a 33-item child self-report measure was used to assess the

quality of adolescents' relationships with their peers, mothers, and fathers. In the original measure, scores yielded 10 subscales which formed the following two factors: (a) *maternal and paternal support* (affection, admiration, instrumental aid, companionship, intimacy, nurturance, and reliable alliance) (grade 8 alphas = .93; .95; grade 9 alphas = .92; .95); and *maternal and paternal negativity* (punishment and conflict) with their adolescent (grade 8 alphas = .85; .88; grade 9 alphas = .85; .88). NRI subscales have adequate internal reliability across gender, ethnic, and adolescent age groups (Furman & Buhrmester, 1992).

Parenting Practices Scale (PPS; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994; Appendix D). The *PPS* is a 36 item adolescent self-report measure of parenting behaviors and relationships with mother or stepmother and father or stepfather. Scores from this measure yielded three subscales: (1) *acceptance and involvement* (reflecting parental love and engagement); (2) *strictness and supervision* (reflecting parental monitoring and limit setting); and (3) *psychological autonomy granting* (the extent to which parents encourage adolescent individuality and exploration). The current study utilized scores on items pertaining to *parental supervision* (grade 8 and grade 9 alpha = .79), *maternal involvement* (grade 8 alpha = .80; grade 9 alpha = .84), *paternal involvement* (grade 8 alpha =.85; grade 9 alpha = .84), *maternal autonomy granting* (grade 8 alpha = .68; grade 9 alpha = .73), and *paternal autonomy granting* (grade 8 alpha =.72; grade 9 alpha = .73).

Youth Self-Report (YSR; Achenbach & Rescorla, 2001; Appendix E). The YSR for adolescents ages 11-18 was designed to assess self-reports of psychological difficulties and behavior problems. The measure yielded eight narrow-band

syndromes (*somatic complaints*, *anxious/depressed*, *social problems*, *thought problems*, *attention problems*, *delinquent behavior*, *aggressive behavior*, and *social withdrawal*) and three broadband scores (*externalizing problems*, *internalizing problems,* and *total problems*). It also provided information about the adolescents' extracurricular and friendship activities. For the purposes of this study, I used the broadband *internalizing problems* score (grade 8 alpha = .88; grade 9 alpha = .90) to assess one aspect of adolescent psychological well-being.

Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents (SPP-A; Harter, 1988; Appendix F). This self-report measure was designed to assess adolescents' global self-worth as well as eight specific domains of competence: scholastic, social, athletic, physical appearance, job competence, romantic appeal, behavioral conduct, and close friendship. The items used to form the *global self-worth* factor (e.g., "*some teenagers are often disappointed with themselves*" and "*other teenagers are pretty pleased with themselves*"; Grade 8 alpha = .85; Grade 9 alpha = .68) were of particular interest in the present study and scores were used to measure *self-esteem* among adolescents. Due to a clerical error, the full Harter was excluded from cohort 1 and cohort 1b administrations. This greatly reduced the amount of data available, leaving me with only 93 complete data points. The final sample size for self-esteem mediation analyses was 93 participants (41 boys, 52 girls).

Leisure Activities Questionnaire (LAQ; on Passmore & French, 2001 and Fletcher, Elder, & Mekos, 2000; Appendix G). In the original study, the *LAQ* was used to explore the prevalence, enjoyment, and level of involvement in adolescents' out-of-school activities. Participants were given five categories of leisure activities

(sports leisure, artistic leisure, social leisure, free time by yourself, community service) and asked to report up to three activities that they were most involved in within each category. They were then asked to rate how often they participated, how enjoyable the activity was to them, and whether the activity was voluntary or not, using a 4-point Likert scale. In the current study, the LAQ was used to assess adolescents' level of involvement through measures of *participation intensity* and *enjoyment* in structured (sports, arts, and community service) and unstructured (social/with others and free-time/alone) leisure activities.

It must be noted that Montgomery County, MD mandates community service involvement for high school students. Therefore, it was important to distinguish which adolescents participated in voluntary community service activities. Among the 234 adolescents in this study, 50.4% of the adolescents (66 girls, 52 boys) participated in only voluntary community service activities during the 8th grade. In the 9th grade, this percentage dropped to 46.6% (69 girls, 40 boys). This decrease in voluntary community service activities in the 9th grade is probably attributable to the community service requirement mandated by the county government.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

An overview of procedures can be found in Table 1. Means and standard deviations for all study variables are presented in Table 2-4. Correlations among the study variables are presented in Tables 5-7.

Forming Leisure Variables

Intensity and enjoyment scores were computed separately for all structured and unstructured activities. To capture structured activity *intensity*, I calculated the frequency of involvement separately for *sports*, *arts*, and *community service* activities (the mean of the scores across the number of activities listed). I repeated this process to obtain unstructured activity *intensity* scores separately for *social* and *free-time* activity categories.

The continuous activity *enjoyment* scores for structured activities (*sports*, *arts*, and *community service*) and unstructured activities (*social* and *free-time by oneself*) were also used in the analyses.

Attrition Analysis

Since the present study was a longitudinal analysis, I examined the effect of attrition on the composition of my data by comparing adolescents who had complete data at both time points with those who had missing data at one or more time points, separately for all indicators in my study. I tested the differences in mother and father education, gender, and ethnicity for missing and complete data groups using

independent samples t-tests. The Cohen's *d* values were computed from the *t*-test of the differences between the independent means of each variable (see Cohen, 1992; Rosnow & Rosenthal, 1996).

Effects on Psychological Well-Being Data. Although a large number of adolescents were excluded from my analyses (n= 141) due to missing self-esteem data in the 9th grade, adolescents in the missing group did not differ significantly from those with complete data (n = 93) in the 8th and 9th grades in terms of their ethnicity or mother education levels. They did however, differ in their father's education levels (d=.03), with a higher percentage of adolescents with complete self-esteem data having father's with advanced degrees (university or graduate) degrees (48.9%) compared to those with missing data (41.7%). However, the effect size of this difference was very small so the results were considered negligible.

Only a few adolescents were missing internalizing problems data (n = 12). When compared to those with missing YSR data, the ethnic composition of the complete data group was more diverse (d= -.80). This effect size was large. Of the 12 adolescents in the missing group, 25% were African-American, 16.7% were Asian-American, and 58.3% were European-American. The complete data group was proportionately more diverse, partly due to a larger sample size (n=222).

Effects on Activity Involvement Data

Adolescents missing *sports participation intensity* data (n = 42) at one or two time points differed significantly from those with complete data (n = 192) in terms of group gender composition. Cohen's *d* value revealed a small effect of this difference (d = .46). Results revealed that there was a higher percentage of girls in the missing

group (71.4%) than in the complete data group (49%). Results were the same for sports enjoyment data group comparisons (*d* = .46).

Arts participation intensity and *arts enjoyment* comparisons revealed significant differences between those with missing data (n = 82) and those with complete data (n = 152) on measures of maternal education attainment. The mothers of adolescents with complete data reported higher levels of education attainment than those with missing data (*d* = -.37; *d* = -.37). 55.9% of the mothers of adolescents in the complete *intensity* and *enjoyment* data groups received an advanced (undergraduate or graduate) degree while 53.1% of the mothers in the missing *intensity* and *enjoyment* data groups achieved this level of attainment. It is important to note, however, that both of these effects were small.

Gender differences were revealed in *community service participation intensity* and *enjoyment* group comparisons. In both analyses, a greater percentage of females were present in the complete data group (60.7%; n = 107) than were present in the missing data group (46.5%; n = 127). Much like other findings, the effect sizes were small (*d* = -.29).

Group comparisons for *social activity* and *free-time participation* and *enjoyment* yielded no significant differences between missing (n = 25; n = 20) and complete data (n = 209; n = 214) groups' ethnicities, gender, or maternal or paternal education.

Effects on Family Process Data

Maternal nurturance data comparisons revealed significant differences between those with missing data (n = 20) and those with complete data (n = 214) on

measures of maternal education attainment. The percentage of mothers of adolescents with complete data reported higher levels of education attainment than those with missing data (*d* = -.56). This effect size was medium. 57.5% of the mothers of adolescents in the complete data group received an advanced (undergraduate or graduate) degree while 26.3% of the mothers in the missing data group achieved this level of attainment.

Maternal restrictiveness data comparisons revealed significant differences between those with missing data (n = 21) and those with complete data (n = 213) on measures of maternal education attainment. The percentage of mothers of adolescents with complete data reported higher levels of education attainment than those with missing data (*d* = -.60). This effect size was medium. 58.3% of the mothers of adolescents in the complete data group received an advanced (undergraduate or graduate) degree while 25% of the mothers in the missing data group achieved this level of attainment.

Paternal nurturance and *paternal restrictiveness* data comparisons revealed significant differences between those with missing data (n = 44; n = 44) and those with complete data (n =190; n = 190) on measures of child ethnicity. When compared to those with missing *paternal nurturance* data, the ethnic composition of the complete data group was more diverse (*d*= -.34; *d*= -.34). These effect sizes were small.

Perceived paternal involvement data comparisons yielded significant differences between those with missing data (n = 15) and those with complete data (n = 219) in terms of child gender (*d*= -.33). It must be noted that this effect size was

small. Those with missing data group had 80% girls while the complete data group had a more balanced sex distribution (51.1% girls).

Results examining group differences for p*erceived paternal autonomy granting* data yielded similar gender differences. Data comparisons yielded significant differences between those with missing data (n = 15) and those with complete data (n = 219) in terms of child gender (*d*= .63). This effect size was moderate. Those in the missing data group had 80% girls while the complete data group had a more balanced sex distribution (51.1% girls).

Parental Supervision data comparisons revealed significant differences between the missing data group (n = 5) and the complete data group (n = 229) in terms of ethnic composition (*d* = -.59). This effect size was moderate. The complete data group was more ethnically diverse than the missing data group. The missing data group only had European-American (40%), Latino/Hispanic-American (40%), and African-American (20%).

Further comparisons between missing and complete groups on perceived maternal and paternal support, maternal and paternal negativity, yielded non-significant differences in demographic characteristics.

Maternal involvement data were complete for the entire sample so no attrition analyses were conducted.

Diagnostics for Normality and Missing Data

In the first step of my analyses, I conducted descriptive tests to examine the extent of non-normality in the distributions of all family process, psychological well-being, and leisure activity variables. Results suggested that skewness values for

family process, psychological well–being, and leisure activity variables were between -2 and +2 while kurtosis values were between -3 and +3. This would indicate that the distribution for these variables were normal.

All study variables were also evaluated for missing data and results suggested there were varying patterns of missing data throughout this sample. Paternal nurturance and restrictiveness data were missing 14.5% of its responses. Sports participation intensity and enjoyment data were missing 13.2%, art participation intensity and enjoyment data were missing 24.8%, community service intensity data were missing 42.7%, and community service enjoyment data were missing 43.2%. All other family process and internalizing problems data were missing less than 5% of the data. Based on these results, I evaluated the extent to which this missing data was missing completely at random (MCAR). Little's (1988) MCAR test indicated that these data were not missing completely at random (χ^2 (1249) = 1367.723, $p <$ .05).

Since prior knowledge about the nature of missing self-esteem data was available, I conducted a separate missing value analysis on these data and Little's (1988) MCAR test indicated that they were, in fact, missing completely random (χ^2(195) = 192. 482, p =.54). The missing value analysis revealed that 9th grade self-esteem data were completely missing for 60.3% of the study participants (n=141). Since these data were missing completely at random (MCAR), available self-esteem data was still used in subsequent analyses. Cases with missing data were deleted because these data were verifiably MCAR, due to clerical error. The remaining 93 participants' data were used in analyses of self-esteem mediation.

Of the 234 participants with family process and internalizing problems data, none were missing greater than 20% of the data points (6 or more of the study variables). Therefore, cases were not deleted. This decision was made for two reasons. First, researchers (e.g., Little and Rubin, 1987) have concluded that in order to delete cases, these must be an assumption that the deleted cases are all missing completely at random (MCAR). My missing value analysis results revealed that these data contained patterns which suggested that values were not MCAR. Deleting cases where participants failed to report data would have introduced substantial bias into the study. Moreover, the loss in sample size due to these case deletions would have appreciably diminished the statistical power of my analyses. Given that this dataset included variables with more than 5% missing values, the cases were not deleted. Instead, missing data points were imputed using the Expectation-Maximization (EM) algorithm (Dempster, Laird, & Rubin, 1977).

Missing leisure activity intensity data were imputed in a two-step process. First, data for subjects with no response for activity intensity was interpreted as indicating no activity involvement. Therefore, these data were coded automatically as zero. After this data adjustment was made, I then imputed missing values using the EM algorithm.

Leisure enjoyment data also received special consideration. The sequence of the LAQ questions implied that an individual not involved in an activity would naturally skip the enjoyment question. Therefore, one would suggest that the missing enjoyment items be coded as zero. This substitution would have maintained a larger sample size. Unfortunately, substituting missing values with zeros for the enjoyment

scores would imply that missing values could not be attributed to response error. Additionally, replacing the missing values with the arbitrary value of zero would have biased my results. Therefore, the decision was made to leave these missing values in the dataset and run those analyses using the reduced sample.

Mediation Analyses

To directly test hypotheses 1-5, I conducted two separate sets of analyses to examine the significance of psychological well-being variables (internalizing problems and self-esteem) as mediators in the relations between:

1) 8th grade parent reported maternal and paternal nurturance or restrictiveness and 9th grade activity participation *intensity* and *enjoyment* (separately for sports, arts, community service, social, and free-time leisure).

and

2) 8th grade child perceptions of maternal and paternal support, negativity, involvement, autonomy granting, or parent supervision and 9th grade activity participation *intensity* and *enjoyment* (separately for sports, arts, community service, social, and free-time leisure).

First, simple mediation (including partial mediation and indirect effects) was examined using methods outlined by Preacher and Hayes (2008). An indirect effect macro, derived from Preacher and Hayes' methods (2008) was used to estimate the total, direct, and single-step indirect effects of family process variables on leisure activity participation *intensity* and *enjoyment* variables through indices of psychological well-being. Unstandardized path coefficients were estimated using OLS Regression (see Figure 2).

Second, moderated mediation was examined for significant mediation results, as outlined by Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes (2007). Using a moderated mediation macro (Preacher, Rucker, and Hayes, 2007), conditional indirect effects were estimated for family process variables on leisure activity participation *intensity* and/or *enjoyment* variable, through adolescent psychological well-being. Gender was included as a moderator of the path from family process variables to psychological well-being and the path from psychological well-being to leisure activity outcomes (see Figure 3). Unstandardized path coefficients were estimated using OLS Regression.

Non-parametric bootstrapping techniques were used to test for simple and moderated mediation, as recommended by MacKinnon (2000) and Preacher and Hayes (2008). Research suggests that bootstrapping is more powerful than the Sobel test and Baron and Kenny's (1986) causal steps approach to estimating mediation effects (see MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Williams, 2004; Williams & MacKinnon, 2008). The bootstrapping method estimates the distribution of the indirect effect (path a x path b; see Figure 2 and Figure 3) and assumes the sample distribution approximates the population distribution, without needing to meet the assumption of normality.

Mediation Results. In a model examining the mediating effect of *internalizing problems* on the relation between *perceived paternal involvement* and *sports activity intensity* ($R^2 = .12$, $F = 6.48$, $df = 5$, $p = .00$), results revealed a total effect of 8th grade *perceived paternal involvement* on 9th grade *sports activity intensity* (path c; $b = .26$; $p = .04$). Likewise, 8th grade *perceived paternal involvement* significantly affected 9th

grade *internalizing problems* (path a; b = -2.56; p = .00) and 9th grade *internalizing problems* significantly affected 9th grade *sports activity intensity* (path b; b = -.06; p = .00). The effect of *perceived paternal involvement* on *sports activity intensity* became non-significant when the effects of *internalizing problems* were controlled for (path c'; b =.12; p = .37) (see Figure 4). These results would suggest that *internalizing problems* completely mediated the relation between *perceived paternal involvement* and *sports activity intensity*. After employing Preacher and Hayes' (2008) bootstrapping method for indirect effects using 5000 bootstrap resamples to generate the confidence intervals of the indirect effects, the mediation was confirmed. Based on Preacher and Hayes' (2008) criteria, bootstrapping results are interpreted by determining whether a zero point is contained within the 95% bias-corrected confidence interval range. If zero is contained within this range, the indirect effect is not significant. The indirect effect of *perceived paternal involvement* on *sports activity intensity* through *internalizing problems* did not include a zero point (CI: .0571 to .2537). Therefore, the mediating relation was validated.

Moderated mediation analyses were later conducted to test whether the mediation of the relation between *perceived paternal involvement* and *sports activity intensity* through *internalizing problems* depended on gender. Two multiple regression models were created: the first tested the mediator variable model with *internalizing problems* as the dependent variable; the second tested the dependent variable model with *sports activity intensity* as the dependent variable, both predicted by *perceived paternal involvement*. Results indicated that gender was not a significant moderator of the above mediation. Regardless of adolescent gender,

internalizing problems mediated the relation between adolescents' perceptions of *paternal involvement* (prior to the high school transition) and *sports activity intensity* after the high school transition.

Similar results emerged for the model examining the mediating effect of *internalizing problems* on the relation between *perceived paternal involvement* and *sports activity enjoyment* (R^2= .11, F = 4.98, df = 5, p = .00). Results revealed a significant total effect of 8th grade *perceived paternal involvement* on 9th grade *sports activity enjoyment* (path c; b = .19; p = .00). Likewise, 8th grade *perceived paternal involvement* significantly affected 9th grade *internalizing problems* (path a; b = -2.45; p = .00) and 9th grade *internalizing problems* significantly affected 9th grade *sports activity enjoyment* (path b; b = -.01; p = .01). The effect of *perceived paternal involvement* on *sports activity enjoyment* remained significant but was reduced slightly when the effects of *internalizing problems* were controlled for (path c'; b =.16; p = .003) (see Figure 5). These results indicated that *internalizing problems* partially mediated the relation between *perceived paternal involvement* and *sports activity enjoyment*. I used Preacher and Hayes' (2008) bootstrapping method for indirect effects using 5000 bootstrap resamples to generate the confidence intervals of the indirect effects, and these results could not confirm this mediation. The indirect effect of *perceived paternal involvement* on *sports activity enjoyment* through *internalizing problems* did not include a zero point (CI: .0083 to .0939). Therefore, the mediating relation could was validated.

Moderated mediation analyses were later conducted to test whether the mediation of the relation between *perceived paternal involvement* and *sports activity*

enjoyment through *internalizing problems* depended on gender. Two multiple regression models were created: the first tested the mediator variable model with *internalizing problems* as the dependent variable; the second tested the dependent variable model with *sports activity enjoyment* as the dependent variable, both predicted by *perceived paternal involvement*. Results indicated that gender was not a significant moderator of the above mediation. Regardless of adolescent gender, *internalizing problems* mediated the relation between adolescents' perceptions of *paternal involvement* (prior to the high school transition) and *sports activity enjoyment* after the high school transition.

Additionally, while examining the mediating effects of *internalizing problems* on the relation between *perceived paternal support* and *sports activity enjoyment*, the model revealed a significant total effect of 8th grade *perceived paternal support* on 9th grade *sports activity enjoyment* (path c; $b = .05$, $p = .00$). Likewise, 8th grade *perceived paternal support* significantly affected 9th grade *internalizing problems* (path a; $b = -.96$; $p = .00$) and 9th grade *internalizing problems* significantly affected 9th grade *sports activity enjoyment* (path b; $b = -.02$; $p = .00$). The effect of *perceived paternal support* on *sports activity enjoyment* became non-significant when the effects of *internalizing problems* were controlled for (path c'; $b =.04$; $p = .07$) (see Figure 6). These results suggested that *internalizing problems* completely mediated the relation between *perceived paternal support* and *sports activity enjoyment*. After employing Preacher and Hayes' (2008) bootstrapping method for indirect effects using 5000 bootstrap resamples, the confidence interval measuring the indirect effect of *perceived paternal support* on *sports activity enjoyment* through *internalizing*

problems did not include a zero point (CI: .0021 to .0730). Therefore, the mediating relation was confirmed.

Moderated mediation analyses were later conducted to test whether the mediation of the relation between *perceived paternal support* and *sports activity enjoyment* through *internalizing problems* depended on gender. Two multiple regression models were created: the first tested the mediator variable model with *internalizing problems* as the dependent variable; the second tested the dependent variable model with *sports activity enjoyment* as the dependent variable, both predicted by *perceived paternal support*. Results indicated that gender was not a significant moderator of the above mediation. Regardless of adolescent gender, *internalizing problems* mediated the relation between adolescents' perceptions of *paternal support* (prior to the high school transition) and *sports activity enjoyment* after the high school transition.

Indirect Effects. Although Baron and Kenny (1986) suggested that mediation is only probable when the total effect of an independent variable is significant, other statisticians have concluded that this condition is not completely necessary in order to establish mediation (see Hayes, 2009; Judd & Kenny, 2010; MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). In fact, it is suggested that mediation inferences can be justified if there is an established relation between 1) an independent variable and the mediator (path a); and 2) a mediator and the dependent variable (path b; MacKinnon et al, 2002). In this case, the variance in Y can be attributed to the indirect effect of the independent variable.

To further explore this concept, I decided to also consider the potential indirect effects present in my models.

One significant indirect effect emerged while examining the effects of *perceived maternal negativity* in the 8th grade on 9th grade *arts enjoyment* through 9th grade *self-esteem*. In the *arts enjoyment* model (R^2= .21, F = 3.44, df = 5, p = .00), the effect of 8th grade *perceived maternal negativity* on 9th grade *self-esteem* was significant (path a; b = -.35; p = .00). Likewise, 9th grade *self-esteem* significantly affected 9th grade *arts enjoyment* (path b; b = .50; p = .00). The effect of *perceived maternal negativity* on *arts enjoyment* controlling for *self-esteem*, remained significant (path c'; b = .35; p = .01). However, the total effect of *perceived maternal negativity* on *arts enjoyment* was not significant (path c; b = .17; p = .15; see Figure 7). Preacher and Hayes'(2008) bootstrapping method for indirect effects revealed a significant 95% bias corrected confidence interval range (CI: -.3210 to -.0059). Therefore, the indirect effect of *perceived maternal negativity* on *arts enjoyment* through *self-esteem* was validated. A negative confidence interval indicated that indirectly, higher levels of *maternal negativity* in the 8th grade predicted lower levels of *arts enjoyment* through adolescents' *self-esteem*. That is, higher levels of *maternal negativity* led to lower levels of *self-esteem*. Consequently, lower levels of *self-esteem* led to lower levels of *arts enjoyment*.

Moderated mediation analyses were later conducted to test whether the indirect relation between *perceived maternal negativity* and *arts enjoyment* through *self-esteem* was conditioned upon adolescent gender. Two multiple regression models were created: the first tested the mediator variable model with *self-esteem* as the

dependent variable; the second tested the dependent variable model with *arts enjoyment* as the dependent variable, both predicted by *perceived maternal negativity*. Results indicated that gender was not a significant moderator of the above indirect effect. Regardless of gender, adolescents' perceptions of *maternal negativity* (prior to the high school transition) indirectly affected their *arts enjoyment* after the high school transition; and this relation was determined through their *self-esteem*.

Other models revealed significant direct effects of the independent variables on mediators and mediators on dependent variables. Specifically, significant direct effects emerged in models predicting the relations between *sports activity intensity* and: 1) *paternal* and *maternal support*; 2) *maternal autonomy granting*; and 3) *paternal involvement* through adolescent *internalizing problems.* Unfortunately, bootstrapping results were insignificant, so these indirect effects were not validated.

All other mediation analyses examining *internalizing problems* and *self-esteem* as mediators between parent-reported maternal and paternal *nurturance* and *restrictiveness* and activity involvement dimensions (sports, arts, community service, social leisure, and free-time *intensity* and *enjoyment*) were non-significant.

Likewise, remaining analyses examining *internalizing problems* and *self-esteem* as mediators between child-reported maternal *support*, *involvement*, *autonomy granting* and activity involvement dimensions (sports, arts, community service, social leisure, and free-time *intensity* and *enjoyment*) were non-significant. These psychological well-being dimensions also failed to mediate the relations between maternal *negativity* and remaining activity involvement dimensions (sports, arts,

community service, social, and free-time *intensity*; sports, community service, social, and free-time *enjoyment*).

Models exploring *internalizing problems* and *self-esteem* as mediators between child-reported paternal *support* or *involvement* and arts, community service, social, or free-time *intensity* and *enjoyment* were also non-significant. Internalizing problems and self-esteem also failed to mediate the relations between *paternal negativity* and *autonomy granting*, and activity involvement dimensions (sports, arts, community service, social, and free-time *intensity* and *enjoyment*).

Neither *internalizing problems* nor *self-esteem* mediated the relations between *parent supervision* and activity involvement dimensions (sports, arts, community service, social, and free-time *intensity* and *enjoyment*).

Other Significant Relations

Post-Hoc hierarchical linear regression analyses were performed for all of the above non-significant relations between family process variables and leisure involvement outcomes. Although these analyses weren't included in the original data analytic plan, I chose to examine these relations for two important reasons. First, in the absence of significant mediation results, I wanted to substantiate the claim that family processes can have a direct influence on adolescent leisure activity involvement. Second, I wanted to also prove that gender successfully moderates some of these relations. Therefore, I examined the extent to which 8th grade family process variables predicted 9th grade leisure outcomes and whether these relations were moderated by adolescent gender. Separate models were run for each relation and independent variables were entered in the following steps: Step 1: child ethnicity,

mother education, father education; Step 2: gender; Step 3: family process variable; Step 4: the interaction between gender and the family process variable. Additional analyses were performed to examine the extent to which 9th grade psychological well-being predicted 9th grade leisure outcomes and whether these relations were moderated by adolescent gender. Independent variables were entered in the following steps: Step 1: child ethnicity, mother education, and father education; Step 2: gender; Step 3: psychological well-being; Step 4: the interaction between gender and psychological well-being.

Significant interactions were probed using methods outlined by Preacher, Curran, and Bauer (2006) based on well-known interaction probing procedures (e.g., Aiken & West, 1991; Bauer & Curran, 2005; Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2003).

Gender-x-Family Process Interaction Effects. Results revealed numerous gender by family process variable interaction effects.

To begin, significant gender by *perceived maternal support* interactions were found when predicting: 1) *sports activity intensity* (R^2 Δ = .02; *F* Change = 4.22; *p* = .04; *β*= .72, *p*= .04); 2) *arts activity intensity* (R^2 Δ = .03; *F* Change = 6.14; *p* = .01; *β*= .89, *p*= .01); 3) *arts enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .08; *F* Change = 16.43; *p* = .00; *β*= 1.45, *p*= .00); 4) *community service activity intensity* (R^2 Δ = .02; *F* Change = 4.51; *p* = .04; *β*= .76, *p*= .04); and 4) *community service enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .03; *F* Change = 4.38; *p* = .04; *β*= .86, *p*= .04) (see Tables 9-13).

An inspection of the simple slopes revealed that the more adolescent *girls* perceived their mothers as supportive in the 8th grade, the more time they dedicated to

sports activities (t = 2.43, p =.02). This relation was not significant for boys (t = .49, p = .63).

Additionally, when probing the *gender* by *maternal support* interaction predicting *arts activity intensity*, results suggested that adolescent girls, who perceived their mothers as more supportive in the 8th grade, became more involved in arts activities in the 9th grade. However, this slope was not significantly different from zero (t = .78, p = .44).

For *arts enjoyment*, results suggested that both boys' and girls' *arts enjoyment* were predicted by their perceptions of maternal support. The more they perceived their mothers as supportive in middle school, the more they enjoyed arts activities in the first year of high school. This relation was stronger for girls than for boys (boys: t = 2.04, p = .04; girls: t = 4.78, p = .00).

Interaction probing results also revealed that higher levels of *perceived maternal support* in the 8th grade predicted higher levels of *community service intensity* in the 9th grade for girls (t = 2.31, p = .02). In the case of *community service enjoyment*, higher levels of perceived *maternal support* in the 8th grade predicted higher levels of enjoyment in the 9th grade for boys *and* girls (boys: t = 2.19, p = .03; girls: t = 3.41, p = .00). Yet, this relation was more significant for adolescent girls than for boys.

Results also revealed significant *gender* by *maternal involvement* interaction effects when predicting: 1) *arts activity intensity* (R^2 Δ = .03; F Change = 7.37; p = .01; β= 1.34, p= .01); and 2) *arts enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .02; F Change = 4.17; p = .04; β= 1.10, p= .04) (see Tables 14-15). An examination of the simple slopes suggested that

perceptions of greater support among girls in the 8th grade led to more time spent and greater levels of enjoyment in *arts* activities during the 9th grade (t = 1.97, p = .05; t = 4.80, p = .00). These relations was not significant for boys (t = .49, p = .62; t = 1.41, p = .16).

Additional interaction effects emerged in the models of *perceived paternal support* predicting *free time enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .02; F Change = 3.81; p = .05; β= -.72, p= .05) (see Table 16). Interaction probing revealed that greater levels of perceived *paternal support* in the 8th grade was associated with higher levels of enjoyment during *free-time activities* for adolescent boys (t= 1.99, p = .05).

While evaluating the relations between parent-reported parenting behaviors and adolescent leisure outcomes, results revealed a significant *gender* by *paternal nurturance* interaction when predicting: 1) *arts enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .02; F Change = 4.68; p = .03; β= 2.06, p= .03); 2) *community service enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .02; F Change = 4.68; p = .03; β= 2.06, p= .03) (see Tables 17-18). Specifically, higher levels of parent-reported *paternal nurturance* predicted higher levels of *community service enjoyment* among adolescent girls (t = 2.16, p = .03). Additionally, higher levels of *nurturance* predicted higher levels of artistic enjoyment among girls (t = -1.50, p = .14) and *lower* levels of enjoyment among boys (t = 1.57, p = .12). However, the latter simple slopes were not significantly different from zero.

Gender-x-Psychological Well-being Interaction Effects. Final analyses evaluating the relations between psychological well-being and leisure outcomes yielded a significant *gender* by *internalizing problems* interaction when predicting *social activity enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .02; F Change = 4.40; p = .04; β= -2.10, p= .04) (see

Table 19). Higher levels of *internalizing problems* predicted lower levels of *social activity enjoyment* among adolescent girls (t = -1.30, p = .20). However, the simple slope was not significantly different from zero.

Family Process Main effects. Analyses revealed a significant main effect for *perceived maternal autonomy granting* when predicting *sports enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .02; F Change =4.09; p = .05). A positive beta weight (β = .15, p = .05) suggested that adolescents who perceived their mothers as granting autonomy prior to the high school transition, enjoyed participating in sports in the 9th grade.

A significant main effect also surfaced for *perceived paternal autonomy granting* when predicting *sports activity intensity* (R^2 Δ = .02; F Change =4.99; p = .03). A positive beta weight (β = .16, p = .03) indicated that adolescents who believed their fathers granted autonomy to them in middle school dedicated more time to sports activities in the 9th grade.

Another significant main effect emerged for *parental supervision* when predicting *community service enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .08; F Change =12.54; p = .00). A positive beta weight (β = .28, p = .00) suggested that those adolescents who thought their parents supervised them prior to the high school transition enjoyed participating in community service activities during their first year in high school.

Results also generated significant main effects for *perceived maternal involvement* when predicting: 1) *sports activity intensity* (R^2 Δ = .03; F Change =7.27; p = .01, β = .18, p = .01); 2) *sports activity enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .04; F Change =7.80; p = .01, β = .20, p = .01); 3) *community service enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .04; F Change = 6.45; p = .01, β = .22, p = .01); 4) *social activity intensity* (R^2 Δ = .00; F Change =

3.82; p = .05, β = .13, p = .05); 5) *social activity enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .02; F Change = 4.00; p = .05, β = .14, p = .05); 6) *free-time enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .02; F Change = 4.00; p = .05, β = .14, p = .05). The presence of positive beta weights indicated that adolescents who reported their mothers as being involved in their daily lives during the 8th grade dedicated more of their time to sports, and social activities and enjoyed sports, community service, social activities, and free-time activities during the 9th grade.

Results also generated significant main effects for *perceived paternal involvement* when predicting: 1) *arts enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .04; F Change =8.44; p = .00, β = .21, p = .00); 2) *social activity intensity* (R^2 Δ = .02; F Change =3.96; p = .05, β = .13, p = .05); and 3) *social leisure enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .02; F Change =4.54; p = .03, β = .15, p = .03). Like those with involved mothers, adolescents who thought their fathers were involved in their daily lives prior to the high school transition reported dedicating more time to social activities and enjoying sports, arts, and social activities in the first year of high school.

Likewise, there was a significant main effect for *perceived paternal negativity* when predicting *community service intensity* (R^2 Δ = .02; F Change =4.17; p = .04, β = -.13, p = .04). Those adolescents who viewed their relationships with their fathers as negative in the 8th grade reported being less involved in community service activities in the 9th grade.

In an examination of the relations between parent-reported parenting and adolescent leisure outcomes, a significant main effect emerged for *maternal* and *paternal nurturance* when predicting *community service intensity* (R^2 Δ = .02; F

Change =4.17; p = .04, β = -.13, p = .04 and R^2 Δ = .03; F Change = 6.57; p = .01, β = .17, p = .01 respectively). Adolescents with mothers who reported that they were less nurturing in the 8th grade participated in community service activities more in the 9th grade. Whereas those with fathers who thought they were nurturing in the 8th grade invested more time in community service activities in the 9th grade.

Psychological Well-being Main Effects. While examining the direct relations between psychological well-being and leisure activity involvement outcomes, the following significant main effects emerged:

Significant main effects were present for *internalizing problems* when predicting: 1) *sports activity intensity* (R^2 Δ = .06; F Change =14.70; p = .00, β = -.24, p = .00); 2) *sports enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .04; F Change =9.41; p = .00, β = -.22, p = .00). Those adolescents with higher levels of internalizing difficulties prior to the high school transition dedicated less time to sports activities and enjoyed sports less in the 9th grade.

The final significant main effect emerged for *self-esteem* when predicting *arts activity enjoyment* (R^2 Δ = .06; F Change =5.64; p = .02, β = .25, p = .02). Adolescents with high levels of self-esteem at the end of middle school enjoyed participating in arts activities in the 9th grade.

CHAPTER 5:

DISCUSSION

In the present study, I sought to illuminate the importance of parents in adolescents' leisure activity contexts. Few studies have attempted to evaluate the processes by which adolescents choose to engage in leisure activities and even fewer have evaluated the predictive validity of specific family processes on leisure outcomes during early and middle adolescence. The only researchers who have drawn links between parenting predictors and adolescent leisure outcomes are Eccles and Harold (1991) and Dempsey et al (1993), using an Expectancy-Value Approach. However, these investigators limited their evaluations to sports leisure and physical activity participation. The present study corroborates the general assumptions made in Eccles and Harold's (1991) application of the Expectancy-Value Model of Achievement Choices; that socializers (e.g., parents) act as interpretive systems that influence the way adolescents make choices. Findings from the present study have successfully extended this theoretical model to: 1) include parent- and child-reports of parenting behaviors beyond goal expectancies; 2) incorporate alternative dimensions of psychological well-being like internalizing problems and general self-esteem as mediators; and 3) to expand the theoretical applications to other structured and unstructured leisure activity outcomes.

The first goal of the present study was to examine the extent to which 8th grade maternal and paternal family process indicators related to adolescent leisure activity involvement across the high school transition and to investigate the extent to which psychological well-being mediated these relations. The second goal of the

study was to explore whether boys and girls differed in the extent to which their internalizing symptomology and self-esteem mediated the prospective relations between family processes (maternal and paternal parenting) and leisure activity involvement across the high school transition. Five main hypotheses were offered to explain these relations.

The first and second hypotheses incorporated assumptions about gender socialization which suggest that parents have different expectations for their sons and daughters and they behave differently toward same- and opposite-sex children (e.g., Leaper, 2002; Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Huston, 1985). I proposed that both parent- and child-report of *paternal* parenting behaviors would have an indirect effect on gender-typed leisure activities through internalizing problems and self-esteem for girls, and not for boys. Likewise, based on the literature linking gender and psychological well-being, I hypothesized that psychological well-being would fail to mediate the relations between parent- and child-reports of *paternal* parenting dimensions and boys' gender-socialized activity (sports, social, and free-time leisure) *intensity* and *enjoyment*.

The third and fourth hypotheses also incorporated assumptions about gender socialization to explore how dimensions of psychological well-being would mediate the relations between *maternal* parenting dimensions and adolescent leisure activity involvement. Unlike fathers, I thought that mothers' parenting behaviors would indirectly impact each type of leisure activity variable, through self-esteem and internalizing problems, regardless of the adolescents' gender.

Mediation and Indirect Effects

Results from the present study yielded three successful mediations. Specifically, these results suggested that regardless of gender, an adolescents' internalizing problems act as a filter through which *perceptions* of *paternal involvement* and *support* effect aspects of adolescent sports activity involvement. Importantly, these results speak volumes about the extent to which an adolescent's *perceptions* of their father's parenting affect their psychological well-being and how internalizing difficulties can hinder their involvement in constructive leisure like sports after the transition to high school. Adolescents, who perceived their fathers as less involved or less supportive prior to the high school transition, were likely to exhibit greater levels of internalizing problems during the first year of high school. Consequently, these psychological difficulties lead them to become less involved and enjoy sports less during the 9th grade year. These results support that claims that adolescents with internalizing problems are, in general, less involved in sports activities (Bartko & Eccles, 2003). Likewise, these findings suggest that parents have a significant influence on adolescent leisure activities. Parents often play a major role in youth sports participation through emotional and financial support for their adolescents (Rowley, 1986). This role may be particularly salient for fathers since sports is a male dominated leisure domain. Fathers can be very instrumental in helping their adolescent children cope with losing, encouraging them to persevere, and guiding them to understand how sports lessons can be applied to their daily lives (Rowley, 1986). Overall, the support and involvement that a child perceives in the parent-child relationship, and specifically the father-child relationship, ultimately has

an impact on their enjoyment and level of involvement in sports activities (Rowley, 1986).

One indirect effect also emerged and partially confirmed the third and fourth hypotheses. These findings suggested that regardless of adolescent gender, *maternal negativity* had a negative impact on adolescent *arts enjoyment* across the high school transition, through adolescent *self-esteem*. This finding is meaningful and important for many reasons.

First, this finding has developmental relevance. Research suggests that a negative parent-adolescent relationship can emerge as a result of the stressful transition from childhood to adolescence (Dekovic, Noom, & Meeus, 1997; Montemayor, 1983; Smetana, 1989, 1995). Specifically, as adolescent girls mature, there is a strain in their relationships with both mothers and fathers (Steinberg, 1988). Likewise, the pubertal development of adolescent boys is related to greater emotional distance in the father-son relationship and increased externalized conflict between mothers and sons (Steinberg, 1988). The present findings support these claims and suggest that the presence of parental negativity during the transition from middle school to high school can influence adolescent psychological well-being. Even more importantly, this finding suggests that an adolescent's *perceptions* of the level of negativity within the parent-adolescent relationship play a large role in their adjustment after the high school transition. Since the high school transition is such a stressful time, marked by numerous hormonal and physical changes, an adolescent's perceptions of negativity in the parent-adolescent relationship could be heightened. Researchers suggest that children's perceptions of parental attitudes and the

emotional tone of the parent-child relationship influence their behavior *more* than observed parent-child relationship quality (Demo, Small, & Savin-Williams, 1987). For this reason, findings highlighting the impact of an adolescent's perceptions of negativity on their psychological well-being and leisure involvement are rather significant.

Second, these findings corroborate evidence suggesting that parent negativity has a direct impact on adolescent self-esteem (Tucker, McHale, & Crouter, 2003). Some studies have suggested that girls report lower levels of self-esteem than boys (Wilgenbusch & Merrell, 1999); and that since girls' self worth is closely related to intra-familial relationship quality, conflict within the mother-daughter relationship could potentially threaten a girl's self-concept more than a boy's self-concept (Mandara & Murray, 2000; Shulman & Seiffge-Krenke, 1997). The present findings suggest though, that the impact of maternal negativity on adolescent self-esteem is in no way dependent upon gender. This finding remains consistent with self-concept literature and theory which concludes that significant gender differences in self-esteem may not exist (Wylie, 1979). In fact, since there lacks strong evidence that boys and girls differ in their self-esteem (Marsh, Parker, & Barnes, 1985; Mullis, Mullis, & Normandin, 1992; Wylie, 1979), this finding supports the literature extant, specifying that gender has no impact on the extent to which maternal negativity influences adolescent self-esteem.

Third, in a more narrow sense, the above findings have shed light on the influence that parenting dimensions have on the qualitative experiences of adolescents. Specifically, these findings indicated that *maternal negativity* had a

negative influence on *arts enjoyment*. This result could imply that the negative emotional climate within the parent-adolescent relationship can translate into poor affective experiences outside of the home. Just as attachment theory posits that children learn how to interact with the world through interactions with socializers, perhaps the learned emotional responses that result from a negative parent-adolescent relationship will result in negative emotional responses within activities that are supposed to be voluntary and fun. To compound this problem, self-worth acts as an indirect conduit of these emotional responses. So, if an adolescent perceives high levels of negativity in their relationship with their mother, the negative affect associated with the relationship can translate to negative self-appraisal. Likewise, this negative self-appraisal can lead to negative appraisals of performance related activities. Since arts activities are creative in nature and require a lot of subjective appraisal, a person with lower self-esteem can be less likely to enjoy such an activity.

Interaction Effects

Although specific hypotheses were not offered about the nature and magnitude of relations between individual family process variables, psychological well-being, and leisure involvement outcomes.

Perceived Maternal and Paternal Social Support. The study findings suggest that adolescent perceptions of both *maternal* and *paternal social support* have a significant influence on adolescent *girls'* sports activity involvement. Since the institution of Title IX (see Carpenter & Acosta, 2005 for overview), both mothers and fathers seem to have more incentive to encourage their daughters to participate in

extracurricular sports. These present results echo this sentiment and further suggest that adolescent girl's *perceptions* of their parents' social support play a role in aspects of their sports leisure involvement. On one hand, mothers' general social support (e.g., companionship, instrumental help, intimacy, nurturance, affection, reliable alliance) seems to encourage adolescent girls to spend more time participating in sports activities. On the other hand, perceptions of fathers' support seem to contribute to the affective nature of girls' sports experiences. Perhaps mothers in this study are providing *instrumental* support for girls' sports participation (e.g., transporting them to and from practice or rearranging the family schedule to accommodate games) while fathers are providing the *emotional* support that comes with encouraging their daughters' sportsmanship and performance in athletics.

Another hypothesis about these relations can be found in the emotional response literature of sports psychology. Theorists in this field suggest that there is an emotional component in sports involvement which can have an effect on performance, motivation, and self-efficacy (see Scanlan, Babkes, & Scanlan, 2005). Specifically, an adolescent's positive perceptions of parental interactions act as sources of enjoyment for them within sports participation experiences (Scanlan, Babkes, & Scanlan, 2005). In fact, sports enjoyment is a direct result of adolescents' positive perceptions of interactions with and feedback from parents, coaches, and other significant individuals. For example, in a study of male wrestlers' emotional experiences in sports, Scanlan and Lewthwaite (1986) found that these athletes experienced greater enjoyment during the sports season when they perceived: 1) lower levels of parental pressure to wrestle; 2) parents and coaches had greater levels

of satisfaction with their performance; 3) higher levels of parental and coach involvement; and 4) fewer negative reactions about performance from *mothers*. Unlike positive interactions, negative interactions and appraisals within significant relationships results in stressful leisure experiences (Scanlan, Babkes, & Scanlan, 2005). This research suggests that perceived parent control, high performance expectations, and negative performance reactions are directly associated with lower levels of sports activity enjoyment (Averill & Power, 1995; Babkes & Weiss, 1999; Brustad, 1988). Although the present study didn't evaluate domain-specific supportive behavior, general social support includes components (e.g., specific components of instrumental help, admiration, and reliable alliance) that are relevant within the sports domain. Therefore, it is safe to conclude that these findings are an extension of this extant literature.

Additional social support results roughly reflected the stereotypical association between parent gender and gender-typed leisure activity involvement. Specifically, *maternal support* was related to arts and community service activity involvement while *paternal support* was related to free-time activities. There is no easy explanation for the differential impact that maternal and paternal parenting dimensions have on adolescent leisure outcomes. However, socialization theories can lend substantial knowledge to help explain this phenomenon. From early childhood, mothers have been observed to engage in more creative, cerebral games with their children, while fathers engage more in rough and tumble play (Jacklin, Dipiertro, & Maccoby, 1984). As a child gets older, mothers are still more concerned with the activities that incorporate learning tasks, demonstrate social roles, and emphasize

emotional bonds between mother and child (Roopnarine & Mounts, 1985). Fathers, on the other hand, are often concerned with instrumental and carefree activities like building a toy plane or free-play (Leaper, 2000). Given these associations, boys and girls are trained, from an early age, to interact with their parents differently with regard to leisure. They are taught to engage in a more emotional way with their mothers and in a more utilitarian way with their fathers. Consequently, it is quite possible that these children are socialized to value their fathers more in male gender-typed activities and value their mothers more in female gender-typed activities (Lytton & Romney, 1991; Siegal, 1987). The present study also suggests that these perceptions can differ by adolescent gender. Although *maternal support* contributed equally to adolescent boys' and girls' *arts* and *community service enjoyment*, there were differential effects for girls in the prediction of *arts* and *community service intensity*. Perhaps the amount of *time* that girls are involved in gender-typed activities (e.g., *arts* and *community service*) is a reflection of early mother-daughter play interactions. Perhaps these adolescent girls are socialized to associate their mothers with activities of this nature. Therefore, perceptions of their mother's support (which may encourage arts and community service involvement) might greatly influence the investment they have in these activities.

Paternal support also followed this same gender-typed pattern in the prediction of *free-time enjoyment* for boys. As mentioned above, boys tend to be given more freedom in their leisure activity choices than girls (Larson & Verma, 1999). In fact, fathers seem to be the main agents of this type of socialization, as they are more inclined to encourage gender-typed activities than mothers (Lytton &

Romney, 1991; Siegal, 1987). In addition to this, research suggests that early adolescents learn to associate their fathers with less serious, less structured leisure activity like fun games (Shulman & Seiffge-Krenke, 1997). Since there is an established association between paternal parenting and gender-typed behavioral socialization and since research suggests that adolescents associate fun, free activities with fathers, the above findings support the literature extant and extend prior knowledge in this area.

Maternal involvement. As mentioned above, researchers have suggested that mothers and fathers differ in the extent to which they are involved in their adolescent children's lives. Since mothering has been associated with more emotional aspects of caregiving and parenting (Parsons & Bales, 1955), perceptions of maternal involvement (e.g., spending time with and helping adolescents) might play a very important role in adolescent leisure experiences and decision making, especially during the stressful high school transition. Perhaps adolescents view their mothers as an anchor during these uncertain times and their involvement is critical to their adaptive functioning after this developmental transition. Although fathers play an equally important role in adolescent development, research suggests that they generally spend less time with their adolescents and are less familiar with their daily activities (Shulman & Seiffge-Krenke, 1997). Likewise, unlike mothers, fathers tend to de-emphasize intimacy and disclosure in the parent-adolescent relationship and encourage emotional distance between them and their children (Shulman & Seiffge-Krenke, 1997). Such parenting strategies consequently lead fathers to be less proximal (emotionally and sometimes physically) to their adolescent children.

Perhaps the distance that is created in the parent-adolescent relationship causes adolescents to rely less on their fathers' involvement. Theorists suggest that although most fathers are moderately present, an adolescents' confidence that their fathers will be there in the time of need is enough for them not to rely on their immediate involvement. Mothers, on the other hand, *do* foster more intimate, close relationships with their adolescents (Shulman & Seiffge-Krenke, 1997). Since they are mostly present and engage in daily activities with their children more than fathers, adolescents can come to rely on their involvement more. The results of the current study suggest that this may even be more important for girls than for boys, especially when it comes to *arts* activity involvement. Since mothers socialize girls to engage in activities that are more creative and cerebral (Jacklin, Dipiertro, & Maccoby, 1984), it is clear why girls who perceive their mothers as more involved prior to the school transition would become more involved and enjoy participation in *arts* activities after the school transition.

It is unclear why maternal involvement would not significantly predict other gender-typed leisure activities however. Perhaps future investigations are necessary to explore this issue further.

Paternal Nurturance. Contrary to my assumptions, significant relations between parent reports of parental nurturance and adolescent leisure activity involvement appeared to emerge for fathers only. Additionally, the relations between *paternal nurturance* and *arts* and *community service* enjoyment appeared to be significant for girls and not for boys. Since the *arts* and *community service* are often associated with adolescent girls and since fathers are more prone to encourage

gender-typed behaviors, it is clear how these relations could be significant for girls and not boys. Perhaps fathers' nurturance is very specific to gender appropriate behaviors and attitudes. Further studies will need to be conducted to explore the reasons behind these relations.

Internalizing Problems. Although this variable was not a significant mediator between parenting processes and adolescent leisure, it appeared to have a significant effect on *social activity enjoyment* for girls. In fact, those girls with internalizing difficulties prior to the high school transition were less likely to enjoy social leisure during the 9th grade. This finding supports evidence which suggests that adolescents with internalizing problems are less likely to engage in leisure activities (Bohnert & Garber, 2007). The present study also extents the current knowledge about links between internalizing problems and *unstructured* leisure involvement. For those who are anxious or depressed, social interactions can be uncomfortable and these adolescents would rather opt out of social leisure altogether. Since girls appear to suffer from internalizing problems more than boys (Scaramella, Conger, and Simons, 1999), it also makes sense that gender differences would emerge in the present analyses.

Main Effects

Maternal and Paternal Autonomy Granting. Research suggests that adolescent identity development is directly linked to the extent to which parents encourage their children to stay connected to them and explore their own individuality (Cooper, Grotevant, & Condon, 1983). In fact, a balanced parent-adolescent relationship marked with balanced independence and connectedness lends to optimal development

(Hodges, Finnegan, & Perry, 1999). The present study supports this claim and suggests that healthy levels of autonomy can positively impact functioning in the sports leisure context. Specifically, *maternal autonomy granting* was related to the affective component of sports participation (*enjoyment*) while *paternal autonomy granting* was related to the more instrumental aspect of sports leisure involvement (*intensity*). These finding suggest that adolescents' perceptions of their mothers' willingness to grant independence prior to the high school transition plays more of an important role in the emotional experience of sports participation. Additionally, these results indicate that perceptions of fathers' autonomy granting are more important for adolescents' time investment. However, the fact that prior results revealed different associations between *maternal* and *paternal social support* and *sports* involvement (maternal support was related to *intensity* while paternal support was related to *enjoyment*) confirms the idea that mother and father parenting play *different* roles in *different* leisure experiences.

Parental Supervision. Mixed results have emerged in the literature referencing the role of parental supervision in adolescent leisure activity involvement. Although some researchers have argued few to no effects of parental supervision on adolescent leisure choices (Mahoney & Sattin, 2000), there are still some studies which suggest otherwise (Fletcher, Darling, & Steinberg, 1995; Huebner & Mancini, 2003). The present study revealed that perceived *parental supervision* does in fact have a positive impact on *community service enjoyment*, regardless of adolescent gender and psychological well-being. This finding is in direct support of my fifth hypothesis. However, these findings contradict the available literature which suggests that parents

monitor the free-time usage of their boys and girls differently. Research suggests that parents may monitor adolescent girls' behavior more closely than adolescent boys' (Dishion & McMahon, 1998; Smetana & Daddis, 2002). Additionally, mothers and fathers are believed to place fewer constraints on adolescent boys and allow them more freedom outside the home (Hagan, Gillis, & Simpson, 1987). From these conclusions, one could infer that greater behavioral constraints for girls would lead to less fulfilling leisure experiences. The present study suggests that this type of emotional response would not exist for girls involved in community service activities because there were no gender differences in the extent to which parent supervision/monitoring influenced *community service leisure enjoyment*. Such results suggest that regardless of gender, parental monitoring and supervision are positive influences on the affective experiences of adolescents in leisure contexts. Although excessive supervision can have adverse effects on the parent-adolescent relationship, the more knowledge that a parent has about their child's after-school involvement, the better they can connect their children with people and groups that are best suited for them. Parents can play an integral role in establishing connections for their children in the community. In fact, this domain may be an area where parents have more influence than others; so appropriate levels of supervision in community service involvement are good. Therefore, the present results corroborate the evidence that parental supervision can have a positive impact on adolescent leisure choices, especially within the community service activity domain.

Maternal and Paternal Involvement. Perceptions of maternal and paternal involvement are very important determinants of adolescent well-being. In fact, the

extent to which an adolescent can receive help with practical and developmental tasks, count on parents to encourage them to their best, and explain things clearly can be really important in the leisure context also. If an adolescent feels like they can rely on their parents to help them through their developmental and leisure experiences, they can make it through very stressful periods like the transition to adolescence and high school (Shulman & Seiffge-Krenke, 1997). The present study suggests that *maternal involvement* is salient within a more diverse group of leisure activities than *paternal involvement*. While paternal involvement affected arts and social leisure enjoyment as well as social leisure intensity, *maternal involvement* seemed to affect sports, community service, social, and free-time leisure involvement. These findings echo the above mentioned relations between maternal involvement and parent-adolescent relationship quality. Perhaps, adolescents' perceptions of their mothers' involvement has more salience in these activities because mothers are just more involved in more aspects of their teenagers' lives than fathers. Future research can conduct better comparisons of these relations.

Maternal and Paternal Nurturance. Findings about the effects of *perceived paternal nurturance* on *community service intensity* corroborates the existing literature which states that a warm, nurturing relationship leads to positive developmental outcomes (Weiss & Schwarz, 1996). Specifically, higher levels of *paternal nurturance* led to higher levels of participation in community service activities. On the contrary, findings relating perceptions of *maternal nurturance* suggests that adolescents who perceived their mothers as less nurturing invested more time in *community service leisure* during the 9th grade. The latter finding contradicts

existing literature and suggests that when a mother is less warm or nurturing, adolescents could potentially use *community service* as an escape from the poor quality relationship. One can imagine that a home environment lacking in adequate levels of maternal warmth can create a stress-filled parent-adolescent relationship. Given the needs of adolescents during the transition to high school, having a warm, receptive parent can help reduce the anxiety and uncertainty associated with this transitional period. Since the mother-adolescent relationship is very important (Shulman and Seiffge-Krenke, 1997), a relationship which lacks these basic provisions can lead to maladaptive outcomes. One such outcome would be escaping the deficient relationship by increasing involvement in activities outside of the home. Research suggests that adolescents can use leisure as a mechanism to cope with stress (Hutchinson, Loy, Kleiber, & Dattilo, 2003; Klitzing, 2003). Likewise, leisure can moderate the relation between stressors (e.g., poor parent-adolescent relationship quality) and health related outcomes (e.g., psychological well-being) (e.g., Coleman, 1993; Coleman & Iso-Ahola, 1993; Iso-Ahola & Parks, 1996). In these instances, adolescents rely on the social supports present within the leisure context (e.g., coaches or friends) to help them deal with stressful family relationships (Coleman, 1993; Coleman & Iso-Ahola, 1993). Although this type of mechanism is created to help adolescent overcome the challenges within the home, spending more time in activities outside of the home can prevent opportunities for the mother-adolescent relationship to improve. These findings suggest that some adolescents are attempting to buffer the effects of a poor mother-adolescent relationship by establishing other relationships through community service leisure. However, too much time spent in

these outside activities might further the deterioration of an already poor mother-adolescent relationship.

Paternal Negativity. As mentioned above, negativity in the adolescent-parent relationship is detrimental to adolescent well-being. Like maternal negativity, results revealed that *paternal negativity* had a *negative* impact on time spent participating in community service leisure. Since fathers often take on more of a disciplinary role in the family, *perceptions* of *paternal negativity* may mean that adolescents think that their fathers are more punitive. Although these perceptions might not be congruent with observed paternal parenting strategies, this perception can still prevent adolescents from becoming involved in certain activities. For instance, if an adolescent perceives their father as punitive and knows that he doesn't like them to be involved in community service activities, they would probably spend less time participating out of fear that their father would punish their behavior. This finding has strong implications for literature linking paternal parenting dimensions to leisure activity involvement.

Psychological Well-Being. Final results revealed significant relations between *internalizing problems* and *sports involvement* (*intensity* and *enjoyment*). Likewise, significant results emerged for *self-esteem* when predicting *arts activity enjoyment*. Although neither psychological well-being dimension significantly mediated the relation between family processes and adolescent leisure, the direct relations between these variables and structured leisure activity involvement suggests that they play a meaningful role in some aspects of the adolescent leisure experience. These findings support and expand the existing literature which proposes the potential for significant

relations between these variables. Additionally, these results prove that psychological well-being is a viable predictor of leisure involvement, as suggested by Bohnert and Garber (2007). However, further studies should be conducted to better explore these linkages within a larger sample.

Disentangling Maternal and Paternal Parenting

This study was the first attempt at illustrating the different roles that mothers and fathers might have in adolescent leisure involvement during the transition from middle school to high school. Supplemental hierarchical regression analyses yielded numerous findings where perceptions of mothers' and fathers' parenting predicted different leisure outcomes. In some instances, both mother and father parenting dimensions predicted the same leisure outcomes (e.g., perceived paternal and maternal support predicting community service enjoyment; perceived maternal and paternal involvement predicting community service enjoyment). However, mothering and fathering uniquely contributed to other activities. There was no consistent pattern for the type of perceived parenting behaviors that predicted certain activity types. In fact, perceptions of both maternal and paternal parenting dimensions predicted different types of structured and unstructured activity involvement at one point or another.

Such findings suggest that typological approaches to understanding the correlates and consequences of maternal and paternal parental roles and behaviors is rather limited and a new, situational approach to understanding the nature and impact of mothering and fathering are necessary. The present findings introduce the concept that maternal and paternal parenting behaviors can have different meanings and

functions in varying leisure contexts. Some findings corroborate past evidence suggesting that mothers and fathers take on unique roles within the family system (Craig, 2006; Parke, 2002, 2004). However, other findings point to mixed implications. For instance, results in the present study suggest that both perceived maternal and paternal involvement have an impact on the emotional component of sports and social activity involvement (*enjoyment*) as well as the instrumental component of social activity participation (*intensity*). Historically, fathers have been associated with *instrumental* roles like disciplining and provision of resources, while mothers have been associated with *expressive* or *emotional* roles such as caregiving, companionship, and sharing in leisure activities (Parsons & Bales, 1955). Initially, one would assume that maternal parenting dimensions would be associated exclusively with the affective nature of leisure and paternal parenting would be exclusively associated with the instrumental components of leisure activity involvement (e.g., time management). The mixed results of this study imply, however, that both maternal and paternal parenting behaviors vary by leisure context. Likewise, adolescents' *perceptions* of these behaviors also vary.

With historical changes in the family system (e.g., increases in dual-earner and single-parent families), mother have been given increasingly instrumental *and* expressive roles within the family unit (Giele & Holst, 2004). Likewise, fathers have assumed more expressive roles in all manners of adolescent leisure, especially in domains like sports, arts, and free-time leisure. The present study supports this paradigm shift and suggests that varying aspects of maternal and paternal parenting play significant roles in adolescent leisure involvement.

Conclusions and Future Directions

The present study brings to light many important issues regarding the role of parents in adolescent leisure activity involvement across the high school transition. The present study also extends Eccles and Harold's (1991) framework to include parental behaviors other than domain specific encouragement. It also broadens the scope of this theoretical model to include adolescent internalizing problems and general self-esteem as well as leisure activities other than sports. Taken as a whole, the present study begins to fill the gap in the literature linking parenting to adolescent leisure outcomes and it lends the following to the field:

First, the present study suggests that adolescents' perceptions of their parents' behaviors have a likely impact on adolescent behavior over time. Additionally, the present study suggests that parents' appraisals of their own behaviors are somehow linked to adolescent developmental contexts (e.g., leisure) outside of the home. Since very little literature is available in this area, studies like this can be the stepping stone toward more progress.

Second, this study posits that adolescent perceptions of their parents' actions can be far more important than their parents' reports about what they to do. This point remains consistent with previous research suggesting that parents and adolescents can have discrepant views about parenting behaviors and attitudes.

Third, this study suggests that *different* maternal and paternal parenting behaviors can have *different* impacts on *different* adolescent experiences. Perhaps the

findings of this study will encourage other leisure researchers to disentangle maternal and paternal parenting constructs in their investigations.

Fourth, this is one of the first studies to directly relate specific parenting dimensions to arts and community service leisure activities. Sports and physical activity involvement have been the primary focus in leisure research linking parenting to involvement outcomes. Since the present study included more diverse domains of activity involvement, these results are the first to substantiate the relations between parenting and other structured leisure activities.

Although the present study adds knowledge about the ways that adolescent and parent perceptions of maternal and paternal parenting impacts adolescent leisure experiences, it had many limitations. The most glaring limitation was the omission of self-esteem data in the data collection process. Even though *maternal negativity* had an indirect effect on *arts enjoyment* through self-esteem, a larger sample size may lead to more pronounced mediating effects. Perhaps these effects might even emerge for relations between other family process indicators and leisure outcomes.

Additionally, selection bias was present in this study. As stated earlier, the larger longitudinal sample included 1611 participants. However, the final sample was reduced to 234 participants and then reduced even further due to missing self-esteem data. Demographic and leisure variables were only available for a subsample of the original 1611 adolescents. Therefore, there was no systematic way for me to test whether those with missing leisure data were significantly different from those in the final sample. This selection bias may have influenced the results in unknown ways.

The present study also included ethnicity in the regression analyses. However, this variable wasn't dummy coded. Ethnicity was a categorical predictor variable so additional steps needed to be taken prior to the analyses to ensure that the results were interpretable. Categorical variables cannot be entered directly into regression equations without being dummy coded (Allison, 1999). In fact, *k*-1 levels of the ethnicity variable needed to be converted into separate "dummy" variables, coded as 0 or 1 (indicating non-membership and membership in each group respectively). Additionally, one of the ethnicity groups needed to be selected as a reference or "left-out" group (e.g., the majority group) against which to compare all other dummy coded groups (Allison, 1999). Since this was not done, ethnicity variable results were uninterpretable. It should be noted also that ethnicity wasn't a significant predictor of sports, arts, community service, social, or free-time leisure intensity or enjoyment in any of the above regression models when all other predictors were accounted for.

A majority of the study findings were based on child-reported perceptions of parenting, child-reports of their psychological well-being, and child-reports of their own leisure involvement. Adolescents' perceptions of parenting are important (Demo, Small, & Savin-Williams, 1987) and these youth can be reliable sources of information about their psychological well-being and behaviors. However, results from the present study would be less biased if I had multiple informants. Incorporating the viewpoints of both parents and adolescents in my models could help the reliability and validity of my assessment and provide a more comprehensive picture of the process by which parenting dimensions, adolescent psychological well-being, and adolescent leisure outcomes are interrelated.

Another limitation in the present study was the exclusion of other potential mediators. My results suggested partial and complete mediation relations were not significant, even in the presence of significant relations between parenting and leisure outcomes. It is likely that other mediating variables could explain the process by which these constructs are related. For instance, directly modeling Eccles and Harold's (1991) theory using domain-specific self-perceptions as mediators, predicting both structured and unstructured activity involvement would be a good extension of the present literature. Likewise, introducing other measures of individual difference (e.g., personality and externalizing problems) would also be interesting. Future analyses can also include: 1) different family process variables (e.g., interparental conflict or sibling relationships); or 2) direct measures of motivation and achievement goals to capture the relations between parenting dimensions and adolescent leisure involvement.

Other studies can also focus on the reciprocal relations between parenting, adolescent psychological well-being, and leisure outcomes. Given the literature which indicates that parenting moderates the relation between leisure activity involvement and adjustment (Csikszentmihalyi, Rathunde, &Whalen, 1993; Fletcher, Elder, & Mekos, 2000), future studies can examine the differential effects of maternal and paternal parenting in a research model like this.

Additionally, future studies might be able to highlight specific cultural differences in the leisure socialization process. Since families can differ tremendously in their cultural belief systems (Gardiner & Kosmitzki, 2008), it would be interesting to see if differences in the meanings of parenting behaviors have any

impact on adolescent well-being and leisure choice within and across ethnic groups. The current study sample included a relatively diverse sample of adolescents. However, a small sample size would have limited these between and within group comparisons. Future studies, with larger samples, could explore these relations further.

Overall, the results of the present study highlight the need for a more in depth analysis of the parental influences on adolescent leisure involvement. The findings only begin to highlight the potential influences of family processes on adolescent leisure. Specifically, it further emphasizes the need to look at the various processes by which these relations are established.

Table 1. Overview of Procedures

	Grade 8	Grade 9
Parent Questionnaires	Parent Demographics (M) Child Rearing and Practices Scale (*CRPR;*M&F)	
Child Questionnaires	Network of Relationships Inventory (*NRI*) Parenting Practices Scale (*PPS*)	Youth Self-Report (*YSR*) Self-Perception Profile for Adolescents (SPP-A) Leisure Activities Questionnaire (LAQ)

Table 2. Means and Standard Deviations: Parent Reports of 8th grade Family Process Variables and Demographics (N = 234)

Variables	M	*SD*	Range
Maternal Nurturance	5.50	.32	1 – 6
Paternal Nurturance	5.25	.44	1 – 6
Maternal Restrictiveness	3.40	.72	1 – 6
Paternal Restrictiveness	3.49	.63	1 – 6
Mother Education	5.24	1.70	1 – 9
Father Education	5.50	1.98	1 – 9

Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations: Adolescent Reports of Demographics, 8th Grade Family Process Variables (N = 234)

Variables	M	*SD*	Range
Adolescent gender[a]	.53	.50	0 – 1
Maternal Social Support	4.02	.55	1 – 5
Maternal Negativity	2.89	.54	1 – 5
Paternal Social Support	3.74	.67	1 – 5
Paternal Negativity	2.77	.85	1 – 5
Maternal Involvement	4.24	.57	1 – 5
Paternal Involvement	3.97	.79	1 – 5
Maternal Autonomy Granting	3.24	.67	1 – 5
Paternal Autonomy Granting	3.23	.72	1 – 5
Parental Supervision	2.71	.36	1 – 3

[a]Youth gender: 0 = *male*, 1 = *female*.

Table 4. Means and Standard Deviations: 8th Grade Leisure Involvement (*N* Varies According to Analysis)

Variables	M	*SD*	Range
Sports Intensity	3.03	1.32	1 – 5
Sports Enjoyment	3.43	.51	1 – 4
Arts Intensity	2.72	1.58	1 – 5
Arts Enjoyment	3.16	.68	1 – 4
Social Leisure Intensity	3.60	1.10	1 – 5
Social Leisure Enjoyment	3.65	.43	1 – 4
Free Time Intensity	4.36	1.00	1 – 5
Free Time Enjoyment	3.57	.45	1 – 5
Community Service Intensity	1.42	1.27	1 – 3
Community Service Enjoyment	2.75	.73	1 – 3

Table 5. Means and Standard Deviations: 9th Grade Leisure Activity and 9th Grade Psychological Well-Being (*N* Varies According to Analysis)

Variables	M	*SD*	Range
Internalizing Problems	8.38	6.90	0 – 2
Self-Esteem	3.24	.60	1 – 4
Sports Intensity	3.09	1.53	1 – 5
Sports Enjoyment	3.38	.56	1 – 4
Arts Intensity	2.70	1.80	1 – 5
Arts Enjoyment	2.91	1.07	1 – 4
Social Leisure Intensity	3.49	1.34	1 – 5
Social Leisure Enjoyment	3.62	.46	1 – 4
Free Time Intensity	4.28	1.15	1 – 5
Free Time Enjoyment	3.52	.51	1 – 5
Community Service Intensity	1.19	1.30	1 – 3
Community Service Enjoyment	2.87	.78	1 – 3

Table 6. Correlations Among G8 CRPR, G9 Psychological Well-being, and G9 Leisure Variables (*N* Varies According to Analysis)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Maternal Nurturance	–							
2. Maternal Restrictiveness	-.16*	–						
3. Paternal Nurturance	.15*	-.14*	–					
4. Paternal Restrictiveness	.16*	.65**	-.05	–				
5. Mother Education	.09	-.33**	.16*	-.34**	–			
6. Father Education	.00	-.25**	.10	-.26**	.56**	–		
7. Internalizing Problems	-.15	.00	.01	.07	-.01	.02	–	
8. Self-Esteem	.18*	-01	.19**	.00	.02	-.24*	-.52**	–

Youth gender: 0 = *male*, 1 = *female*. $^{*}p < .05$. $^{**}p < .01$.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9. Sports Intensity	.07	-.17**	-.07	-.13	.13*	.04	-.27*	.18*
10. Sport Enjoyment	-.02	-.03	.03	-.06	-.07	-.03	-.24**	.22*
11. Arts Intensity	-.05	-.10	-.13*	-.06	.14*	.15*	-.14*	.18*
12. Arts Enjoyment	.02	.02	-.06	.06	-.07	-.03	.01	.29*
13. Community Service Int.	-.13*	.01	.00	.08	.05	.18**	.01	.00
14. Community Service Enj.	.05	.04	.03	.07	-.22*	-.19*	.03	.12
15. Social Leisure Int.	.01	.02	-.10	-.04	-.06	-.05	-.10	.15*
16. Social Leisure Enj.	.07	-.13	-.05	-.11	.08	.06	-.09	.23**
17. Free Time Leisure Int.	.05	-.05	.00	.03	-.03	.06	-.01	.19
18. Free Time Leisure Enj.	.00	-.10	-.04	-.14*	-.01	-.02	-.07	.17

Table 7. Correlations Among G8 NRI, G9 Psychological Well-being, and G9 Leisure Variables (*N* Varies According to Analysis)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Maternal Social Support	–							
2. Maternal Negativity	-.31**	–						
3. Paternal Social Support	.51**	-.20**	–					
4. Paternal Negativity	-.01	.52**	-.05	–				
5. Mother Education	.05	-.04	.17**	-.03	–			
6. Father Education	-.15*	.08	.05	.05	.56**	–		
7. Internalizing Problems	-.19**	.24**	-.22**	.14*	-.01	.14*	–	
8. Self-Esteem	.32**	-.47**	.35**	-.18**	.02	-.17**	-.52**	–

Youth gender: 0 = *male*, 1 = *female*. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9. Sports Intensity	.13*	-.25**	.18**	.02	.13*	.04	-.27*	.18*
10. Sport Enjoyment	.09	-.15*	.25**	.04	-.07	-.03	-.24**	.22*
11. Arts Intensity	.00	.03	-.15*	.23**	.14*	.15*	.10	-.14*
12. Arts Enjoyment	.20**	.03	.06	.15*	-.07	-.03	.01	.29*
13. Community Service Int.	.07	.08	-.05	.15*	-.08*	.08	.01	.00
14. Community Service Enj.	.34*	.03	.01	.07	-.22*	-.19*	.03	.12
15. Social Leisure Int.	.00	-.12	.00	-.09	-.06	-.05	-.10	.15*
16. Social Leisure Enj.	.19**	-.10	.19**	.08	.08	.06	-.09	.23**
17. Free Time Leisure Int.	.09	-.02	.11	.01	-.03	.06	-.01	.11
18. Free Time Leisure Enj.	.15*	.02	.13	.07	-.01	-.02	-.07	.17

Table 8. Correlations Among G8 PPS, G9 Psychological Well-being, and G9 Leisure Variables (*N* Varies According to Analysis)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Maternal Involvement	–							
2. Paternal Involvement	-.59**	–						
3. Maternal Autonomy Granting	.31**	.18**	–					
4. Paternal Autonomy Granting	.25**	.16*	.82**	–				
5. Parental Supervision	.53**	.33**	.12	.12	–			
6. Mother Education	.12	.18**	.18**	.19**	-.03	–		
7. Father Education	-.10	.06	.05	.10	-.10	.56**	–	
8. Internalizing Problems	-.17*	-.18**	-.14*	-.05	-.11	-.01	.02	–

Youth gender: 0 = *male*, 1 = *female*. **p* < .05. ***p* < .01.

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9. Self-Esteem	.29**	.26**	.32**	.28**	.11	.02	-.24**	-.52**
10. Sports Intensity	.08	.09	.08	.04	.02	.13*	-.02	-.27**
11. Sport Enjoyment	.17*	.26**	.09	.05	.07	-.07	-.11	-.24**
12. Arts Intensity	-.11	-.16*	.01	-.05	-.13*	.14*	-.01	.09
13. Arts Enjoyment	.15*	.06	.04	.00	.12	-.07	.02	.01
14. Community Service Int.	-.10	-.10	-.07	.02	.10	-.08	-.13*	.01
15. Community Service Enj.	.23**	.02	.13	.10	.30**	-.22*	.04	.03
16. Social Leisure Int.	.06	.03	.11	.17*	.05	-.06	-.08	-.10
17. Social Leisure Enj.	.16*	.14*	.10	.08	.14*	.08	.06	-.09
18. Free Time Leisure Int.	.07	.00	.05	.04	-.05	-.03	.00	.00
19. Free Time Leisure Enj.	.17*	.11	-.01	.04	.09	-.01	-.04	-.07

Table 9. Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis For Maternal Support (G8) Predicting Sports Intensity (G9)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Child Ethnicity	.02	.05	.02
Maternal Education	.23	.07	.25**
Paternal Education	-.13	.06	.03*
Step 2			
Child Ethnicity	.04	.05	.05
Maternal Education	.23	.07	.25**
Paternal Education	-.11	.06	-.14
Gender	-.60	.20	-.19*
Step 3			
Child Ethnicity	.04	.05	.05
Maternal Education	.22	.07	.25**
Paternal Education	-.10	.06	-.13
Gender	-.63	.20	-.21**
Maternal Support (G8)	.13	.10	.17
Step 4			
Child Ethnicity	.05	.05	.06
Maternal Education	.19	.07	.21**
Paternal Education	-.08	.06	-.10
Gender	-2.77	1.06	-.91**
Maternal Support (G8)	.04	.11	.03
Gender x Maternal Support	.53	.26	.72*

Note. R^2=.11 *for step 4*; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 10. Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis For Maternal Support (G8) Predicting Arts Intensity (G9)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Child Ethnicity	-.01	.06	-.02
Maternal Education	.11	.08	.10
Paternal Education	.07	.07	.08
Step 2			
Child Ethnicity	-.02	.06	-.02
Maternal Education	.11	.08	.10
Paternal Education	.06	.07	.07
Gender	.24	.24	.07
Step 3			
Child Ethnicity	-.02	.06	-.02
Maternal Education	.09	.08	.08
Paternal Education	.09	.07	.10
Gender	.18	.24	.05
Maternal Support (G8)	.32	.22	.10
Step 4			
Child Ethnicity	-.01	.04	-.05
Maternal Education	-.05	.05	-.04
Paternal Education	.11	.05	.12
Gender	-4.24	.75	-1.35
Maternal Support (G8)	-.26	.07	.06
Gender x Maternal Support	1.11	.45	1.28**

Note. R^2=.06 *for step 4*; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 11. Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis For Maternal Support (G8) Predicting Arts Enjoyment (G9)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Child Ethnicity	-.03	.04	-.11
Maternal Education	.03	.05	.05
Paternal Education	.02	.05	.01
Step 2			
Child Ethnicity	-.04	.04	-.14*
Maternal Education	.02	.05	.05
Paternal Education	.02	.05	-.01
Gender	.16	.16	-.18**
Step 3			
Child Ethnicity	-.04	.04	-.13*
Maternal Education	.02	.05	.04
Paternal Education	.03	.05	.00
Gender	.10	.16	.17*
Maternal Support (G8)	.18	.07	.06
Step 4			
Child Ethnicity	-.03	.04	-.05
Maternal Education	-.03	.05	-.04
Paternal Education	.06	.05	.12
Gender	-2.90	.75	-1.35
Maternal Support (G8)	.06	.07	.06
Gender x Maternal Support	.74	.18	1.45***

Note. R^2=.13 *for step 4*; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 12. Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis For Maternal Support (G8) Predicting Community Service Intensity (G9)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Child Ethnicity	-.07	.04	-.11
Maternal Education	.04	.06	.05
Paternal Education	.01	.05	.01
Step 2			
Child Ethnicity	-.09	.04	-.14*
Maternal Education	.04	.06	.05
Paternal Education	-.01	.05	-.01
Gender	.47	.17	-.18**
Step 3			
Child Ethnicity	-.09	.04	-.13*
Maternal Education	.03	.06	.04
Paternal Education	.00	.05	.00
Gender	.45	.17	.17*
Maternal Support (G8)	.07	.08	.06
Step 4			
Child Ethnicity	-.08	.04	-.12
Maternal Education	.19	.06	.01
Paternal Education	-.08	.05	.03
Gender	-2.77	.92	-.56
Maternal Support (G8)	.04	.09	-.01
Gender x Maternal Support	.53	.22	.76*

Note. R^2=.07 *for step 4*; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 13. Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis For Maternal Support (G8) Predicting Community Service Enjoyment (G9)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Child Ethnicity	.02	.04	.06
Maternal Education	-.08	.05	-.17
Paternal Education	-.04	.04	-.11
Step 2			
Child Ethnicity	.00	.04	.00
Maternal Education	-.08	.05	-.16
Paternal Education	-.06	.04	-.15
Gender	.44	.13	.28**
Step 3			
Child Ethnicity	.01	.03	.02
Maternal Education	-.09	.04	-.19
Paternal Education	-.04	.04	-.11
Gender	.35	.13	.22**
Maternal Support (G8)	.19	.05	.31***
Step 4			
Child Ethnicity	-.08	.03	.02
Maternal Education	.19	.04	-.23*
Paternal Education	-.08	.04	-.05
Gender	-2.77	.64	-.61
Maternal Support (G8)	.04	.05	.25**
Gender x Maternal Support	.53	.15	.86*

Note. R^2=.25 *for step 4*; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

Table 14. Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis For Maternal Involvement (G8) Predicting Arts Intensity (G9)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Child Ethnicity	-.01	.06	-.02
Maternal Education	.11	.08	.10
Paternal Education	.07	.07	.08
Step 2			
Child Ethnicity	-.02	.06	-.03
Maternal Education	.11	.08	.10
Paternal Education	.06	.07	.07
Gender	.24	.24	.07
Step 3			
Child Ethnicity	-.01	.06	-.01
Maternal Education	.07	.09	.06
Paternal Education	.10	.07	.11
Gender	.19	.24	.05
Maternal Involvement (G8)	.43	.21	.14*
Step 4			
Child Ethnicity	.00	.06	.00
Maternal Education	.05	.08	.04
Paternal Education	.11	.07	.12
Gender	-4.47	1.73	-1.25*
Maternal Involvement (G8)	-.15	.30	-.05
Gender x Maternal Involvement	1.10	.40	1.34**

Note. R^2=.08 *for step 4*; * $p <= .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 15. Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis For Maternal Involvement (G8) Predicting Arts Enjoyment (G9)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Child Ethnicity	-.03	.04	-.07
Maternal Education	.03	.05	.05
Paternal Education	.02	.05	.04
Step 2			
Child Ethnicity	-.04	.04	-.08
Maternal Education	.03	.05	.05
Paternal Education	.02	.05	.03
Gender	.16	.16	.08
Step 3			
Child Ethnicity	-.02	.04	-.05
Maternal Education	-.02	.05	-.03
Paternal Education	.06	.05	.10
Gender	.07	.15	.04
Maternal Involvement (G8)	.59	.13	.32***
Step 4			
Child Ethnicity	-.02	.04	-.04
Maternal Education	-.03	.05	-.05
Paternal Education	.06	.05	.12
Gender	-2.20	1.12	-1.03
Maternal Involvement (G8)	.28	.20	.15
Gender x Maternal Involvement	.54	.26	1.10*

Note. R^2=.13 *for step 4*; * $p <= .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 16. Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis For Paternal Support (G8) Predicting Free Time Enjoyment (G9)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Child Ethnicity	-.01	.02	-.04
Maternal Education	.00	.02	.01
Paternal Education	-.01	.02	-.02
Step 2			
Child Ethnicity	-.02	.02	-.06
Maternal Education	.00	.02	.00
Paternal Education	-.01	.02	-.04
Gender	.17	.07	.16*
Step 3			
Child Ethnicity	-.01	.02	-.06
Maternal Education	.00	.02	.00
Paternal Education	-.01	.02	-.04
Gender	.17	.07	.17*
Paternal Support (G8)	.01	.02	.03
Step 4			
Child Ethnicity	-.02	.02	-.07
Maternal Education	.00	.02	-.40
Paternal Education	-.01	.02	.01
Gender	.73	.30	1.07***
Paternal Support (G8)	.15	.08	.94**
Gender x Paternal Support	-.15	.08	-.72*

Note. R^2=.05 *for step 4*; * $p <= .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .01$

Table 17. Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis For Paternal Nurturance (G8) Predicting Arts Enjoyment (G9)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Child Ethnicity	-.03	.04	-.07
Maternal Education	.03	.05	.05
Paternal Education	.02	.05	.04
Step 2			
Child Ethnicity	-.04	.04	-.08
Maternal Education	.03	.05	.05
Paternal Education	.02	.05	.03
Gender	.16	.16	.08
Step 3			
Child Ethnicity	-.04	.04	-.08
Maternal Education	.03	.05	.04
Paternal Education	.02	.05	.03
Gender	.16	.16	.08
Paternal Nurturance (G8)	.04	.19	.02
Step 4			
Child Ethnicity	-.04	.04	-.08
Maternal Education	.03	.05	.04
Paternal Education	.00	.05	.01
Gender	-4.20	2.02	-1.96
Paternal Nurturance (G8)	-.43	.29	-.17
Gender x Paternal Nurturance	.83	.38	2.06*

Note. R^2=.04 *for step 4*; * $p < .05$

Table 18. Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis For Paternal Nurturance (G8) Predicting Community Service Enjoyment (G9)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Child Ethnicity	.02	.04	.06
Maternal Education	-.08	.05	-.17
Paternal Education	-.04	.04	-.11
Step 2			
Child Ethnicity	.00	.04	.00
Maternal Education	-.08	.05	-.16
Paternal Education	-.06	.04	-.15
Gender	.44	.13	.28
Step 3			
Child Ethnicity	.00	.04	.00
Maternal Education	-.08	.05	-.17
Paternal Education	-.06	.04	-.15
Gender	.44	.14	.28
Paternal Nurturance (G8)	.12	.17	.06
Step 4			
Child Ethnicity	.00	.04	-.01
Maternal Education	-.08	.04	-.16
Paternal Education	-.07	.04	-.18
Gender	-4.31	1.80	-2.72*
Paternal Nurturance (G8)	-.45	.27	-.23
Gender x Paternal Nurturance	.89	.34	3.02**

Note. R^2=.18 *for step 4*; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 19. Summary of Hierarchical Linear Regression Analysis For Internalizing Problems (G9) Predicting Social Leisure Enjoyment (G9)

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
Step 1			
Child Ethnicity	-.01	.02	-.06
Maternal Education	.01	.02	.05
Paternal Education	.01	.02	.03
Step 2			
Child Ethnicity	-.02	.02	-.09
Maternal Education	.01	.02	.05
Paternal Education	.00	.02	.01
Gender	.17	.07	.18**
Step 3			
Child Ethnicity	-.02	.02	-.08
Maternal Education	.01	.02	.03
Paternal Education	.01	.02	.03
Gender	.19	.07	.21**
Internalizing Problems (G9)	-.01	.01	-.13
Step 4			
Child Ethnicity	-.02	.02	-.10
Maternal Education	.00	.02	.01
Paternal Education	.01	.02	.02
Gender	.36	.10	.39
Internalizing Problems (G9)	.00	.01	.06
Gender x Internalizing Problems	-.02	.01	-.32

Note. R^2=.28 *for step 4*; * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Figure 1. Expectancy-Value Model of Achievement Choices (Eccles et. al, 1983)

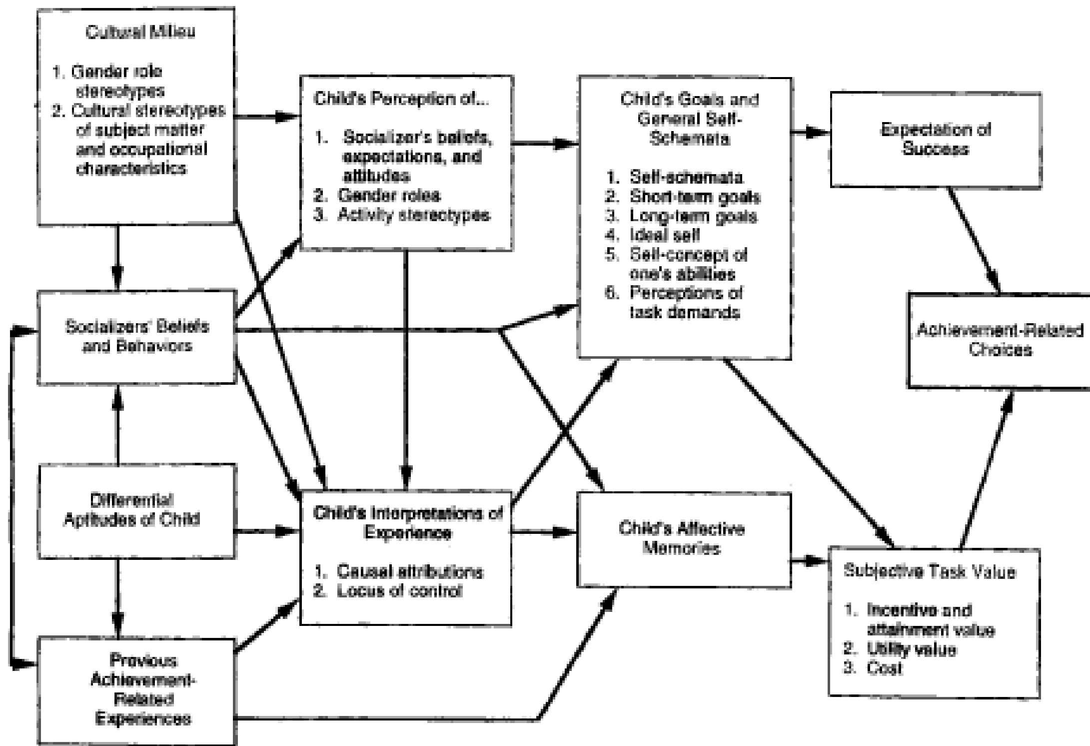


Figure 2. Simple Mediation Conceptual Models (With Maternal and Paternal Education as Covariates)

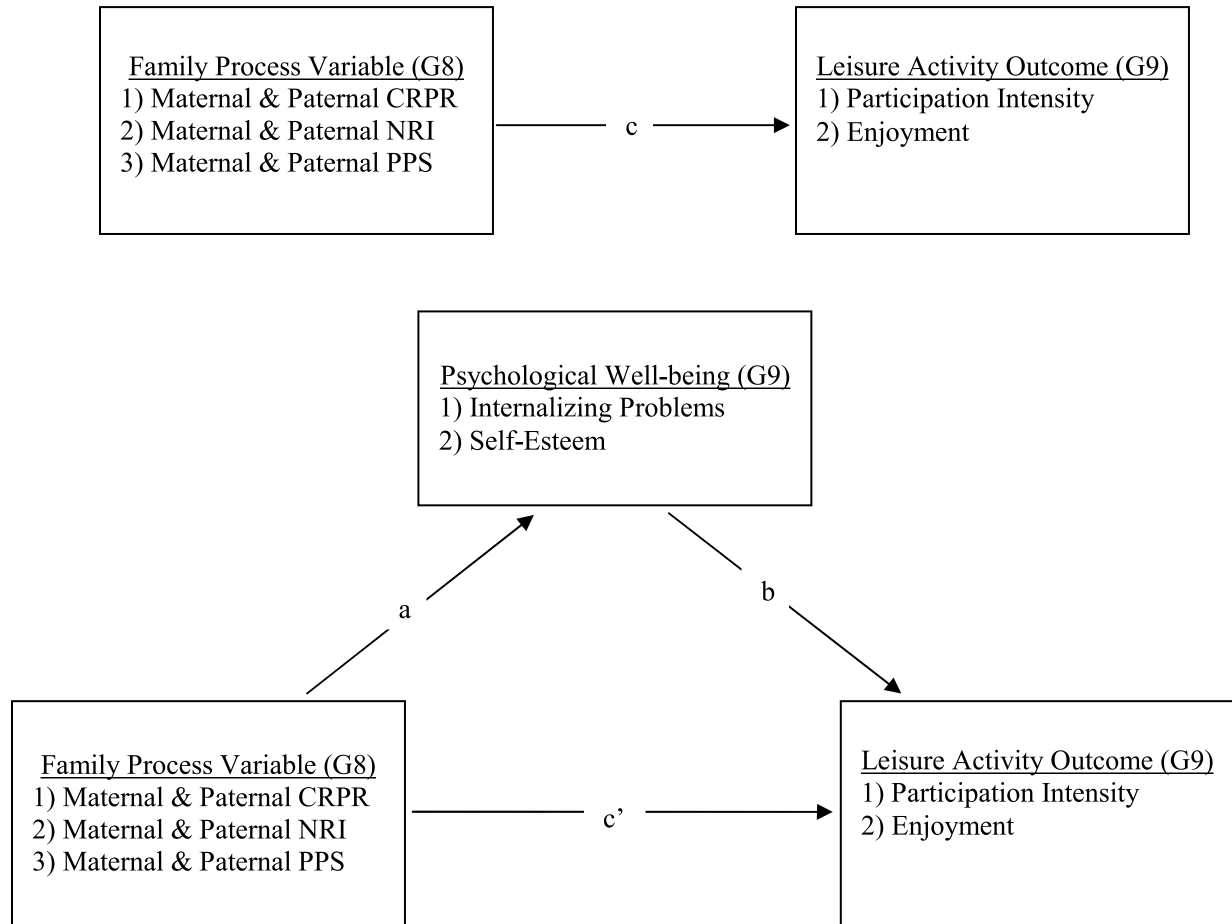


Figure 3. Moderated Mediation Conceptual Models (With Maternal and Paternal Education as Covariates)

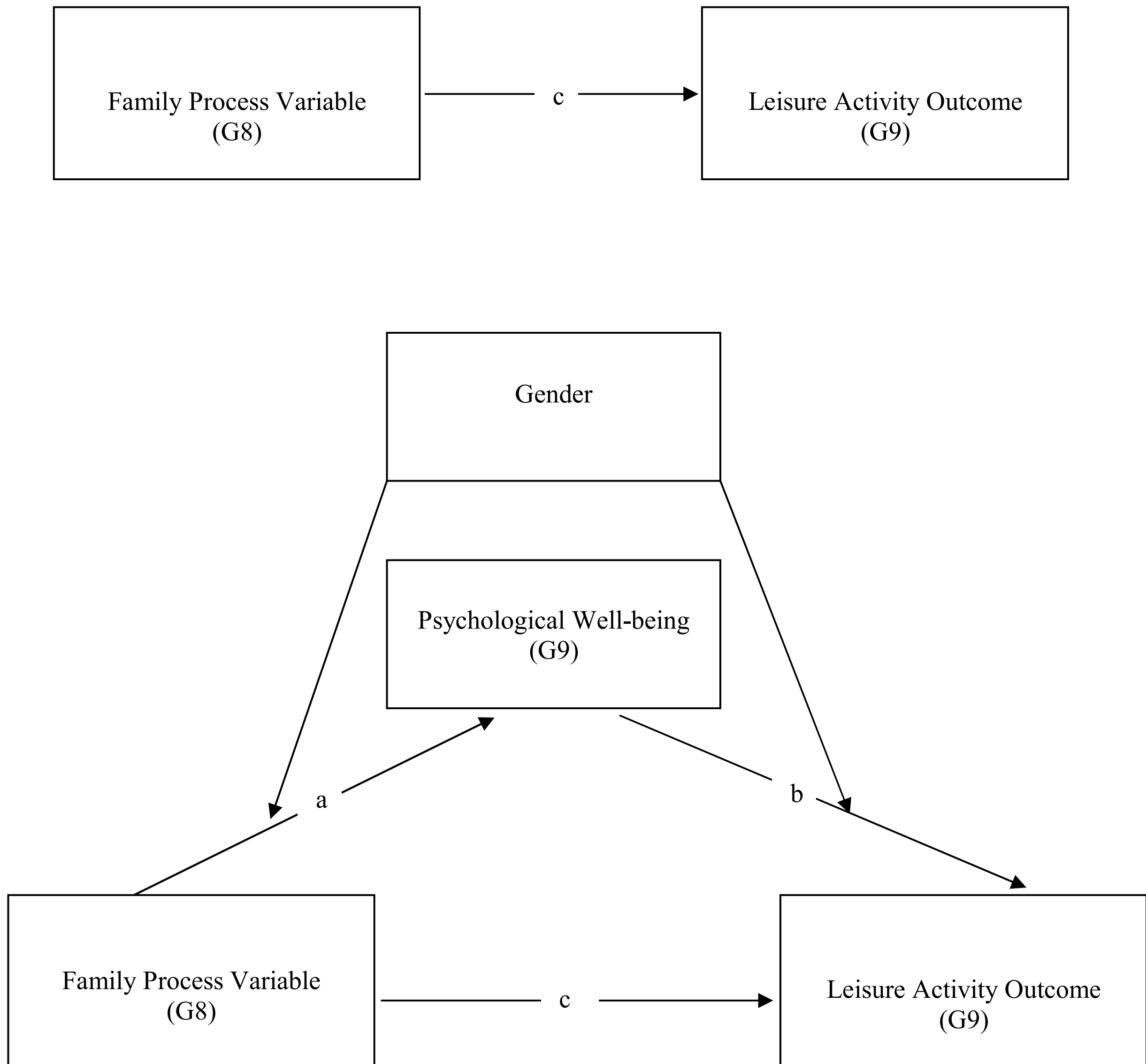
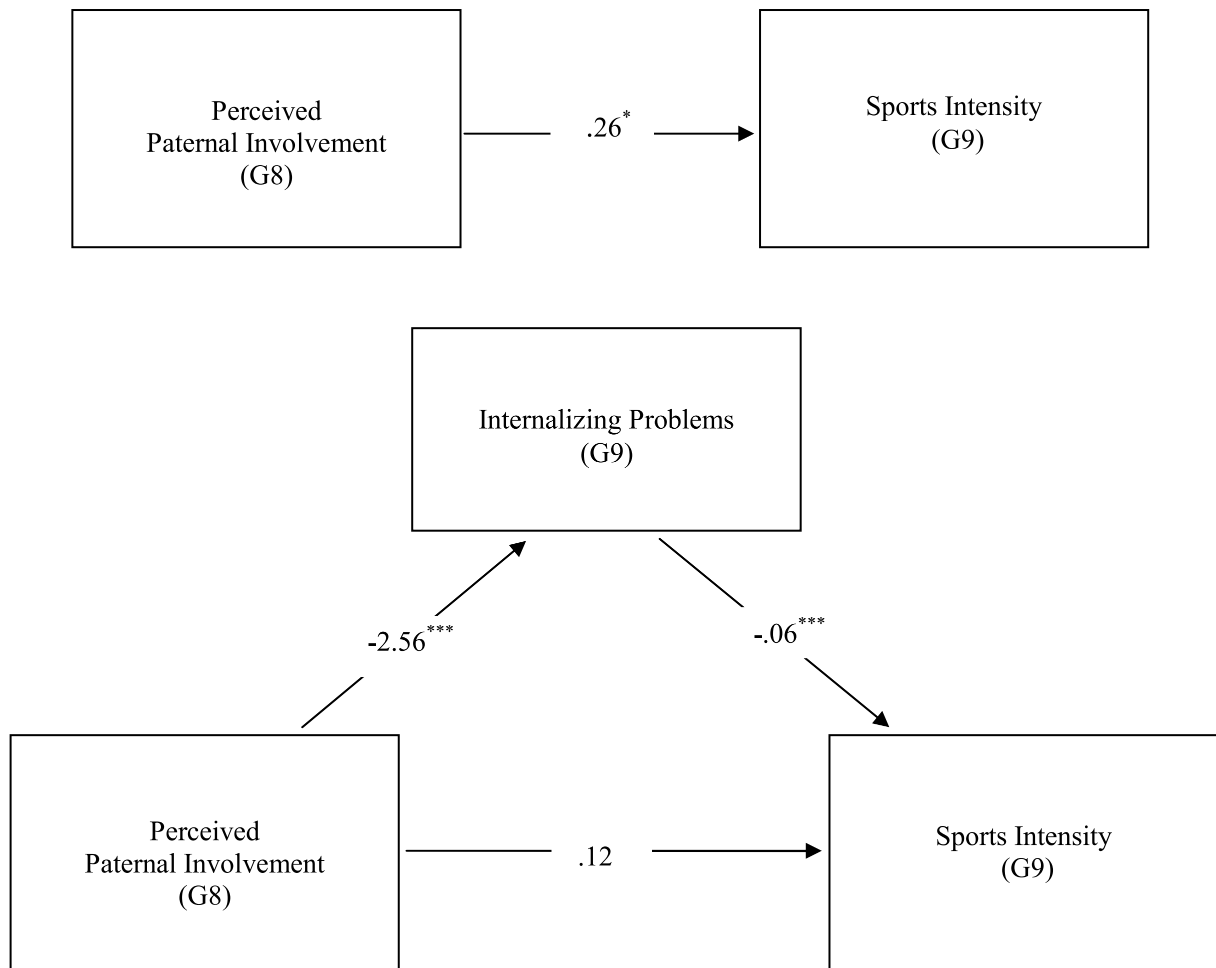
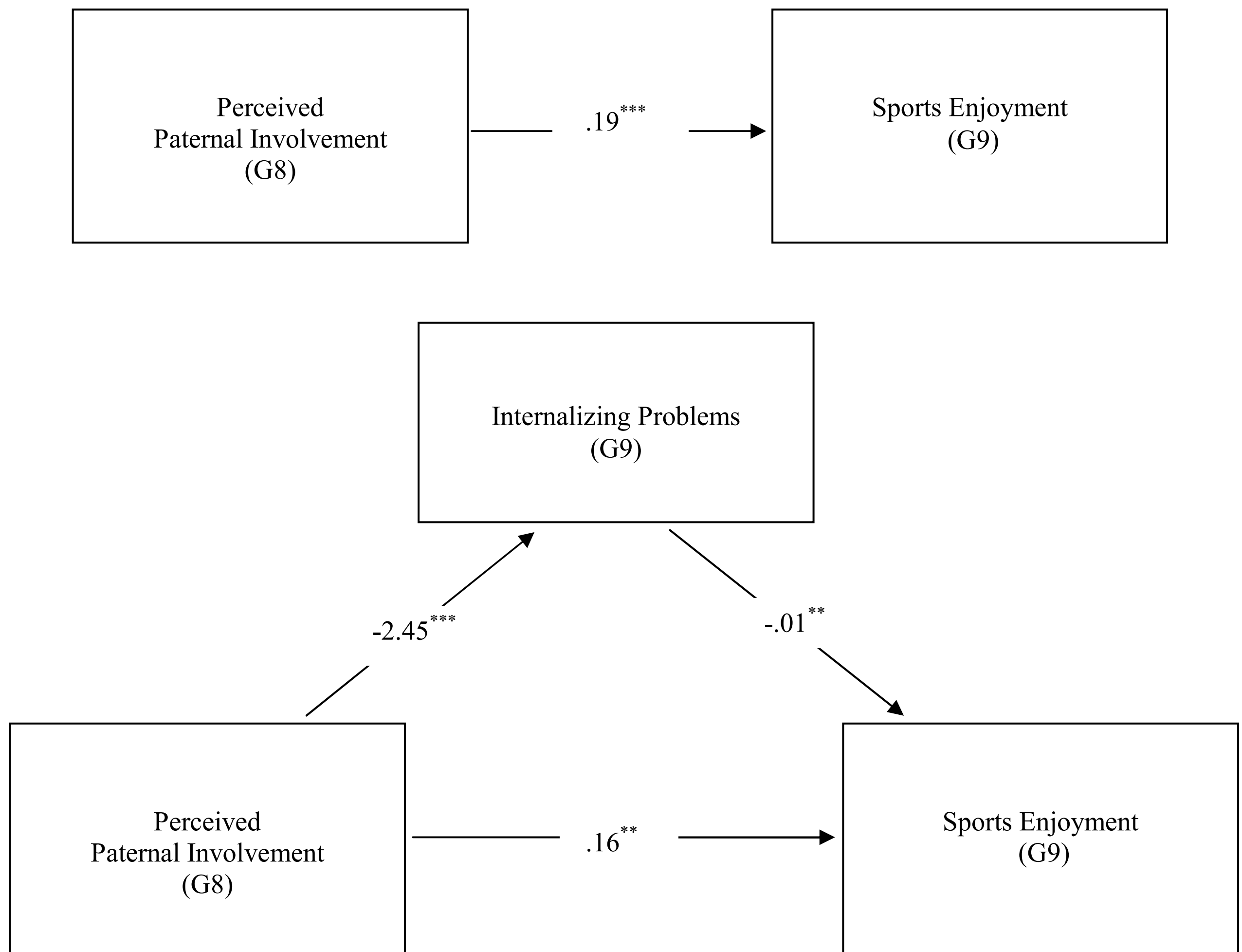


Figure 4. Path Diagram: Internalizing Problems (G9) Mediating Link Between Perceived Paternal Involvement (G8) and Sports Intensity (G9) (With Maternal and Paternal Education as Covariates)



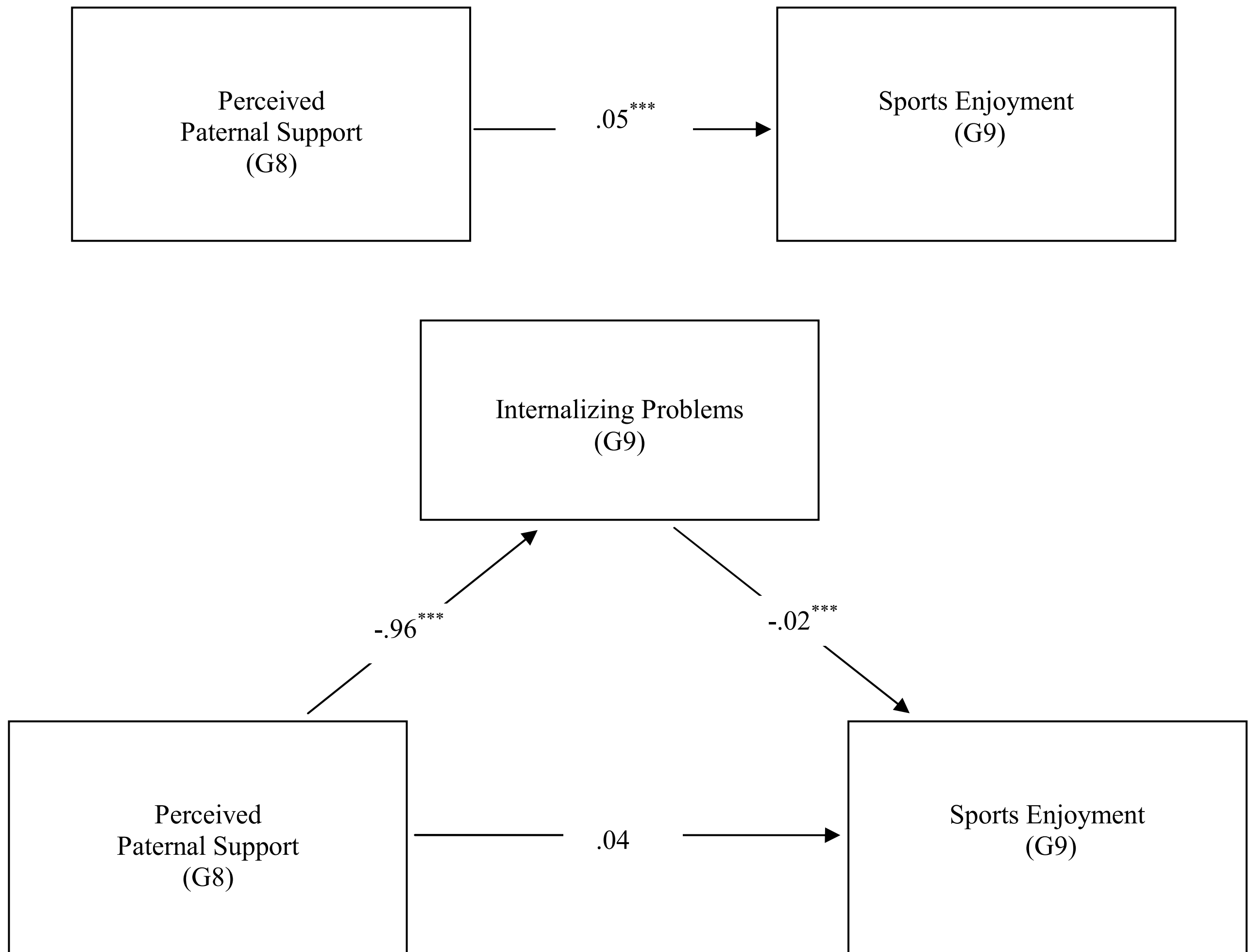
Note: Path values represent unstandardized regression coefficients. $^{*}p < .05$; $^{***}p < .001$.

Figure 5. Path Diagram: Internalizing Problems (G9) Mediating Link Between Perceived Paternal Involvement (G8) and Sports Enjoyment (G9) (With Maternal and Paternal Education as Covariates)



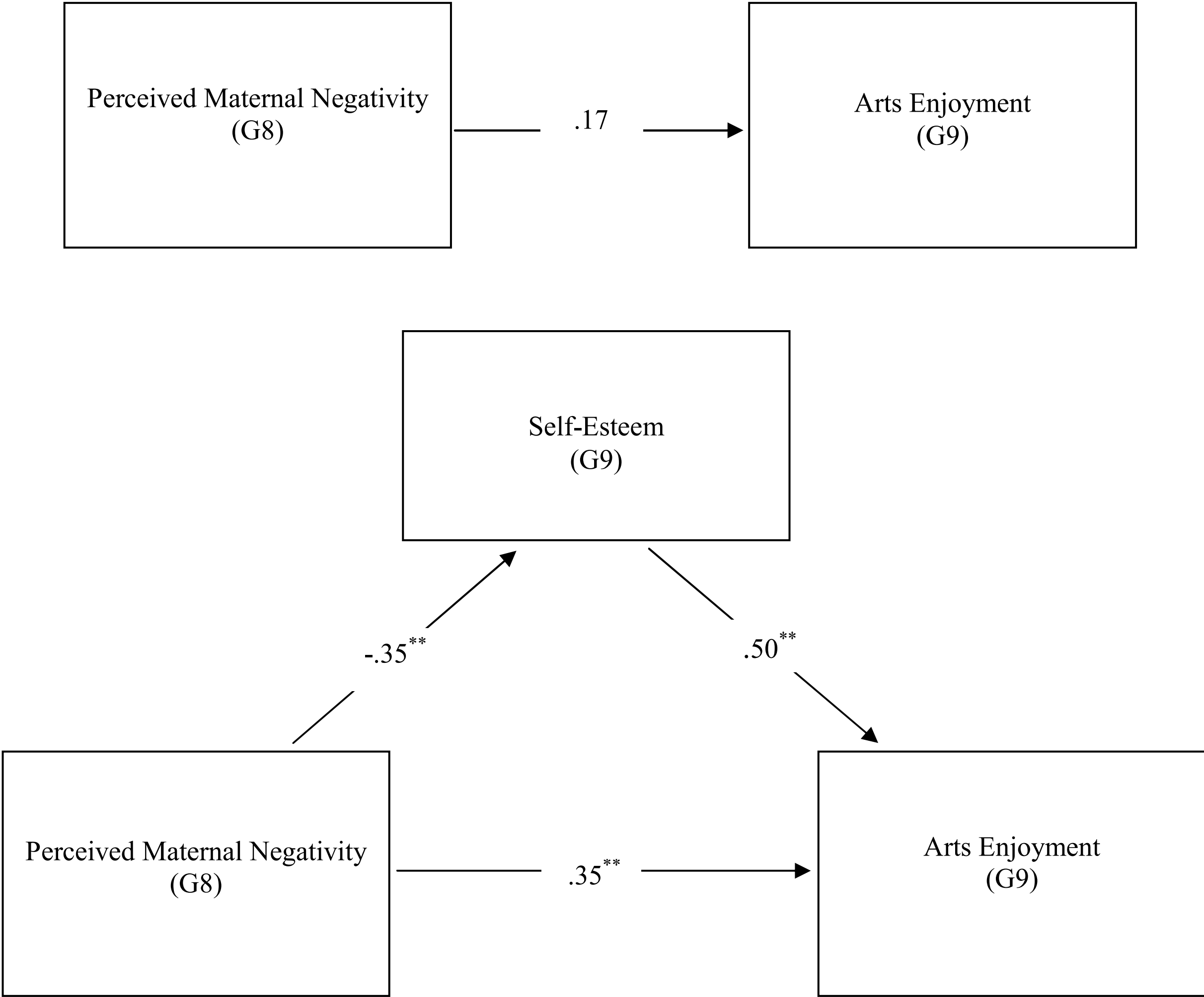
Note: Path values represent unstandardized regression coefficients. $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$.

Figure 6. Path Diagram: Internalizing Problems (G9) Mediating Link Between Perceived Paternal Support (G8) and Sports Enjoyment (G9) (With Maternal and Paternal Education as Covariates)



Note: Path values represent unstandardized regression coefficients. $^{**}p < .01$; $^{***}p < .001$.

Figure 7. Path Diagram: Self-Esteem (G9) Mediating Link Between Perceived Maternal Negativity (G8) and Arts Enjoyment (G9) (With Maternal and Paternal Education as Covariates)



Note: Path values represent unstandardized regression coefficients. $^{**}p < .01$.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. Parent Demographics

Child's Name ______________________________

Birthdate __________________________________ Age ____ Boy _____ Girl______
Month Day Year

Child's Country of Birth____
______

Is your child biological/natural? ________ Adopted?_______ Foster child?
____

Age adopted________ Age when fostering began________

Child's grade____ School______________________ Homeroom teacher________
______

PART A:
Child's mother's name
(biological/natural)_____________________________________
First Last
Birthdate _________________________________ Age _________
Month Day Year

Occupation ______________________________

What is your employment status:	Employed full-time	______
	Employed part-time	______
	Not employed outside of home	______
	Retired	______
	Other (specify)	______

Mother's education level:	Elementary School	______
	High School	______
	Vocational School	______
	Some College	______
	University Degree	______
	Some Graduate School	______
	Master's Degree	______
	Doctoral Degree	______
	Other(specify)	______

Mother's country of birth ____________________

If you were not born in the U.S., how long have you been here?

0 to 1 year _______ 1 to 3 years ______ 3 to 5 years_____
5 to 10 years______ over 10 years ______ Other _________
question does not apply to me ______

Mother's ethnic background:
White _________
Latino _________
Hispanic __________
Black _________
Asian or Pacific Islander ______________
Native American _________
Other (specify) ___________

What language is spoken most often in your home?

English ______ Chinese ______ Spanish ______
Filipino ______ Japanese ______ Korean ______
Malaysian ______ Other (specify) ______________

Mother's Marital Status with child's biological/ natural father (check one):
Married ________
Separated _______ How long? _______
Divorced ________ How long? _______
Common law _____
Single ________
Other (specify)_________

Mother's current relationship status (check one):
Married ________
Separated _______
Divorced ________
Common law _____
Single ________
Living with partner________
Other (specify)_________

Length of current relationship:____________________________________

Approximately how often do you attend religious services (e.g., church, synagogue)

More than once a week _____ Once a week ______ At least monthly ________
Religious holidays only _____ Hardly ever ______ Never _______

Do you feel you are?

Very religious ______ Religious ______ Somewhat religious ______

Not very religious ______ Not religious ______

PART B:

Child's father's name (biological/natural) ________________________________

First Last

Birthdate ________________________________ Age ____

Month Day Year

Occupation ____________________________

What is his employment status:

- Employed full-time ______
- Employed part-time ______
- Not employed outside of home ______
- Retired ______
- Other (specify) ______

Father's education level:

- Elementary School ______
- High School ______
- Vocational School ______
- Some College ______
- University Degree ______
- Some Graduate School ______
- Master's Degree ______
- Doctoral Degree ______
- Other (specify) ______

Father's country of birth ___________________

If he was not born in the U.S., how long has he been here?

0 to 1 year _______ 1 to 3 years _______ 3 to 5 years_____

5 to 10 years______ over 10 years ______ Other _________

question does not apply ______

Father's ethnic background:

- White _________
- Latino _________
- Hispanic ___________
- Black _________
- Asian or Pacific Islander ______________
- Native American _________
- Other (specify) ___________

Father's Marital Status with child's biological/ natural

- Married ________
- Separated _______

mother (check one): Divorced ________
Common law _____
Single ________
Other (specify)_________

If either the child's biological mother or biological father has been married previously, please indicate the following:

Previous marriage(s): Mother (Yes/No) ________ Length of marriage(yrs)________
Father (Yes/No)_________ Length of marriage(yrs)________

Other children -- Please list all children of either partner, whether or not they are living at home:

What are the names of the other children?	What are the biological parents' names of the other children?	Birthdate?	What was the last grade of school completed?	Are they living at at home or away?
___________	_____________	___/_____/____	__________	Home/Away
___________	_____________	___/_____/____	__________	Home/Away
___________	_____________	___/_____/____	__________	Home/Away
___________	_____________	___/_____/____	__________	Home/Away

Other adults living with the family:
(e.g., grandparents, mother's partner, aunt/uncle)

Name:____
Relationship to child:______________________________
Length of time living with family:____________________

Name:____
Relationship to child:______________________________
Length of time living with family:____________________

PART C – If the child has a stepmother, please complete Part C also, **if applicable:**

Child's stepmother's name ______________________________________
First Last

Birthdate __________________________________ Age ____
Month Day Year

Occupation ______________________________

What is her employment status:
- Employed full-time ______
- Employed part-time ______
- Not employed outside of home ______
- Retired ______
- Other (specify) ______

Stepmother's education level:
- Elementary School ______
- High School ______
- Vocational School ______
- Some College ______
- University Degree ______
- Some Graduate School ______
- Master's Degree ______
- Doctoral Degree ______
- Other (specify) ______

Stepmother's country of birth ____________________

If she was not born in the U.S., how long has she been here?

0 to 1 year _______ 1 to 3 years _______ 3 to 5 years_____
5 to 10 years______ over 10 years ______ Other _________
question does not apply ______

Stepmother's ethnic background:
- White _________
- Latino _________
- Hispanic ___________
- Black _________
- Asian or Pacific Islander ______________
- Native American _________
- Other (specify) ___________

Stepmother's Current Marital Status (check one):
- Married ________
- Separated _______
- Divorced ________
- Common law _____

Single ________
Other (specify)_________

PART D – If the child has a stepfather, please complete Part D also, **if applicable:**
Child's stepfather's name ________________________________
First Last

Birthdate _________________________________ Age ____
Month Day Year

Occupation _____________________________

What is his employment status:
Employed full-time ______
Employed part-time ______
Not employed outside of home ______
Retired ______
Other (specify) ______

Stepfather's education level:
Elementary School ______
High School ______
Vocational School ______
Some College ______
University Degree ______
Some Graduate School ______
Master's Degree ______
Doctoral Degree ______
Other (specify) ______

Stepfather's country of birth ____________________

If he was not born in the U.S., how long has he been here?
0 to 1 year _______ 1 to 3 years _______ 3 to 5 years_____
5 to 10 years______ over 10 years ______ Other _________
question does not apply ______

Stepfather's ethnic background:
White _________
Latino _________
Hispanic ___________
Black _________
Asian or Pacific Islander ______________
Native American _________
Other (specify) ___________

Stepfather's Current

Marital Status (check one):
Married ________
Separated _______
Divorced ________
Common law _____
Single ________
Other (specify)_________

APPENDIX B. Child Rearing Practices Scale

ID:__________Cohort:______________Grade:________________Date:________

CHILD-REARING PRACTICES REPORT QUESTIONNAIRE

FOR MOTHER TO COMPLETE

(CRPR-Q)—Boys' Version

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Your relationship to child: (Mark one) ☐ Biological Mother ☐ Step-Mother ☐ Other

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree

1. I respect my child's opinions and encourage him to express them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I feel a child should be given comfort and understanding when he is scared or upset.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I try to keep my child away from children or families who have different ideas or values from our own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I believe that a child should be seen and not heard.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I express affection toward my child by hugging, kissing, and holding him.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I find some of my greatest satisfactions in my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I prefer that my child not try things if there is a chance he will fail.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I encourage my child to wonder and think about life.	1	2	3	4	5	6

9. I usually take into account my child's preferences in making plans for the family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I feel a child should have time to think, daydream, and even loaf sometimes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I do not allow my child to say bad things about his teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I teach my child that in one way or another punishment will find him when he is bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I do not allow my child to get angry with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I am easygoing and relaxed with my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I talk it over and reason with my child when he misbehaves.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I trust my child to behave as he should, even when I am not with him.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I joke and play with my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. My child and I have warm, close moments with each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I encourage my child to be curious, to explore and question things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I expect my child to be grateful and appreciate all the advantages he has.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I believe in praising a child when he is good and think it gets better results than punishing him when he is bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I make sure my child knows that I appreciate what he tries to accomplish.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I encourage my child to talk about his troubles.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I believe children should not keep secrets from their parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. I teach my child to keep control of his feelings at all times.	1	2	3	4	5	6

26. When I am angry with my child, I let him know about it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. I think a child should be encouraged to do things better than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. I believe that scolding and criticism makes my child improve.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. I believe my child should be aware of how much I sacrifice for him.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I do not allow my child to question my decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. I let my child know how ashamed and disappointed I am when he misbehaves.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. I want my child to make a good impression on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. I find it interesting and educational to be with my child for long periods.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. I instruct my child not to get dirty while he is playing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. I control my child by warning him about the bad things that can happen to him.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. I don't want my child to be looked upon as different from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. I often feel angry with my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. I feel my child is a bit of a disappointment to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. I help my child understand the impact of his behavior by encouraging him to talk about the consequences of his actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. I sometimes tease and make fun of my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. There is a good deal of conflict between my child and me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. I make sure I know where my child is and what he is doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6

ID:__________Cohort:_______________Grade:_______________Date:_____________

CHILD-REARING PRACTICES REPORT QUESTIONNAIRE

FOR FATHER TO COMPLETE

(CRPR-Q)—Boys' Version

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Your relationship to child: (Mark one) ☐ Biological Father ☐ Step-Father ☐ Other

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree

Statement						
1. I respect my child's opinions and encourage him to express them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I feel a child should be given comfort and understanding when he is scared or upset.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I try to keep my child away from children or families who have different ideas or values from our own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I believe that a child should be seen and not heard.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I express affection toward my child by hugging, kissing, and holding him.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I find some of my greatest satisfactions in my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I prefer that my child not try things if there is a chance he will fail.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I encourage my child to wonder and think about life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I usually take into account my child's preferences in making plans for the family.	1	2	3	4	5	6

10. I feel a child should have time to think, daydream, and even loaf sometimes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I do not allow my child to say bad things about his teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I teach my child that in one way or another punishment will find him when he is bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I do not allow my child to get angry with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I am easygoing and relaxed with my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I talk it over and reason with my child when he misbehaves.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I trust my child to behave as he should, even when I am not with him.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I joke and play with my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. My child and I have warm, close moments with each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I encourage my child to be curious, to explore and question things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I expect my child to be grateful and appreciate all the advantages he has.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I believe in praising a child when he is good and think it gets better results than punishing him when he is bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I make sure my child knows that I appreciate what he tries to accomplish.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I encourage my child to talk about his troubles.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I believe children should not keep secrets from their parents.	1	2	3	4	5	6
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26. When I am angry with my child, I let him know about it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. I think a child should be encouraged to do things better than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6

28. I believe that scolding and criticism makes my child improve.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. I believe my child should be aware of how much I sacrifice for him.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I do not allow my child to question my decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. I let my child know how ashamed and disappointed I am when he misbehaves.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. I want my child to make a good impression on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. I find it interesting and educational to be with my child for long periods.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. I instruct my child not to get dirty while he is playing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. I control my child by warning him about the bad things that can happen to him.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. I don't want my child to be looked upon as different from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. I often feel angry with my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. I feel my child is a bit of a disappointment to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. I help my child understand the impact of his behavior by encouraging him to talk about the consequences of his actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. I sometimes tease and make fun of my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. There is a good deal of conflict between my child and me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. I make sure I know where my child is and what he is doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6

ID:__________ Cohort:______________ Grade:________________ Date:________

CHILD-REARING PRACTICES REPORT QUESTIONNAIRE

FOR MOTHER TO COMPLETE

(CRPR-Q)—Girls' Version

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Your relationship to child: (Mark one) ☐ Biological Mother ☐ Step-Mother ☐ Other

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree

1. I respect my child's opinions and encourage her to express them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I feel a child should be given comfort and understanding when she is scared or upset.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I try to keep my child away from children or families who have different ideas or values from our own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I believe that a child should be seen and not heard.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I express affection toward my child by hugging, kissing, and holding her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I find some of my greatest satisfactions in my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I prefer that my child not try things if there is a chance she will fail.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I encourage my child to wonder and think about life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I usually take into account my child's preferences in making plans for the family.	1	2	3	4	5	6

10. I feel a child should have time to think, daydream, and even loaf sometimes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I do not allow my child to say bad things about her teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
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13. I do not allow my child to get angry with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I am easygoing and relaxed with my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I talk it over and reason with my child when she misbehaves.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I trust my child to behave as she should, even when I am not with her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I joke and play with my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. My child and I have warm, close moments with each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I encourage my child to be curious, to explore and question things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I expect my child to be grateful and appreciate all the advantages she has.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I believe in praising a child when she is good and think it gets better results than punishing her when she is bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I make sure my child knows that I appreciate what she tries to accomplish.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. I encourage my child to talk about her troubles.	1	2	3	4	5	6
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26. When I am angry with my child, I let her know about it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. I think a child should be encouraged to do things better than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6

28. I believe that scolding and criticism makes my child improve.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. I believe my child should be aware of how much I sacrifice for her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I do not allow my child to question my decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
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32. I want my child to make a good impression on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. I find it interesting and educational to be with my child for long periods.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. I instruct my child not to get dirty while she is playing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. I control my child by warning her about the bad things that can happen to her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. I don't want my child to be looked upon as different from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. I often feel angry with my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. I feel my child is a bit of a disappointment to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. I help my child understand the impact of her behavior by encouraging her to talk about the consequences of her actions. -	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. I sometimes tease and make fun of my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. There is a good deal of conflict between my child and me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. I make sure I know where my child is and what she is doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6

ID:__________ Cohort:______________ Grade:________________ Date:______________

CHILD-REARING PRACTICES REPORT QUESTIONNAIRE

FOR FATHER TO COMPLETE

(CRPR-Q)—Girls' Version

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Your relationship to child: (Mark one) ☐ Biological Father ☐ Step-Father ☐ Other

1 Strongly disagree	2 Moderately disagree	3 Slightly disagree	4 Slightly agree	5 Moderately agree	6 Strongly agree

Statement						
1. I respect my child's opinions and encourage her to express them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I feel a child should be given comfort and understanding when she is scared or upset.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I try to keep my child away from children or families who have different ideas or values from our own.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I believe that a child should be seen and not heard.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I express affection toward my child by hugging, kissing, and holding her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I find some of my greatest satisfactions in my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I prefer that my child not try things if there is a chance she will fail.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I encourage my child to wonder and think about life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I usually take into account my child's preferences in making plans for the family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I feel a child should have time to think, daydream, and even loaf sometimes.	1	2	3	4	5	6

11. I do not allow my child to say bad things about her teachers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I teach my child that in one way or another punishment will find her when she is bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I do not allow my child to get angry with me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. I am easygoing and relaxed with my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I talk it over and reason with my child when she misbehaves.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I trust my child to behave as she should, even when I am not with her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I joke and play with my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. My child and I have warm, close moments with each other.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I encourage my child to be curious, to explore and question things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I expect my child to be grateful and appreciate all the advantages she has.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I believe in praising a child when she is good and think it gets better results than punishing her when she is bad.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I make sure my child knows that I appreciate what she tries to accomplish.	1	2	3	4	5	6
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26. When I am angry with my child, I let her know about it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. I think a child should be encouraged to do things better than others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. I believe that scolding and criticism makes my child improve.	1	2	3	4	5	6

29. I believe my child should be aware of how much I sacrifice for her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I do not allow my child to question my decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. I let my child know how ashamed and disappointed I am when she misbehaves.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. I want my child to make a good impression on others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. I find it interesting and educational to be with my child for long periods.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. I instruct my child not to get dirty while she is playing.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. I control my child by warning her about the bad things that can happen to her.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. I don't want my child to be looked upon as different from others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. I often feel angry with my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. I feel my child is a bit of a disappointment to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. I help my child understand the impact of her behavior by encouraging her to talk about the consequences of her actions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. I sometimes tease and make fun of my child.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. There is a good deal of conflict between my child and me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. I make sure I know where my child is and what she is doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX C. Network of Relationships Inventory

ID #:____________________ Cohort:_____ Grade:_____ Date:_______

Birthdate ____________________________________
month day year

General Instructions

On these questionnaires you are going to fill out, we want to know what you really think about each question; so answer as honestly as possible. There are no right or wrong answers. All this information will be kept private and confidential, which means that your name will not be on any of the forms, and nobody will know how you answered any of the questions. Read carefully and try to answer every question. If you have any questions as you go along, please ask me – I'll be in the next room.

Directions for the Relationships Questionnaire

Everyone has a number of people who are important in his or her life. For example, your parents, brothers or sisters, other relatives, teachers, and friends are people who might be important to you. The questions below are about your relationships with your family members and friends.

----

1. Circle all the parents you have who are alive:

   mother father step-mother step-father

2. Circle the parents you live with right now:

   mother father step-mother step-father

3. Please name your very best friend:

   a. ____
   (first name) (last initial)

How do you know each other? Please check all that apply:

School friend? ____ Neighborhood friend? ____

Leisure activity friend? ____

The next questions ask about your relationships with each of the following people:
1) your mother or step-mother (if you have both, describe your relationship with the *one you feel closest to*); 2) your father or step-father (if you have both, describe your relationship with the *one you feel closest to*); and 3) your friend. If, for some reason (for example, a parent has died) you cannot fill out the scale for someone, you don't have to. Answer each of the following questions for each person. Sometimes the answers for different people may be the same; sometimes they may be different.

When answering questions about your **friend**, please think about the person you named on the previous page.

Will you be answering these questions about your?

Mom ____ Step-mom ____

Dad ____ Step-dad ____

Here is an example:

How often do you go shopping with this person?

	None	**Little**	**Some**	**A lot**	**Almost all**
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

1. How much free time do you spend with this person?

	None	Little	Some	A lot	Almost all
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

2. How much do you and this person get upset with each other or mad at each other?

	None	Little	Some	A lot	Almost always
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

3. How much does this person teach you how to do things that you don't know how to do?

	None	Little	Some	A lot	Almost always
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

4. How satisfied are you with your relationship with this person?

	Not satisfied	A little satisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Very satisfied	Extremely satisfied
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

5. How much do you tell this person everything?

	Tell nothing	Tell a little	Tell some things	Tell a lot of things	Tell all
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

6. How much do you help this person with things she/he can't do by her/himself?

	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot	Almost always
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

7. How much does this person like or love you?

	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

8. How much does this person punish you?

	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

9. How much does this person treat you like you're admired and respected?

	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

10. How often does this person tell you what to do?

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

11. How sure are you that this relationship will last no matter what?

	Not at all	A little sure	Somewhat sure	Very sure	Extremely sure
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

12. How much do you play around and have fun with this person?

	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot	A ton
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

13. How much do you and this person disagree and quarrel?

	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot	A ton
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

14. How much does this person help you figure out or fix things?

	Not at all	A little	Sometimes	A lot	The most
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

15. How happy are you with the way things are between you and this person?

	Not happy	A little happy	Somewhat happy	Very happy	Extremely happy
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

16. How much do you and this person annoy or bug each other?

	Never	A little	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

17. How much do you share your secrets and private feelings with this person?

	Never	A little	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

18. How much do you protect and look out for this person?

	Never	A little	Sometimes	Often	Very often
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

19. How much does this person really care about you?

	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

20. How much does this person discipline you for disobeying him/her?

	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

21. How much does this person treat you like you're good at many things?

	Not at all	A little	Somewhat	A lot	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

22. How often is this person the boss in your relationship?

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

23. How sure are you that your relationship will last even if you have fights?

	Not at all	A little sure	Somewhat sure	Very sure	Extremely sure
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

24. How often do you go places and do enjoyable things with this person?

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

25. How much do you and this person argue with each other?

	Not at all	A little	Sometimes	A lot	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

26. How often does this person help you when you need to get something done?

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

27. How good is your relationship with this person?

	Bad	A little bad	Good	Very good	Great
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

28. How much do you and this person hassle or nag one another?

	Not at all	A little	Sometimes	A lot	Almost always
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

29. How much do you talk to this person about things that you don't want others to know?

	Not at all	A little	Some	A lot	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

30. How much do you take care of this person?

	Not at all	A little	Some	A lot	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

31. How much does this person have a strong feeling of affection (love or liking) toward you?

	Not at all	A little	Some	A lot	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

32. How much does this person scold you for doing something you're not supposed to do?

	Not at all	A little	Some	A lot	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

33. How much does this person like or approve of the things you do?

	Not at all	A little	Some	A lot	Very much
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

34. How often does this person take charge and decide what should be done?

	Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Always
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

35. How sure are you that your relationship will continue in the years to come?

	Not at all sure	A little sure	Somewhat sure	Very sure	Extremely sure
Mother	1	2	3	4	5
Father	1	2	3	4	5
Friend	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D. Parenting Practices Scale

ID:___________________Grade: ______ Cohort:__________ Date:__________________

THE PARENTING PRACTICES SCALE

The questions ask about your MOTHER OR STEP-MOTHER. If you have both, describe your relationship with the person you feel closest to.

This person is my (mark one): ☐ Biological Mother ☐ Step-Mother

The questions ask about your FATHER OR STEP-FATHER. If you have both, describe your relationship with the person you feel closest to.

This person is my (mark one): ☐ Biological Father ☐ Step-Father

Please answer the questions for each person that you have a relationship with (***for every question, circle one number for mother and one number for father***). Sometimes the answers for different people may be the same, but often they are different. If you do not have one of these relationships, leave that space blank on all of the questions. Do not skip any questions. Unless otherwise indicated, use the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I can count on this parent to help me out if I have some kind of problem.

	1	2	3	4	5
MOTHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
FATHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

2. This parent says that you should not argue with adults.

	1	2	3	4	5
MOTHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
FATHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree

3. This parent keeps pushing me to do my best in whatever I do.

	1	2	3	4	5
MOTHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
FATHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree

4. This parent says that you should give in on arguments rather than make people angry.

	1	2	3	4	5
MOTHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
FATHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree

5. This parent keeps pushing me to think independently.

MOTHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
FATHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree

6. When I get a poor grade in school, this parent makes my life miserable.

MOTHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
FATHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree

7. This parent helps me with my schoolwork if there is something I do not understand.

MOTHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
FATHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree

8. This parent tells me that his or her ideas are correct and that I should not question them.

MOTHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
FATHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree

9. When this parent wants me to do something, he or she explains why.

MOTHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
FATHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree

10. Whenever I argue with this parent, he or she says things like, "You'll know better when you grow up."

MOTHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
FATHER	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Agree nor Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree

11. When I get a poor grade in school, this parent encourages me to try harder.

	1	2	3	4	5
MOTHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
FATHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

12. This parent lets me make my own plans for things I want to do.

	1	2	3	4	5
MOTHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
FATHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

13. This parent knows who my friends are.

	1	2	3	4	5
MOTHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
FATHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

14. This parent acts cold and unfriendly if I do something he or she does not like.

	1	2	3	4	5
MOTHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
FATHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

15. This parent spends time just talking to me.

	1	2	3	4	5
MOTHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
FATHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

16. When I get a poor grade in school, this parent makes me feel guilty.

	1	2	3	4	5
MOTHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
FATHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

17. I do fun things together with this parent.

	1	2	3	4	5
MOTHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
FATHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

18. This parent will not let me do things with him or her when I do something he or she does not like.

	1	2	3	4	5
MOTHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree
FATHER	Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

19. In a typical week, what is the latest you can stay out on SCHOOL NIGHTS (Monday-Thursday)?

☐ I am not allowed out ☐ Before 8:00 P.M. ☐ 8:00 P.M. to 9:00 P.M.

☐ 9:00 p.m. to 9:59 P.M. ☐ 10:00 P.M. to 10:59 P.M. ☐ 11:00 P.M. or later

☐ As late as I want

20. **In a typical week, what is the latest you can stay out on FRIDAY OR SATURDAY NIGHT?**

☐ I am not allowed out ☐ Before 8:00 P.M. ☐ 8:00 P.M. to 9:00 P.M.

☐ 9:00 p.m. to 9:59 P.M. ☐ 10:00 P.M. to 10:59 P.M. ☐ 11:00 P.M. or later

☐ As late as I want

21. How much do your parents TRY to know where you go at night?

1 Don't Try | 2 Try a Little | 3 Try a Lot

22. How much do your parents TRY to know what you do with your free time?

1 Don't Try | 2 Try a Little | 3 Try a Lot

23. How much do your parents TRY to know where you are most afternoons after school?

1 Don't Try | 2 Try a Little | 3 Try a Lot

24. How much do your parents REALLY know where you go at night?

1 Don't Try | 2 Try a Little | 3 Try a Lot

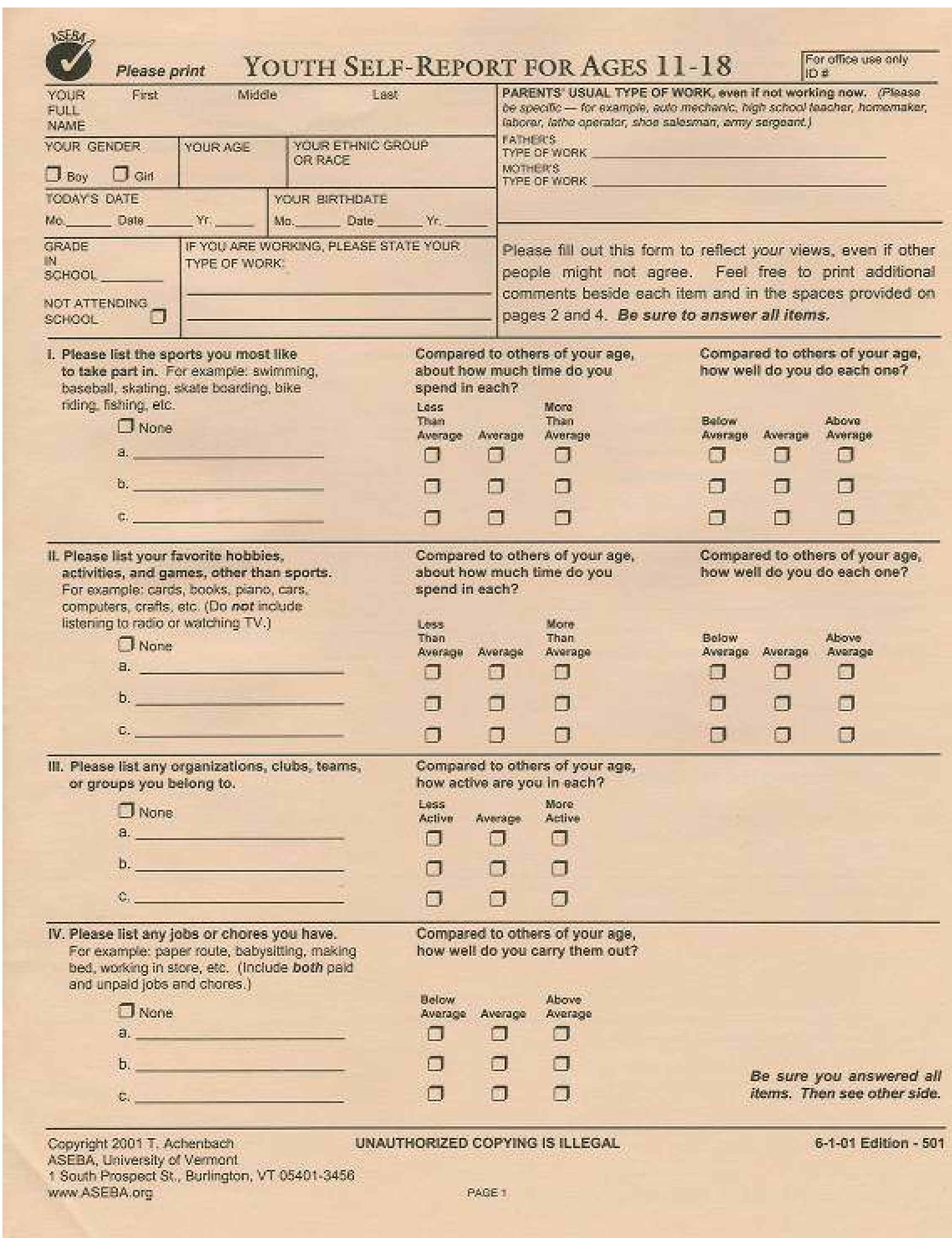
25. How much do your parents REALLY know what you do with your free time?

1 Don't Try | 2 Try a Little | 3 Try a Lot

26. How much do your parents REALLY know where you are most afternoons after school?

1 Don't Try | 2 Try a Little | 3 Try a Lot

APPENDIX E. Youth Self-Report (2001)



Please print **YOUTH SELF-REPORT FOR AGES 11-18**

For office use only ID #

YOUR FULL NAME First Middle Last

YOUR GENDER ❒ Boy ❒ Girl | YOUR AGE | YOUR ETHNIC GROUP OR RACE

TODAY'S DATE Mo.____ Date____ Yr.____ | YOUR BIRTHDATE Mo.____ Date____ Yr.____

GRADE IN SCHOOL ____

NOT ATTENDING SCHOOL ❒

IF YOU ARE WORKING, PLEASE STATE YOUR TYPE OF WORK:

PARENTS' USUAL TYPE OF WORK, even if not working now. *(Please be specific — for example, auto mechanic, high school teacher, homemaker, laborer, lathe operator, shoe salesman, army sergeant.)*

FATHER'S TYPE OF WORK ____

MOTHER'S TYPE OF WORK ____

Please fill out this form to reflect *your* views, even if other people might not agree. Feel free to print additional comments beside each item and in the spaces provided on pages 2 and 4. ***Be sure to answer all items.***

I. Please list the sports you most like to take part in. For example: swimming, baseball, skating, skate boarding, bike riding, fishing, etc.

❒ None

	Compared to others of your age, about how much time do you spend in each?			Compared to others of your age, how well do you do each one?		
	Less Than Average	Average	More Than Average	Below Average	Average	Above Average
a. ____	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒
b. ____	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒
c. ____	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒

II. Please list your favorite hobbies, activities, and games, other than sports. For example: cards, books, piano, cars, computers, crafts, etc. (Do *not* include listening to radio or watching TV.)

❒ None

	Compared to others of your age, about how much time do you spend in each?			Compared to others of your age, how well do you do each one?		
	Less Than Average	Average	More Than Average	Below Average	Average	Above Average
a. ____	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒
b. ____	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒
c. ____	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒	❒

III. Please list any organizations, clubs, teams, or groups you belong to.

❒ None

	Compared to others of your age, how active are you in each?		
	Less Active	Average	More Active
a. ____	❒	❒	❒
b. ____	❒	❒	❒
c. ____	❒	❒	❒

IV. Please list any jobs or chores you have. For example: paper route, babysitting, making bed, working in store, etc. (Include *both* paid and unpaid jobs and chores.)

❒ None

	Compared to others of your age, how well do you carry them out?		
	Below Average	Average	Above Average
a. ____	❒	❒	❒
b. ____	❒	❒	❒
c. ____	❒	❒	❒

Be sure you answered all items. Then see other side.

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PAGE 1

Please print. Be sure to answer all items.

V. 1. About how many close friends do you have? (Do *not* include brothers & sisters)

❐ None ❐ 1 ❐ 2 or 3 ❐ 4 or more

2. About how many times a week do you do things with any friends outside of regular school hours? (Do *not* include brothers & sisters)

❐ Less than 1 ❐ 1 or 2 ❐ 3 or more

VI. Compared to others of your age, how well do you:

	Worse	Average	Better	
a. Get along with your brothers & sisters?	❐	❐	❐	❐ I have no brothers or sisters
b. Get along with other kids?	❐	❐	❐	
c. Get along with your parents?	❐	❐	❐	
d. Do things by yourself?	❐	❐	❐	

VII. 1. Performance in academic subjects. ❐ I do not attend school because ______________________

Check a box for each subject that you take	Failing	Below Average	Average	Above Average
a. English or Language Arts	❐	❐	❐	❐
b. History or Social Studies	❐	❐	❐	❐
c. Arithmetic or Math	❐	❐	❐	❐
d. Science	❐	❐	❐	❐
e. ______________	❐	❐	❐	❐
f. ______________	❐	❐	❐	❐
g. ______________	❐	❐	❐	❐

Other academic subjects–for example: computer courses, foreign language, business. Do *not* include gym, shop, driver's ed., or other nonacademic subjects.

Do you have any illness, disability, or handicap? ❐ No ❐ Yes—please describe:

Please describe any concerns or problems you have about school:

Please describe any other concerns you have:

Please describe the best things about youself:

PAGE 2

Be sure you answered all items.

Please print. Be sure to answer all items.

Below is a list of items that describe kids. For each item that describes you ***now or within the past 6 months***, please circle the ***2*** if the item is ***very true or often true*** of you. Circle the ***1*** if the item is ***somewhat or sometimes true*** of you. If the item is ***not true*** of you, circle the ***0***.

0 = Not True **1 = Somewhat or Sometimes True** **2 = Very True or Often True**

0 1 2 1. I act too young for my age
0 1 2 2. I drink alcohol without my parents' approval (describe): ____________
0 1 2 3. I argue a lot
0 1 2 4. I fail to finish things that I start
0 1 2 5. There is very little that I enjoy
0 1 2 6. I like animals
0 1 2 7. I brag
0 1 2 8. I have trouble concentrating or paying attention
0 1 2 9. I can't get my mind off certain thoughts; (describe): ____________
0 1 2 10. I have trouble sitting still
0 1 2 11. I'm too dependent on adults
0 1 2 12. I feel lonely
0 1 2 13. I feel confused or in a fog
0 1 2 14. I cry a lot
0 1 2 15. I am pretty honest
0 1 2 16. I am mean to others
0 1 2 17. I daydream a lot
0 1 2 18. I deliberately try to hurt or kill myself
0 1 2 19. I try to get a lot of attention
0 1 2 20. I destroy my own things
0 1 2 21. I destroy things belonging to others
0 1 2 22. I disobey my parents
0 1 2 23. I disobey at school
0 1 2 24. I don't eat as well as I should
0 1 2 25. I don't get along with other kids
0 1 2 26. I don't feel guilty after doing something I shouldn't
0 1 2 27. I am jealous of others
0 1 2 28. I break rules at home, school, or elsewhere
0 1 2 29. I am afraid of certain animals, situations, or places, other than school (describe): ____________
0 1 2 30. I am afraid of going to school
0 1 2 31. I am afraid I might think or do something bad
0 1 2 32. I feel that I have to be perfect
0 1 2 33. I feel that no one loves me
0 1 2 34. I feel that others are out to get me
0 1 2 35. I feel worthless or inferior
0 1 2 36. I accidentally get hurt a lot
0 1 2 37. I get in many fights
0 1 2 38. I get teased a lot
0 1 2 39. I hang around with kids who get in trouble
0 1 2 40. I hear sounds or voices that other people think aren't there (describe): ____________
0 1 2 41. I act without stopping to think
0 1 2 42. I would rather be alone than with others
0 1 2 43. I lie or cheat
0 1 2 44. I bite my fingernails
0 1 2 45. I am nervous or tense
0 1 2 46. Parts of my body twitch or make nervous movements (describe): ____________
0 1 2 47. I have nightmares
0 1 2 48. I am not liked by other kids
0 1 2 49. I can do certain things better than most kids
0 1 2 50. I am too fearful or anxious
0 1 2 51. I feel dizzy or lightheaded
0 1 2 52. I feel too guilty
0 1 2 53. I eat too much
0 1 2 54. I feel overtired without good reason
0 1 2 55. I am overweight

56. Physical problems ***without known medical cause:***

0 1 2 a. Aches or pains (*not* stomach or headaches)
0 1 2 b. Headaches
0 1 2 c. Nausea, feel sick
0 1 2 d. Problems with eyes (*not* if corrected by glasses) (describe): ____________
0 1 2 e. Rashes or other skin problems
0 1 2 f. Stomachaches
0 1 2 g. Vomiting, throwing up
0 1 2 h. Other (describe): ____________

PAGE 3 ***Be sure you answered all items. Then see other side.***

Please print. Be sure to answer all items.

0 = Not True **1 = Somewhat or Sometimes True** **2 = Very True or Often True**

0 1 2 57. I physically attack people

0 1 2 58. I pick my skin or other parts of my body (describe): ____________

0 1 2 59. I can be pretty friendly

0 1 2 60. I like to try new things

0 1 2 61. My school work is poor

0 1 2 62. I am poorly coordinated or clumsy

0 1 2 63. I would rather be with older kids than kids my own age

0 1 2 64. I would rather be with younger kids than kids my own age

0 1 2 65. I refuse to talk

0 1 2 66. I repeat certain acts over and over (describe): ____________

0 1 2 67. I run away from home

0 1 2 68. I scream a lot

0 1 2 69. I am secretive or keep things to myself

0 1 2 70. I see things that other people think aren't there (describe): ____________

0 1 2 71. I am self-conscious or easily embarrassed

0 1 2 72. I set fires

0 1 2 73. I can work well with my hands

0 1 2 74. I show off or clown

0 1 2 75. I am too shy or timid

0 1 2 76. I sleep less than most kids

0 1 2 77. I sleep more than most kids during day and/or night (describe): ____________

0 1 2 78. I am inattentive or easily distracted

0 1 2 79. I have a speech problem (describe): ____________

0 1 2 80. I stand up for my rights

0 1 2 81. I steal at home

0 1 2 82. I steal from places other than home

0 1 2 83. I store up too many things I don't need (describe): ____________

0 1 2 84. I do things other people think are strange (describe): ____________

0 1 2 85. I have thoughts that other people would think are strange (describe): ____________

0 1 2 86. I am stubborn

0 1 2 87. My moods or feelings change suddenly

0 1 2 88. I enjoy being with people

0 1 2 89. I am suspicious

0 1 2 90. I swear or use dirty language

0 1 2 91. I think about killing myself

0 1 2 92. I like to make others laugh

0 1 2 93. I talk too much

0 1 2 94. I tease others a lot

0 1 2 95. I have a hot temper

0 1 2 96. I think about sex too much

0 1 2 97. I threaten to hurt people

0 1 2 98. I like to help others

0 1 2 99. I smoke, chew, or sniff tobacco

0 1 2 100. I have trouble sleeping (describe): ____________

0 1 2 101. I cut classes or skip school

0 1 2 102. I don't have much energy

0 1 2 103. I am unhappy, sad, or depressed

0 1 2 104. I am louder than other kids

0 1 2 105. I use drugs for nonmedical purposes (***don't*** include alcohol or tobacco) (describe): ____________

0 1 2 106. I like to be fair to others

0 1 2 107. I enjoy a good joke

0 1 2 108. I like to take life easy

0 1 2 109. I try to help other people when I can

0 1 2 110. I wish I were of the opposite sex

0 1 2 111. I keep from getting involved with others

0 1 2 112. I worry a lot

Please be sure you answered all items.

Please write down anything else that describes your feelings, behavior, or interests:

PAGE 4

APPENDIX F. Self Perception Profile for Adolescents (SPP-A)

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
1.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are just as smart as others their age.	**BUT**	Other teenagers are not so sure and wonder if they are as smart.	☐	☐
2.	☐	☐	Some teenagers find it hard to make friends.	**BUT**	For other teenagers it is pretty easy.	☐	☐
3.	☐	☐	Some teenagers do well at all kinds of sports.	**BUT**	Other teenagers don't feel that they are very good when it comes to sports.	☐	☐
4.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are *not* happy with the way they look.	**BUT**	Other teenagers are happy with the way they look.	☐	☐

5.

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are ready to do well at a part-time job.	**BUT**	Other teenagers feel that they are not quite ready to handle a part-time job.	☐	☐

6.

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that if they are romantically interested in someone, that person will like them back.	**BUT**	Other teenagers worry that when they like someone romantically, that person won't like them back.	☐	☐

7.

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers usually do the right thing.	**BUT**	Other teenagers often do not do what they know is right.	☐	☐

8.

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers are able to make really close friends.	**BUT**	Other teenagers find it hard to make really close friends.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
9.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are often disappointed with themselves.	**BUT**	Other teenagers are pretty pleased with themselves.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
10.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are pretty slow in finishing school work.	**BUT**	Other teenagers can do school work more quickly.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
11.	☐	☐	Some teenagers have a lot of friends.	**BUT**	Other teenagers do not have very many friends.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
12.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think they could do well at just at just about any new athletic activity.	**BUT**	Other teenagers are afraid they might not do well at a new athletic activity.	☐	☐

13.

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers wish their body was different.	**BUT**	Other teenagers like their body the way it is.	☐	☐

14.

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they *don't* have enough skills to do well at a job.	**BUT**	Other teenagers feel that they *do* have enough skills to do a job well.	☐	☐

15.

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers are *not* dating the people they are really attracted to.	**BUT**	Other teenagers *are* dating those people they are attracted to.	☐	☐

16.

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers often get in trouble for the things they do.	**BUT**	Other teenagers usually *don't* do things that get them in trouble.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
17.	☐	☐	Some teenagers have a close friend they can share secrets with.	**BUT**	Other teenagers do not have a close friend they can share secrets with.	☐	☐
18.	☐	☐	Some teenagers do not like the way they are leading their life.	**BUT**	Other teenagers do like the way they are leading their life.	☐	☐
19.	☐	☐	Some teenagers do very well on their classwork.	**BUT**	Other teenagers do not do very well on their classwork.	☐	☐
20.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are very hard to like.	**BUT**	Other teenagers are really easy to like.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
21.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are better than others their age at sports.	**BUT**	Other teenagers don't feel they can play as well.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
22.	☐	☐	Some teenagers wish their physical appearance was different.	**BUT**	Other teenagers like their physical appearance the way it is.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
23.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel they are old enough to get and keep a paying job.	**BUT**	Other teenagers do not feel they are old enough, yet, to really handle a job well.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
24.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that people their age will be romantically attracted to them.	**BUT**	Other teenagers worry about whether people their age will be attracted to them.	☐	☐

25.

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers feel really good about the way they act.	**BUT**	Other teenagers *don't* feel that good about the way they often act.	☐	☐

26.

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers wish they had a really close friend to share things with.	**BUT**	Other teenagers *do* have a close friend to share things with.	☐	☐

27.

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers are happy with themselves most of the time.	**BUT**	Other teenagers are often not happy with themselves.	☐	☐

28.

Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers have trouble figuring out the answers in school.	**BUT**	Other teenagers almost always can figure out the answers.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
29.	☐	☐	Some teenagers are popular with others their age.	**BUT**	Other teenagers are not very popular.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
30.	☐	☐	Some teenagers don't do well at new outdoor games.	**BUT**	Other teenagers are good at new games right away.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
31.	☐	☐	Some teenagers think that they are good looking.	**BUT**	Other teenagers think that they are not very good looking.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
32.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel they could do better at work they do for pay.	**BUT**	Other teenagers feel that they are doing well at work they do for pay.	☐	☐

33. Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are fun and interesting on a date.	**BUT**	Other teenagers wonder about how fun and interesting they are on a date.	☐	☐

34. Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers do things they know they should not do.	**BUT**	Other teenagers hardly ever do things they know they should not do.	☐	☐

35. Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers find it hard to make friends they can really trust.	**BUT**	Other teenagers *are* able to make close friends they can really trust.	☐	☐

36. Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers like the kind of person they are.	**BUT**	Other teenagers often wish they were someone else.	☐	☐

	Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
37.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are pretty intelligent.	**BUT**	Other teenagers question whether they are intelligent.	☐	☐
38.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are socially accepted.	**BUT**	Other teenagers wish that more people their age accepted them.	☐	☐
39.	☐	☐	Some teenagers do not feel that they are very athletic.	**BUT**	Other teenagers feel that they *are* very athletic.	☐	☐
40.	☐	☐	Some teenagers really like their looks.	**BUT**	Other teenagers wish they looked different.	☐	☐
41.	☐	☐	Some teenagers feel that they are really able to handle the work on a paying job.	**BUT**	Other teenagers wonder if they are really doing as good a job at work as they should be doing.	☐	☐

42. Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers usually *do not* go out with the people they would like to date	**BUT**	Other teenagers do go out with people they really want to date	☐	☐

43. Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers usually act the way they know they are supposed to.	**BUT**	Other teenagers often do not act the the way they are supposed to.	☐	☐

44. Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers *do not* have a friend that is close enough to share really personal thoughts with.	**BUT**	Other teenagers do have a friend that they can share personal thoughts and feelings with.	☐	☐

45. Really True for me	Sort of True for me				Sort of True for me	Really True for me
☐	☐	Some teenagers are very happy being the way they are.	**BUT**	Other teenagers wish they were different.	☐	☐

APPENDIX G. Leisure Activities Questionnaire

ID#: ______________ Cohort: _________ Grade: _______ Date:_________________

Leisure Activities Questionnaire

<u>DIRECTIONS</u>: We have listed below five types of activities that teenagers participate in. For each type, we'd like you to list up to three of the activities you have most frequently taken part in right now and over the past year. After you do this, circle a number that indicates how often you participate in each activity and how fun it is for you. It can be an organized team or a group of kids that get together on the weekend, for example. Finally, tell us whether or not you participate in these activities because you want to or *you choose* whether or not you do it (voluntary) *or* because you have to (not voluntary). If you have any questions as you go along, please feel free to contact us by email rubinlab@umd.edu or phone (301) 405-5194.

I. **<u>SPORTS LEISURE</u>**: This type of activity is demanding, often competitive, but primarily provides a sense of personal challenge. For example: baseball, soccer, lacrosse, etc. **List your 3 most frequent activities of this type.**

1. _______________________________________

How often?

1= once every few months 2= once a month 3= every week 4= 2-3 times per week 5= daily

How enjoyable?

1= not enjoyable 2= somewhat enjoyable 3= enjoyable 4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary? Yes No [Circle Yes or No]

2. _______________________________________

How often?

1= once every few months 2= once a month 3= every week 4= 2-3 times per week 5= daily

How enjoyable?

1= not enjoyable 2= somewhat enjoyable 3= enjoyable 4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary? Yes No [Circle Yes or No]

3. _______________________________________

How often?

1= once every few months 2= once a month 3= every week 4= 2-3 times per week 5= daily

How enjoyable?

1= not enjoyable 2= somewhat enjoyable 3= enjoyable 4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary? Yes No [Circle Yes or No]

II. **ARTISTIC LEISURE**: This type of activity relates to the arts and music. For example: piano, dance/ballet, drama, arts & crafts, etc. **List your 3 most frequent activities of this type.**

1. ____

How often?

1= once every few months 2= once a month 3= every week 4= 2-3 times per week 5= daily

How enjoyable?

1= not enjoyable 2= somewhat enjoyable 3= enjoyable 4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary? Yes No [Circle Yes or No]

2. ____

How often?

1= once every few months 2= once a month 3= every week 4= 2-3 times per week 5= daily

How enjoyable?

1= not enjoyable 2= somewhat enjoyable 3= enjoyable 4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary? Yes No [Circle Yes or No]

3. ____

How often?

1= once every few months 2= once a month 3= every week 4= 2-3 times per week 5= daily

How enjoyable?

1= not enjoyable 2= somewhat enjoyable 3= enjoyable 4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary? Yes No [Circle Yes or No]

III. <u>**SOCIAL LEISURE**</u>: This type of activity is for the purpose of being in the company of other people, particularly peers. For example: visiting, eating with friends, watching TV with others, talking on the phone, etc. **List your 3 most frequent activities of this type.**

1. ____

How often?

1= once every few months   2= once a month   3= every week   4= 2-3 times per week   5= daily

How enjoyable?

1= not enjoyable   2= somewhat enjoyable   3= enjoyable   4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary?   Yes   No   [Circle Yes or No]

2. ____

How often?

1= once every few months   2= once a month   3= every week   4= 2-3 times per week   5= daily

How enjoyable?

1= not enjoyable   2= somewhat enjoyable   3= enjoyable   4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary?   Yes   No   [Circle Yes or No]

3. ____

How often?

1= once every few months   2= once a month   3= every week   4= 2-3 times per week   5= daily

How enjoyable?

1= not enjoyable   2= somewhat enjoyable   3= enjoyable   4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary?   Yes   No   [Circle Yes or No]

IV. **<u>FREE TIME BY YOURSELF</u>**: This type of activity is undemanding, relaxing, and a way to pass time. For example: listening to music, watching television, lying in bed, reviewing the day's events, hobbies not covered under sports or arts (for example: model building, internet stuff), etc. **List your 3 most frequent activities of this type.**

1. ____

How often?

1= once every few months 2= once a month 3= every week 4= 2-3 times per week 5= daily

How enjoyable?

1= not enjoyable 2= somewhat enjoyable 3= enjoyable 4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary? Yes No [Circle Yes or No]

2. ____

How often?

1= once every few months 2= once a month 3= every week 4= 2-3 times per week 5= daily

How enjoyable?

1= not enjoyable 2= somewhat enjoyable 3= enjoyable 4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary? Yes No [Circle Yes or No]

3. ____

How often?

1= once every few months 2= once a month 3= every week 4= 2-3 times per week 5= daily

How enjoyable?

1= not enjoyable 2= somewhat enjoyable 3= enjoyable 4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary? Yes No [Circle Yes or No]

V. **<u>COMMUNITY SERVICE OR INVOLVEMENT</u>**: This type of activity is any time you spend doing service activities. For example: visiting a nursing home or a hospital; participating/organizing a canned food drive, etc. **List your 3 most frequent activities of this type.**

1. ____

How often?
1= once every few months 2= once a month 3= every week 4= 2-3 times per week 5= daily

How enjoyable?
1= not enjoyable 2= somewhat enjoyable 3= enjoyable 4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary? Yes No [Circle Yes or No]

2. ____

How often?
1= once every few months 2= once a month 3= every week 4= 2-3 times per week 5= daily

How enjoyable?
1= not enjoyable 2= somewhat enjoyable 3= enjoyable 4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary? Yes No [Circle Yes or No]

3. ____

How often?
1= once every few months 2= once a month 3= every week 4= 2-3 times per week 5= daily

How enjoyable?
1= not enjoyable 2= somewhat enjoyable 3= enjoyable 4= very enjoyable

Is it voluntary? Yes No [Circle Yes or No]

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