

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ADOLESCENT IDENTITY STYLES
AND PARENTING STYLES IN ONE AND TWO PARENT FAMILIES
IN BOTSWANA**

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ABSTRACT

Adolescence is a critical developmental stage for any individual. The process of identity formation occurs during this stage and Erikson's theory states that adolescents' engagement in exploration, to form their own sense of identity, is influenced by environmental factors and socialization figures. Family has been one of the most important agents of socialization for adolescents. The family unit is essential in providing the support system for adolescents to overcome the challenges they face. Parenting is one of many aspects that play a role in the development of both adaptive and maladaptive behaviour in adolescents. Family and parenting are, therefore, important in adolescent identity formation. Berzonsky examined the process of social cognitive strategies that individuals utilize, when dealing with identity relevant information; that is the identity styles. One and two-parent families are among the forms of family structures, in which parents employ various parenting styles that, along with the interaction of families members, result in different outcomes in adolescents.

The aim of this study was to compare the relationship between perceived parenting styles and the identity styles of adolescents living in one and two-parent families in Botswana. A quantitative methodology with a cross-sectional, correlational-comparative design was employed. The study population was Junior Secondary school learners in Gaborone, Botswana, aged between 13-17 years, residing in a one and two-parent families. Simple random sampling was used to select the 4 schools that participated. The study sample consisted of 194 learners. Data was collected using self-administered questionnaires that included demographic information, the identity style questionnaire and the parenting style and dimensions questionnaire. Data was analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Descriptive statistics, Pearson correlation and independent t-tests were used to analyze the data. The findings of the study showed that the majority of the participants were oriented towards choosing the informational identity style as was shown by the mean and standard deviation ($M=3.64$, $SD=.62$). The most prevalent parenting style was authoritative, with higher maternal scores ($M=3.52$, $SD=.81$). There was a relationship between identity styles and parenting style and a significant difference in the relationship between parenting styles and identity styles in one and two-parent families. Pearson correlation was used to determine the relationship between variables and a significant positive relationship was at significance level ($p < 0.05$).

KEY WORDS

Identity styles

Informational identity style

Normative identity style

Diffuse-avoidant identity style

Commitment

Identity formation

Adolescence

Family structure

Parenting styles



ABBREVIATIONS

ISI-4 (Identity Style Inventory version 4),

PSDQ (Parenting Style and Dimensions Questionnaire)

SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences)

MCONNECT (Mothers connection dimension)

FCONNECT (Fathers connection dimension)

MREG (Mothers regulation dimension)

FREG (Fathers regulation dimension)

MAUTGRNT (Mothers autonomy granting dimension)

FAUTGRNT (Fathers autonomy granting dimension)

MAUTIVE (Mothers authoritative parenting style)

FAUTIVE (Fathers authoritative parenting style)

MPHYSCOERC (Mothers physical coercion dimension)

FPHYSCOERC (Fathers physical coercion dimension)

MVERBHOST (Mothers verbal hostility dimension)

FVERBHOST (Fathers verbal hostility dimension)

MPUNITIVE (Mothers punitive dimension)

FPUNITIVE (Fathers punitive dimension)

MTARIAN (Mothers authoritarian parenting style)

FTARIAN (Fathers authoritarian parenting style)

MPERMISS (Mothers permissive parenting style)

FPERMISS (Fathers permissive parenting style)

N (Sample size)

M (Mean)

SD (Standard Deviation)

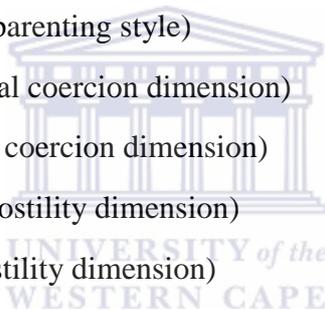
SE (Standard Error)

r (correlation effect)

p (significance value)

df (difference in mean)

t (t-test score)



DECLARATION

I declare that, *The relationship between adolescent identity styles and parenting styles in one and two parent families in Botswana* is my own work, that it has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other University, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

Full names: Leungo Sebangane

Date: November 2015

Signed:.....



DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my late mother, Sephiwe Pekenene. The time we spent together, I was showered with the motherly love, which I miss greatly. Of all the lessons I learnt from you, I still vividly recall your emphasis on the importance of education. Your spirit continues to shine upon me, from which I gain strength and motivation to achieve greater things in life.



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CHAPTER 2

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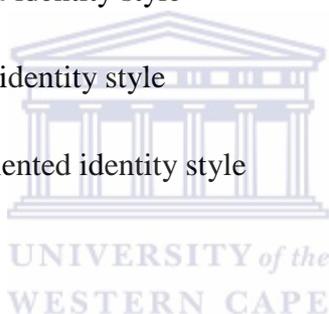
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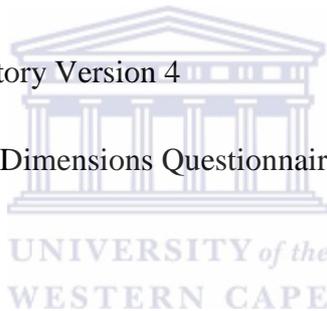
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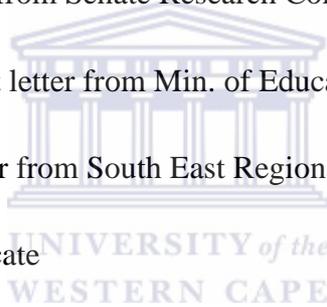
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background and Rationale

Family has been one of the most important agents of socialization for children and adolescents (Brand, Hatzinger, Beck & Holsboer-Trachsler, 2009; Henricson & Roker, 2000; Schaffer, Clark & Jeglic, 2009). The family unit is essential in providing the support system for adolescents to overcome the challenges that they face. The developmental stage of adolescence is unique in its multitude of concurrent changes that exist across various contexts, which changes occur as a result of puberty, cognitive development and changing roles with peers and families (Gutman & Eccles, 2007). The family context has an important influence on the adolescent's ability to successfully negotiate important developmental tasks, such as ego identity development (Beyers & Goossens, 2008; Koepke & Denissen, 2012). Erikson (1959) articulated that one of the salient developmental tasks confronting adolescents is establishing themselves as autonomous beings. To successfully overcome such tasks, the family structure should be responsive to the needs of adolescents.

The family structure, as significant as it is in the socialization of adolescents, has undergone some tremendous changes over time. Hyun (2007) states that the idea of traditional family from the past has been dismantled and various forms of families have emerged. One of the fastest growing family types is the single-parent family (Hyun, 2007). In America, for instance, Harris (2013) states that demographic trends reflect a decrease in marriage and significant increases in divorce, cohabitation, out of wedlock births and adoptions (Harris, 2013). This has also led to a continuous rise in the number of single-parent families (Taylor,

2010). According to Gaisie (2000), the old traditional nuclear and/or extended family structures have been gradually replaced, to a large extent, by single parent family types in Botswana.

This current study focuses on one and two parent family structures. Two parent families include those, who are married, and those, who may not be married, but are raising their children as a family unit. According to Manning and Lamb (2003), the notion of seeing family structure solely on the basis of marital status, is no longer adequate, especially when considering the growing number of children and adolescents reared in homes where cohabiting occurs. One parent families, in this study, include parents who: (a) never married, (b) are widowed and (c) are divorced, and is one that can be formed as a result of family structure transitions. According to Bartoszek and Pittman (2010), alternative family structures represent family reorganizations resulting from parental divorce, widowhood or re-marriage and such massive reorganizations of family structures threaten the context of nurture and care received by the children in these families. Divorce is one factor which significantly changes the family structure. The increase in the divorce rate might be attributable to economic crises, the demand for equal rights and opportunities for spouses, and the achievement of high levels of education by women (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2012; Luciano, Sampogna, del Vecchio, Giacco, Mule & de Rosa, 2012).

Parenting is one of many aspects that play a role in the development of both adaptive and maladaptive behaviour in children and adolescents (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 2006; Lerner, Rothbaum, Boulos & Castellino, 2002). Parenting styles, in particular, have been observed to play an important role in shaping child behavioural and psychological outcomes (Givertz &

Segrin, 2014). It has been suggested that the parenting styles, adopted by parents, guide their parenting behavior towards their children, that is, parenting style is a contextual model that parents choose for their parenting behaviours (Darling & Steinberg, 1993).

Parenting styles are also important as they are the primary avenues through which the child becomes acclimated to social life and interaction (Vandeleur, Perrez & Schoebi, 2007). Prior research has established that authoritative parenting is most strongly associated with positive developmental outcomes for youth (Nijhof & Engels, 2007; Steinberg, 2001), with the other parenting styles lacking in warmth and/or control that contributes to a variety of negative outcomes (Nijhof & Engels, 2007; Schaffer, 2000). Authoritative parenting may be especially important during adolescence, when teenagers may test limits, while simultaneously being in need of support, acceptance and supervision (Baumrind, 1991). Positive discipline encourages autonomy in children and elevates their competence and assurance, when faced with challenging situations in the external environment (Durrant, 2007). Parents, who are inconsistent in their parenting style, are often punitive and practice physical punishment on their children as a way of correcting behaviour. Children of parents who engage in corporal punishment develop an inability to control negative feelings and aggressive impulses, and demonstrate higher levels of externalising aggression (Kawabata, Alink, Tseng, van Ijzendoorn & Crick, 2011). The study on positive discipline and skilful parenting, conducted in Kenya, Uganda, Ethiopia and Rwanda, revealed that the general reasons caregivers maintained for practicing physical punishment included, imitating the manner in which s/he was reared, and opinions derived from religious teachings, with some caregivers having no reason at all for physical punishment (Parenting Research Report for Africa, 2015).

The other ineffective parenting style occurs when parents are permissive and disengaged in their parenting. Parents, who are physically present, but largely uninvolved in their children's lives, construct a gap in the parent-child relationship, characterized by emotional isolation and, as a result, children are placed at risk for internalizing feelings of rejection (Crosswhite & Kerpelman, 2009). Such parents, who do not state their expectations for adolescent conduct and responsibility explicitly, deprive adolescents of knowledge of their parents' expectations and of the opportunity to arrive at a mutual understanding that takes into account parental expectations and adolescent needs (Sorkhabi, 2010).

Parenting styles are essential in adolescent identity formation. Identity is an important psychosocial task during the adolescence stage. According to Duriez, Luyckx, Soenens and Berzonsky (2012), adolescents face the need to develop a stable and meaningful identity structure that enables them to maintain a sense of self-continuity across time and situations. This also provides them with a personal frame of reference for decision making, problem solving and interpreting experience and self-relevant information (Duriez et al., 2012). Identity styles refer to an individual's orientation to self and others, as s/he makes identity-relevant decisions. These decisions are specific to how the individual negotiates and orients him/herself to decisions about relationships, worldviews, occupations and education (Courey & Pare, 2013). The three social cognitive strategies that individuals use to form an identity are informational, normative and diffuse avoidant oriented styles (Berzonsky, 1990).

1.2. Theoretical Framework

Erikson's theory of psychosocial development was applied as the theoretical framework for this study. According to Erikson (1968), the critical time to form a sense of identity during human development is adolescence. Erikson further states that identity formation during

adolescence occurs as a result of identifications made during childhood, which identifications are influenced by the environment and significant others, particularly the parents (Erikson, 1968). According to Erikson (1950; 1968), human development follows when an individual has to manage conflict resolution during the eight stages of the life cycle.

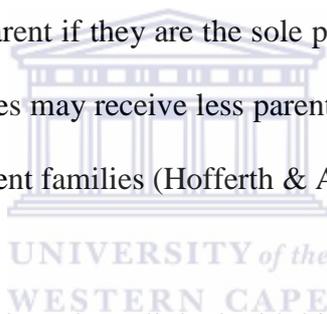
The focus of this study was on the fifth stage, which is identity versus role diffusion (fidelity) and typically entails identity formation during adolescence and young adulthood (Cote, 2009; Erikson, 1950& 1968). Erikson states that the social context influences adolescent identity development, which linked well with this current study, as it investigated parenting styles within the family environment. The theoretical framework of this study also delineates how Erikson's theory of identity was elaborated for empirical research over time.

Marcia (1966) introduced the identity status paradigm, which delineates two fundamental dimensions of identity development, namely, exploration and commitment. From these dimensions, Marcia (1966) identified four statuses, which are achieved, moratorium, foreclosed and diffuse. Berzonsky (1989), suggests that the statuses by Marcia may utilize three different social-cognitive approaches to personal decision making and problem solving. These orientations comprise the mechanisms by which self-relevant information and experiences are coded, processed, organized and revised (Berzonsky, 1989). The three identity styles, which are the focus of this study, are informational, normative and diffuse-avoidant oriented styles.

1.3. Problem Statement

The stage of adolescence can be overwhelming to many adolescents as they engage in identity formation. According to Bee and Boyd (2007), adolescents in this human

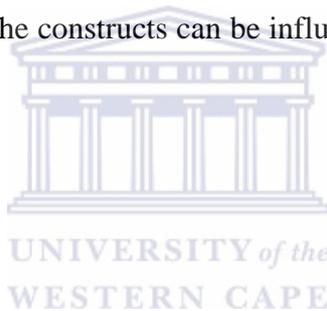
development stage could run the risk of confusion, arising from the profusion of roles opening up for them. Sandhu and Tung (2004) note that adolescence is the most vulnerable and sensitive period for an individual to adopt a negative identity and dysfunction. As such, among the tasks that adolescents engage in is identity formation through utilizing different identity styles. At times, the environment is not conducive to fostering adolescents' identity styles, due to ineffective parenting styles and the family structure. Single parents often face the dual demands of fulfilling both caregiving and breadwinning roles, which may limit the amount, and quality, of time they spend with their children (Magnuson & Berger, 2009). Single mothers, in particular, who constitute the majority of one-parent households, can be more vulnerable. According to Kendig and Bianchi (2008), single mothers may not have the choice of being a stay-at-home parent if they are the sole providers in the family. As a result, children in single-parented families may receive less parental time, attention, supervision and monitoring than those in dual-parent families (Hofferth & Anderson, 2003).



Such inconsistencies in parenting have been linked with higher levels of antisocial behaviour among children (Dishion & Kavanagh, 2003). Smits, Soenens, Luyckx, Duriez, Berzonsky & Goossens (2008) linked reduced parental time and warmth to permissive parenting styles. Permissive rearing practices are associated with under-control, irresponsibility, low ego strength, and self-centered motivation (Baumrind, 1971; 1991). Some literature found a link between the permissive parenting style and the diffuse avoidant identity style (Berzonsky, Branje & Meeus, 2007). Berzonsky (2004) also revealed an association between the authoritarian parenting style and the diffuse-avoidance identity style. His argument was that some adolescents, who had been reared in a strict authoritarian home, resort to a diffuse-avoidant approach, when they find themselves in a relatively unstructured and unsupervised context (Berzonsky, 2004).

Literature has a sound explanation of identity styles and their association with different variables of psychological well-being (Phillips & Pittman, 2007; Duriez & Soenens, 2006; Soenens, Duriez, & Goossens, 2005). Identity styles have also been associated with parenting styles in various studies (Berzonsky, 2004; Berzonsky, Branje & Meeus, 2007; Smits et al., 2008). Nonetheless, identity styles, as an emerging component in identity formation, has not yet been widely studied in the African context, especially regarding the contextual factors leading to the adolescents' way of processing identity relevant issues.

There is also a gap as to how parents employ parenting styles across different family structures. This study will, therefore, make an association of parenting styles and identity styles in order to determine how the constructs can be influenced by the family structure (one and two-parent families).



1.4. Research Questions

This study intends to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there a significant difference in the relationship between parenting styles and identity styles in one and two-parent families in Botswana?
2. Do parenting styles in one and two-parent families affect adolescents' identity styles?

1.5. Aim, Objectives and Hypotheses

1.5.1. Aim

The study aimed to compare the relationship between parenting styles, and the identity styles of adolescents living in one and two-parent families in Botswana.

1.5.2. Objectives

The objectives of the study were to:

1. Establish the identity styles of adolescents living in one and two-parent families in Botswana.
2. Examine and compare the relationship between perceived parenting styles and adolescent identity styles in one and two-parent families in Botswana.
3. Determine adolescents' perceptions of their parents' parenting styles in one and two-parent families in Botswana.

1.5.3. Hypotheses

The hypotheses to this proposed study were guided by the objectives and were hypothesized as follows:

1. There will be a significant relationship between parenting styles and identity styles.
2. There will be a significant difference in the relationship between parenting styles and identity styles in one and two-parent families.

1.6. Research Methodology

The study was conducted by means of a quantitative methodology. Quantitative research is a way of testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. These variables, in turn, can be measured, typically on instruments, so that numbered data can be analyzed, using statistical procedures (Creswell, 2009). The main aims of the quantitative approach are to objectively measure the social world, to test hypothesis and to predict, and control, human behaviour (De Vos, 2005).

The research design for this study was the cross-sectional correlational-comparative design. According to De Vaus (2001), in a cross-sectional research design, data is collected at one

point in time. The correlation design examines the strength of the relationship between variables (Asadoorian & Kantarelis, 2005). The variables under investigation for correlation are parenting styles and adolescents' identity styles. The correlational design determines the relationship between parenting styles and identity styles, as well as, the strength of that relationship. Comparative studies investigate the relationship of one variable to another by examining the differences on the dependent variable between two groups of subjects (Field, 2009). The comparative research made 2 investigations; comparisons of parenting styles between one and two parent families, and comparisons of identity styles between one and two parent families. It also established the significant difference of variables between one and two-parent family.

1.7. Significance of the study

This current study is intended to be of benefit to adolescents, parents or caregivers, service providers and policy makers. It will provide sensitization about the concept of identity, and more specifically, the identity styles, as well as, parenting styles and family structure. This study will enlighten adolescents about their own cognitive strategies that they utilize to form a sense of identity. As such, the study will act as a springboard for adolescents to introspect and evaluate whether their own identity styles enable them to make meaningful life choices or are detrimental to such. The study will, therefore, allow for a paradigm shift, so that effective styles could be employed when forming an identity. The study will also be significant to service providers, who provide intervention with adolescents, namely, teachers, social workers and psychologists. They will be informed about adolescent identity styles, which will assist them in assessing and developing relevant intervention strategies.

This study will also be of benefit to parents, who are faced with the task of nurturing and socializing adolescents in forming their own identities. Parents are significant figures in adolescent development and inconsistent parenting can yield some undesirable outcomes. According to Malete (2007), there is a prevalence of aggressive and antisocial behaviour among secondary school students in Botswana. Family factors, such as family structure, parental monitoring and parental relations are some widely investigated correlates of adolescents' aggression and antisocial behaviour (Malete, 2007). This study will, therefore, also inform parents about parenting styles, the characteristics of each style and which style fosters adolescent identity development. The study will, finally, inform policy and programme formulation regarding effective parenting styles and adolescent identity styles, in both one and two-parent family structures.



1.8. Definitions of Key Terms

Identity formation – is defined by Erikson (1968) as a developmental process where children initially identify with important socialization figures (typically parents) and during adolescence, gradually start to explore their identity in a more thorough and personal fashion.

Identity styles – refer to the social cognitive strategies that people routinely employ when engaging in, or avoiding, tasks associated with constructing and maintaining a sense of identity (Berzonsky, 1989).

Informational identity style – is associated with a stronger orientation to explore, and involves actively seeking out, processing and evaluating self-relevant information (Berzonsky 1989; 1990).

Commitment – is defined by Marcia (1966) as the extent to which individuals adhere to and invest in identity-relevant issues.

Normative identity style – is associated with a less powerful orientation to explore and is characterized by a conforming to the standards and expectations of significant others, such as parents (Berzonsky, 1989, 1990).

Diffuse-avoidant identity style – is associated with individuals who typically pay little attention to their futures or the long-term consequences of their actions, make emotion-based decisions, and tend to procrastinate until consequences determine a course of action. (Berzonsky, 1990).

Parenting styles – consist of attitudes about children that parents communicate to their children, and the emotional climate in which they are expressed (Hoff, Laursen & Tardiff, 2002).

Adolescence – refers to a development phase in the human life cycle that intervenes between childhood and adulthood (Gouws & Kruger, 1996).

Family structure – refers to the organization of relationships and patterns of interaction that occur within the family, which may or may not involve blood relationships (Kisrt-Ashman, Grafton & Hull, 2009).

1.9. Structure of Thesis

Chapter One is an introduction to the study and gives an overview of the background and rationale for the study. The chapter also gives brief discussions of the theoretical framework and methodology. It outlines the problem statement and the significance of the study. It also stipulates the research questions, aims, objectives, hypotheses and, lastly, the definitions of terms.

Chapter Two discusses the detailed theoretical framework for the study. It links the study to the conceptual framework of identity, as introduced by Erikson. The chapter also gives an

overview of developmental stages that form a life cycle for identity resolution. It outlines how the concept of identity has been conceptualized over time, and introduces the different theorists, who also focused on the concept of identity.

Chapter Three discusses the literature review of the study. The variables of the study, namely; adolescents, identity styles, parenting styles, family structure (in one and two-parent families) are discussed in more detail. These variables are linked to previous studies that have been conducted in relation to this study.

Chapter Four discusses, in more detail, the quantitative methodology that was used to conduct this study. The research design, used to answer the research questions, and achieve the aim and objectives, is outlined. This chapter also explains and discusses the population of study, sampling, the procedures followed, and instruments used, for data collection. Lastly, it outlines the data-analysis, issues of reliability and validity, and the ethics taken into consideration, when carrying out the study.

Chapter Five provides an analysis of the results of this study. The results are analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The statistical presentation stipulates the descriptive and the inferential statistics.

Chapter Six presents a discussion on the relationship between adolescents' identity styles and parenting styles in one and two-parent families. This chapter finally provides the interpretation of the results of this study, outlines the limitations, introduces the recommendations made and presents the conclusion.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Introduction

This chapter outlines the theoretical framework section and how it is applied to the study. It discusses the pioneering work of Erikson on the concept of identity and how the theory links with the study. The chapter outlines identity formation in adolescence and the eight stages of psychosocial development, through which an individual must pass to form a sense of identity. The fifth stage of identity versus role confusion, from which the virtue of fidelity emerges, is applicable to the study and will be discussed in more detail. It also discusses Marcia's identity status paradigm which extended Erikson's concept of identity and formed the basis for empirical research on identity. The chapter also gives an account of Berzonsky's identity styles, which is the main focus of this study. Lastly it discusses the dimension of commitment, which is critical in identity formation.

2.2. Adolescence and Identity Formation

Erikson's (1950) theory of psychosocial development is applied as the theoretical framework to the study in order to understand the concept of identity formation during adolescence. Adolescence is a period of human development associated with notable changes in behavioural, cognitive, emotional and ideological realms (Erikson, 1950, 1968). As a period of formative social and cognitive development, the ideas and concepts developed during this period greatly influence the individual's future life, playing an important role in the further formation of character and personality (Lubenko & Sebre, 2007). Erikson (1968) describes the identity formation process of adolescence as a slow process of ego growth, when

identifications of childhood are gradually replaced by a new configuration that is greater than the sum of its parts. Identity formation happens as a result of interlinks of the human cycle processes (Erikson, 1968). According to Stevens (1983), the word cycle indicates that each individual life has its own overall pattern that simultaneously forms a link in the continuous sequence of generations. Erikson (1950) conceptualizes the life cycle as a series of stages – critical periods of development – which involve bipolar conflict that must be addressed and resolved before proceeding unhindered. According to Erikson (1968), identity formation generally occurs in adolescence, emerging from the childhood processes of introjection and identification. That first sense of ‘I’, he suggests, emerges only through the trustful interplay with a parental figure during infancy (Erikson, 1968). During childhood, ‘being like’ admired others, and assuming their roles and values, reflects the mechanism of identification as the primary means by which the self is structured. It is only when the adolescent is able to select some, and discard others, of these childhood identifications, in accordance with his/her interests, talents and values that identity formation occurs (Kroger, 1989). Identity formation, therefore, involves a synthesis of these earlier identifications into a new configuration, which is based on, but different from, the sum of its individual parts (Erikson, 1950).

Identity formation is also dependent on social response. It relies on the way society ‘identifies the young individual, recognizing him/her as somebody who had to become the way s/he is, and who, being the way s/he is, is taken for granted’ (Erikson 1968). Therefore, identity does not first emerge during adolescence, but rather evolves through earlier stages of development and continues to be reshaped throughout the life cycle (Kroger, 1989). From an Eriksonian perspective (Erikson, 1950; 1968), processes of identity formation proceed from adolescence throughout life and yield a sense of continuity, or self-sameness, both for oneself or others, across varying contexts. These processes are undertaken not just in a larger cultural context, but also in the context of significant relationships that may include family, extended kin,

peers and others. Erikson refers to identity development as a psychosocial process because individuals conduct the work of identity within a rich social context. He further states the following about the processes leading to identity formation:

“The end of childhood involves a crisis of wholeness. Young people must become whole people in their own right, and this during a developmental stage characterized by a diversity of challenges in physical growth, general maturation, and social awareness. The wholeness to be achieved at this stage, I have called a sense of inner identity” (Erikson, 1968:87)

Erikson (1968) believes that children and adolescents have to identify themselves in society and engage in self-exploration and discovery. As adolescents have to find themselves, and their possible niche in society, before assuming adult roles, Erikson (1968) states that they need a moratorium for self-exploration and discovery. According to Erikson (1968), adolescents are trying to figure out how they relate to the world. Their specific developmental task involves identifying, evaluating, as well as selecting values and roles for their adult life (Erikson, 1968). The psychosocial development theory of Erikson is applicable to this study, because Erikson (1968) delineates the important role of people surrounding adolescents in recognizing, supporting and, thus, helping to shape adolescents' identity. Erikson (1968) states that adolescents initially identify with important socialization figures (typically parents), indicating that the role of parenting is essential to adolescents' identity development. Parenting is employed within the family unit, therefore, this study intends to determine parenting styles in one and two-parent family structures. As adolescents identify with parents, a process of internalization must occur, where identifications are assimilated and integrated into a set of coherent, unique choices and commitments that adequately reflect 'who one is' (Erikson, 1968). This study relates well to Erikson (1977), as he articulates that 'the process of identity formation depends on the interplay of what young persons, at the end

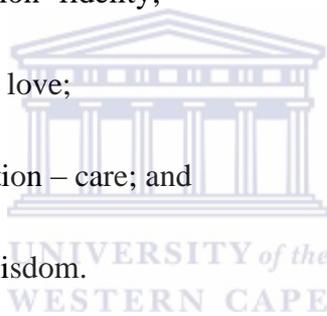
of childhood, have come to mean to themselves and what they now appear to mean to those who have become significant to them'. Such a crystallized set of commitments would give direction to life and allow individuals to organize their behaviours and aspirations in a purposeful manner (Erikson, 1968).

Identity formation is the successful resolution of the so-called identity crisis, presented in the psychosocial theory of Erikson (Erikson, 1982, cited in Vleioras & Bosma, 2005). Erikson describes development as a series of conflicts faced at different ages, which results from the interplay between the social environment and individual growth (Erikson, 1963). Erikson (1963) proposes that, at various points throughout life, individuals encounter a crisis relative to the social demands of their respective age group. Each stage has two outcomes that fall on either end of a spectrum. On one end of the continuum, there is an adaptive result, in which case, a virtue is learned. On the other end, the virtue is not learned and the result is a maladaptive outlook on the world, in terms of the virtue, known as core pathology (Ratner, 2014). The word 'virtue' is used by Erikson (1980) to denote a strength or quality of ego functioning. For example, the first phase of life is characterized by the polarity of basic trust versus mistrust, from the resolution of which emerges the ego strength of 'hope' (Stevens, 1983). According to Erikson (1968), a sense of identity emerges as the adolescent copes with social demands and developmental challenges, and attempts to give meaning to his choices and commitments of his life. The success or failure of resolving each conflict affects the success of resolving future conflicts (this principle is known as the epigenetic principle). Successful resolution of these conflicts is related to the emergence and re-emergence of an increased sense of inner unity, an increase of good judgment and of the capacity of doing well (Erikson, 1980).

2.3. Eight Stages of Psychosocial Development

Within the theory of psychosocial development, Erikson (1950, 1968) identified eight (8) stages of development across the lifespan, each consisting of central challenges and goals for resolution. These stages include:

- trust versus mistrust- hope;
- autonomy versus shame- will;
- initiative versus guilt- purpose;
- industry versus inferiority- competence;
- identity versus role confusion- fidelity;
- intimacy versus isolation - love;
- generativity versus stagnation – care; and
- integrity versus despair- wisdom.



The sequence of Erikson's stages of development is referred to as the epigenetic principle – the growth of the ego involves a progressive differentiation of interrelated characteristics, where each, although existing in some form throughout, has a time of special ascendancy, which is critical for its development (Erikson, 1968). According to this principle, each stage has 'its time of special ascendancy, until all parts have risen to form a functional whole' (Erikson 1968). Erikson's epigenetic framework suggests that with each of the first five developmental stages of psychosocial development, the social sphere of the developing child is growing in size and complexity, adding neighbours, peers, teachers and others (Erikson 1968).

Erickson's theory, however, emphasizes that all the stages, including the consolidation of an individual's young adult identity, involve the family. As each positive resolution in an earlier stage increases the likelihood of a positive resolution to the identity task in adolescence and early or emerging adulthood, family provides a critical developmental context for understanding identity (Bartoszuk & Pittman, 2010). Erikson suggests an inner process of maturation for each person, which creates a succession of potentialities for significant interaction with those persons, who tend and respond to him/her, and those institutions that are ready for him/her (Erikson, 1968). Different qualities of ego strength arise at different stages of a person's life. Erikson applies the term 'crisis' to these stages to indicate that each involves a fundamental shift in perspective, which, although essential for growth, leaves the person vulnerable to impairment of the quality concerned. Each represents a turning point, a crucial period of increased vulnerability and heightened potential, and therefore the ontogenetic source of generational strength and maladjustment (Erikson, 1950). Erikson portrays identity as the fifth stage in an eight-act sequence of life conflicts that an individual encounters in life, from birth to death in old age (Kroger, 1989). Although this stage is applicable to this study, it is important to appreciate the inter-link and contribution that both earlier and later stages make to complete the life cycle, hence all the stages will be discussed.

2.3.1. Trust versus mistrust- hope

This is the opening scene of the life-cycle production. It is during infancy that the developmental crisis of trust is met, based, in part, on Freud's biological concern with early oral experience (Kroger, 1989). The critical feature of this stage is the total dependence of the child on whoever cares for him/her, and the quality of this care sets up an expectation, a sense of basic trust or mistrust (Stevens, 1983). The foundations are laid, either for an optimistic orientation to a world in which needs are satisfied, or a pessimism, that expects the worst (Stevens, 1983). Through the mutual regulation and

interaction between caretaker and infant, a rudimentary sense of ego identity is born. The child comes to know itself in relation to another and gains a sense of inner continuity, sameness, and trust in itself and its developmental partner (Kroger, 1989). The essential virtue or ego quality that emerges from this phase is hope. Erikson defines this as the enduring belief in the attainability of primal wishes, in spite of the dark urges and rages, which mark the beginning of existence (Erikson, 1964).

2.3.2. Autonomy versus shame and doubt- will

Following the sense of basic trust, life's next developmental stage, during the second and third years, is that of developing autonomy. Erikson's sense of autonomy is characterized by a capacity for independent action, the child's increasing awareness of self through control of bodily functions and expression of other motor and linguistic skills (Erikson, 1968, cited in Kroger, 1989). During this stage, the child begins to gain control over elimination functions and motor abilities, and begins to explore his/her environment (Cummins & McMaster, 2006). The reactions of parents to the child's first attempts at self-assertion sow the seeds for a later sense of autonomy, as opposed to feelings of shame and doubt (Kroger, 1989). Restrictive parents may be reluctant to allow their children to explore, resulting in the child developing a sense of doubt or shame. If the parents reward the child's successful actions and do not shame him/her, the child's sense of autonomy will outweigh the sense of shame and doubt. The young child can build up his/her confidence by being allowed to experiment with autonomy or independence (Cummins & McMaster, 2006).

Balance is crucial and the ability to ensure cooperation without dominating the child's desire for freely chosen action (Stevens, 1983). As Erikson states, a sense of self-control, without loss of self-esteem, is the ontogenetic source of a sense of free will.

From an avoidable sense of loss of self-control, and of parental over-control, comes a lasting propensity for doubt and shame (Erikson, 1968).

2.3.3. Initiative versus guilt- purpose

If the first stage lays down a basic ability to trust in the world and others, and the second, the capacity of children to have confidence in themselves as they are, then the third stage is concerned with how far children can learn to have faith in their actions and in what they can become (Stephens, 1983). Erikson (1959) believes that pre-school children develop a sense of autonomy, as well as initiative and, therefore, need the encouragement and support from their primary caregivers. Understanding the important role adults play in healthy emotional development, and understanding that healthy emotional development relies on independence, is crucial (Hansen & Zambo, 2007).

According to Stevens (1983), at this stage the children's abilities are developing – they are becoming adept in the use of language to obtain what they desire, and are capable of thought and planning, as well as fantasy. However, this is also the time of the heightening of superego development and control – the child's growing sense of his/her own ability is likely to be counter-balanced by fear of potential harm, symbolized by castration anxiety. Therefore, the capacity for initiative may be undermined by the fear of consequences or guilt, engendered by the moralistic controls exerted by the superego (Stephens, 1983).

2.3.4. Industry versus inferiority- competence

Erikson labels this stage a very decisive one. In this stage, life must first be school life for a child, whether in the form of school field or classroom. The child develops a sense of industry, and to bring a productive situation to completion is an aim, which gradually

supersedes the wishes of play (Jenks, 2005). Furthermore, the child's ego boundaries include his/her tools and skills, and the work principle teaches him/her the pleasure of work completion by steady attention and persevering diligence (Jenks, 2005). Recognition now begins to depend on the exercise of skills, and children may become aware of being judged on their performance, in comparison with their peers. When children feel inadequate of their task, a sense of inferiority may be the result and they may be deterred from testing what they can do. But, if a child is encouraged and given confidence, the ego quality that can emerge is a sense of lasting competence (Erikson, 1939).

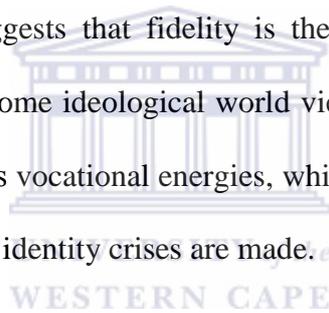
2.3.5. Identity versus role confusion- fidelity

For the purpose of this study, the focus is on the fifth developmental stage (identity versus role confusion- fidelity), which typically occurs in adolescence and young adulthood (Cote, 2009; Erikson, 1950; 1968). This is the period of physical and social changes, where developing a sense of identity becomes the focal issue (Stevens, 1983). In this stage, adolescents approach the task of identity formation. Adolescence is a time of identity crisis, exploration and commitment (Erikson, 1950; Marcia, 1967).

Erikson's (1968) psychosocial stages of development suggest that the primary goal for adolescence is to develop a coherent and stable identity, in which identity confusion versus identity synthesis is the psychosocial task. He emphasizes the importance of identity development in facilitating a healthy sense of self and well-being, suggesting that the better a person's identity structure is developed, the more aware the individual will be of his/her strengths and limitations in becoming a successful person. However, individuals, who struggle to discover who they are, and subsequently, have a less developed identity, are more confused and distressed. Additionally, these individuals

may be struggling to deal with earlier crises, discussed in Erikson's psychosocial stages of development including trust, autonomy, initiative and industry (Stevens, 1983).

The problem of adolescence is one of role diffusion – a reluctance to commit. Erikson (1968) states that adolescents are in a psychosocial moratorium, where they can freely experiment and explore, and what may emerge is a firm sense of identity, an emotional and deep awareness of who s/he is. Erikson (1968) refers to a psychosocial moratorium as the extended period of exploration. Dependent on this stage is the ego quality of fidelity. Fidelity is described by Erikson as the ability to sustain loyalties freely pledged, in spite of inevitable contradictions and confusions of value systems (Erikson, 1976). Erikson further suggests that fidelity is the essence of identity. To become faithful and committed to some ideological world view is the task of this stage, and to find a cause worthy of one's vocational energies, which also reflects one's basic values, is the means through which identity crises are made.



Resolution of the identity versus identity diffusion developmental challenge requires adolescents and young adults to formulate a stable sense of self-groundedness in a set of personal goals, values and beliefs (Erikson, 1968). As linked to this study, a clear set of identity-related goals, values and beliefs are advantageous because they serve as guidelines that facilitate decision-making, and therefore identity styles. In contrast, identity diffusion, being the absence of identity-related goals, values and beliefs, may interfere with the decision-making process, leaving one apathetic, confused and/or ambivalent, when faced with important life choices (Erikson, 1950, 1968). Furthermore, failure to resolve the fifth developmental challenge is expected to negatively impact the resolution of subsequent stages, including the developmental

challenges associated with intimacy versus isolation, during young adulthood, generativity versus stagnation, during middle adulthood, and integrity versus despair, during older adulthood (Erikson, 1950, 1968). The most critical stage in identity formation is adolescence, and identity formation during this stage is considered a cornerstone of personality development (Erikson, 1968), which relates well to this current study, since the target population group was adolescents and the main subject was identity formation.

2.3.6. Intimacy versus isolation- love

Erikson segments adult life into three broad phases. First, following close on the heels of identity concerns, comes, usually around the early twenties, the need to develop the capacity for intimacy (Stevens, 1983). The essence is the capacity to commit oneself 'to concrete affiliations and partnerships, and to develop the ethical strength to abide by such commitments, even though they may call for significant sacrifices and compromises' (Erikson, 1950: 237). As Erikson (1950) points out, intimacy tests the firmness of the identity established, as deep involvement with another, demands the strength to put one's own individual identity at risk. While intimacy may take many forms, for Erikson (1950), sexual relations provide the supreme example. He argues that it is only at this stage that, what he calls, 'true genetality' can develop. Up to this point, sexual relations are more likely to have been in the service of the search for individual identity, or a kind of proving ground for sexual prowess, than true intimacy (Stevens, 1983).

2.3.7. Generativity versus stagnation- care

The essence of generativity is the concern for establishing and guiding the next generation (Erikson, 1950). In this stage, the second broad phase of adult life, Erikson

(1950) asserts that parents are more concerned about transmitting their skills and knowledge to others. An adult, who does not develop generativity, retreats instead to a stagnating and, eventually, boring preoccupation with self, in which he becomes his own infant (Erikson, 1961). Generativity implies a capacity to give without expectation of return (Stevens, 1983). Erikson labels the ego quality that emerges from this stage as care – ‘the widening concern of what has been generated by love, necessity, or accident; it overcomes the ambivalence adhering to irrelevant obligation’ (Erikson, 1964: 131).

2.3.8. Ego integrity versus despair- wisdom

Erikson indicates that this final stage, the third broad phase of adult life, embraces attributes, such as the quiet certainty of the ego’s strength – accepting the nature and inevitability of the pattern of one’s life and not seeking desperately for last-minute restorations (Stevens, 1983). Lack of ego integrity is marked by despair, an agonized despair in the shadow of impending death, over unrealized goals and unfulfilled potentials, sometimes expressed in disgust with life, and other people, as Erikson states;

“Integrity can balance the despair of the knowledge that a limited life is coming to a conscious conclusion, only such wholeness can transcend the petty disgust of feeling finished and passed by, and the despair of facing the period of relative helplessness, which marks the end as it marked the beginning’ (Erikson, 1964: 134).

Table: 2.1. shows the approximate period in life and the corresponding psychosocial stage, as well as ego strength (adapted from Dunkel, Kim & Papini, 2012)

Table: 2.1. Psychosocial Stages of Human Development

Period in life	Crisis	Strength
Infancy	Trust versus mistrust	Hope
Toddlerhood	Autonomy versus shame	Will
Pre-school	Initiative versus guilt	Purpose
Childhood	Industry versus inferiority	Competence
Adolescence	Identity versus role confusion	Fidelity
Young adulthood	Intimacy versus isolation	Love
Middle adulthood	Generativity versus stagnation	Care
Late adulthood	Integrity versus despair	Wisdom

2.4. Identity Status Paradigm

Erikson's (1968) concept on identity formation is further elaborated by Marcia (1966; 1980) with the introduction of the identity status paradigm. Marcia highlights two dimensions from Erikson's theory on identity formation – commitment and exploration (Marcia, 1966, cited in Soenens, Berzonsky, Dunkel, Papini & Vansteenkiste, 2011). Commitment is defined by Marcia (1966) as the extent to which individuals adhere to and invest in identity-relevant choices. Exploration refers to individuals' deliberate consideration of different options and possibilities before making choices or commitments (Soenens et al., 2011). Marcia (1966) believes that the primary role of exploration is to weigh the various options and alternatives before making a choice, and to facilitate the formation of commitments. According to Louw, (2008), adolescents, who have achieved an identity, or are still actively investigating possibilities, tend to have healthy self-concepts, are less emotional and self-conscious. Those who are stuck in identity foreclosure tend to have adjustment problems, characterized by

inflexible and intolerant identities (Louw, 2008). Marcia (1966) further describes four clearly differentiated identity statuses, based on the degree of identity exploration and commitment. These are illustrated in Table 2.2.

Table: 2.2. Dimensions of Exploration and Commitment's Identity Statuses

Identity Statuses	Degree of identity exploration	Degree of commitment
Moratorium	High	Low
Achievement	High	High
Foreclosure	Low	High
Diffusion	Low	Low

Theoretically, identity statuses follow a developmental trajectory, in which all individuals start in the diffused status, and then, typically, proceed through the moratorium status to achievement (Wiley & Berman, 2012). However, Van Hoof (1999) contradicts this statement, as he states that, although achievement is generally considered to be the developmentally most mature status, and diffusion the least mature status, many scholars agree that there is no normative developmental pathway indicating how an individual progresses, or regresses, through the statuses. Marcia's work has inspired decades of empirical work (Kroger & Marcia, 2011) and various process-oriented models have been proposed during the last decade, substantially extending and refining Marcia's work. Some scholars have attempted to extend the identity status paradigm by introducing more dynamic views on identity formation (Bosma & Kunnen, 2001; Meeus, 1996), making it more suitable for process-oriented developmental work (Luyckx, Schwartz, Berzonsky, Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Smits & Goossens, 2008). One such process-oriented model has been introduced by Luyckx, Goossens & Soenens, (2006) and Luyckx, Soenens, Goossens, Beckx, and Wouters (2008), who unpacked exploration and commitment into five interrelated

processes. Exploration was originally defined as the degree to which adolescents search for alternatives, before making commitments. This type of exploration was referred to as 'exploration in breadth'. More recent theories (Meeus, Iedema, & Maassen, 2002) have stressed that exploration also entails an in-depth evaluation of an individual's existing commitments, to assess how well his/her commitments fit with his/her inner standards, referred to as 'exploration in depth'.

Luyckx et al. (2006) integrates these two processes of exploration (exploration in breadth and exploration in depth) and commitment (commitment making and identification with commitment) into one model. This model carries the assumption that exploration is productive and helpful to the individual. However, ongoing exploration is linked to anxiety, depression and distress (Kidwell, Dunham, Bacho, Pastorino, & Portes, 1995; Schwartz, Zamboanga, Weisskirch, & Rodriguez, 2009). Luyckx, Schwartz et al. (2008), therefore, extended this four-dimensional model with a fifth identity dimension, ruminative exploration (Trapnell & Campbell, 1999), to capture exploration characterized by hesitation and indecisiveness. Some individuals become 'stuck' in the exploration process and experience considerable difficulty arriving at firm choices.

While the identity status paradigm has formed the basis for a great deal of identity research since first formulated (Berzonsky, 1997), it is criticized for its focus on identity as an outcome, while giving relatively little attention to the processes underlying identity development (Berzonsky, 1989). Berzonsky, therefore, introduces a model of social cognitive processes that individuals utilize to form a sense of identity (identity styles) (Berzonsky, 1989; 1990).

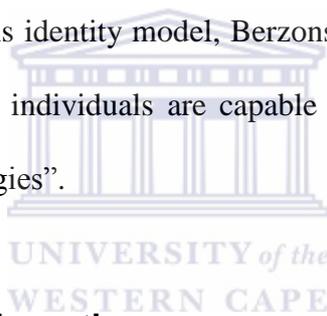
2. 5. Identity Styles

For Berzonsky (1990), self-identity is essentially a self-theory. A self-theory, in Berzonsky's (1990) view, is an integrated, conceptual structure, comprised of assumptions, constructs and postulates relevant to the self. A self-theory, as elaborated by Epstein (1980), refers to a conceptual structure, made up of assumptions, postulates and constructs relevant to the self, as the adolescent interacts with the physical and social world. It contains procedural knowledge/representative schemas/personal constructs for the understanding of events and personal experiences (Berzonsky, 1988; 1993). According to Berzonsky (1993), self-theories serve as a frame of reference for processing and interpreting self-relevant information, encountered in the course of everyday life. Individuals theorize about their self in different ways, and how they meet the situations in which they should make decisions, deal with personal problems and process information varies (Berzonsky, 1990). These individual differences are observed in the process through which identity standards are internalized and utilized, as well as the way through which behaviour is regulated (Berzonsky, 2004b).

Berzonsky (1990) further extends Marcia's (1966) identity style paradigm and introduces social-cognitive strategies of using identity relevant information, which is the focus of this current study. Berzonsky's (1990) social-cognitive model addresses stylistic differences in how individuals process identity relevant information, and how they approach the task of forming a sense of self-identity. The three different social-cognitive identity processing styles, postulated within this model, are informational, normative and diffuse-avoidant.

Adolescents, with an informational identity processing style, deliberately seek out and process self-relevant information before negotiating identity conflicts and forming

commitments. Adolescents, with a normative style, deal with identity conflicts, and form commitments, by internalizing and adopting prescriptions and expectations of significant others in a relatively automatic fashion. Adolescents, with a diffuse-avoidant identity style, procrastinate and delay dealing with identity conflicts and personal problems for as long as possible. When they do act, their behaviour is influenced mainly by external demands and consequences. Although they readily act to situational influences, such accommodations tend to be relatively ephemeral acts of behavioural, or verbal, compliance, rather than long-term, stable revisions in their self-structure or sense of identity (Berzonsky, 1990; 1994). Identity development is dependent on how an individual makes sense of his/her environment, and social-cognitive processing is an important aspect in negotiating identity style (Berzonsky, 1988; 1990). With reference to his identity model, Berzonsky (1990) highlights that “by late adolescence, virtually all normal individuals are capable of employing all three (3) of the social-cognitive processing strategies”.



2.6. Commitment in identity formation

Commitment refers to differences in the strength or clarity of the self-relevant standards, goals, convictions and beliefs that an individual holds (Berzonsky, 2003). Stable personal commitments, or self-certainty, may play an important role in promoting personal functioning and well-being (Brickman, 1987; Campbell, 1990). According to Brickman (1987), commitment ‘stabilizes individual behaviour under circumstances where the individual would otherwise be tempted to change’. According to Erikson (1968), an individual must undergo the process of internalization for identity formation to be successful. This internalization entails adherence to a unique and integrated set of commitments and choices, reflecting who the individual is (Erikson, 1968). Erikson (1968) views the psychosocial crisis as a time of growing occupational and ideological commitments. Facing such imminent tasks, the

individual is expected to form commitment by synthesizing childhood identifications in such a way that s/he can both establish a reciprocal relationship with his/her society, and maintain a feeling of continuity within him/herself (Marcia, 1966).

Commitments provide people with a sense of purpose and direction, and can serve as the frame of reference within which behaviour and feedback is monitored, evaluated and regulated (Brickman, 1987; Nurmi, 1991). The commitments made by an individual give direction to life and contribute to a sense of adjustment (Imtiaz & Naqvi, 2012). In terms of well-being, it is preferable to have identity commitments (Vleioras & Bosma, 2005). For example, individuals who have made commitments, report higher levels of psychological well-being, adjustment, emotional stability (Crocetti, Rubini, & Meeus, 2008; Kroger, 2007; Luyckx, Goossens, Soenens, Beyers, & Vansteenkiste, 2005; Meeus, 1996; Meeus, Iedema, Helsen, & Vollebergh, 1999; O'Connor, 1995) and less anxiety (Marcia, 1967; Marcia & Friedman, 1970; Schenkel & Marcia, 1972) as compared to individuals who have not resolved their identity issues.

Identity styles are associated with differences in identity commitments. An informational style has been used by adolescents who have achieved, or are in the process of forming (moratorium) personal identity commitments (Berzonsky, 1989; 1990; Berzonsky & Neimeyer, 1994). A normative processing style is associated with foreclosed identity commitments; identities formed without an active process of self-exploration (Berzonsky & Neimeyer, 1994). A diffuse-avoidant identity processing style is used by uncommitted adolescents, classified as having a diffusion identity style (Berzonsky & Neimeyer, 1994).

The informational style, from which exploration takes place, is, therefore, necessary for identity commitments. Active exploration is a basis for the development of commitments

regarding personal values and beliefs, future plans and professional goals (Lubenko & Sebre, 2007). Goal commitments and clear self-standards may also play a role in how effectively individuals adapt and regulate personal behaviours (Berzonsky, 1998). Research reveals that identity styles are related differentially to the strength of commitment, with informational and normative identity processing styles relating positively, and a diffuse-avoidant style relating negatively to commitment (Berzonsky, 2003). Similarly, Berzonsky (1990; 1992a) demonstrates that individuals, who rely on normative and informational processing styles, have stronger identity commitments, and greater self-clarity, than their diffuse-avoidant counterparts. Berzonsky, (2003) also highlights that strength of commitment may mediate between identity styles and adjustment.

2.7. Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter delineated the theoretical framework of this study and linked it to Erikson's concept of identity formation. The chapter further discussed the processes that an individual goes through to ultimately form a sense of identity. It outlined identity formation, through resolution of crises in 8 stages of development, and particularly placed more emphasis on the fifth developmental stage, which focuses on identity and adolescence. Marcia's identity status paradigm, which was the first operationalization of Erikson's identity formation, was outlined in order to understand the dimensions of exploration and commitment, and how the identity statuses are assigned to these two. The chapter discussed in detail Berzonsky's identity styles, which forms the main focus of this study. Lastly, the chapter presented a discussion on commitment, which is an important dimension in identity formation. The next chapter discusses the literature review of this study and links it to previously conducted studies.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Introduction

This chapter gives a detailed discussion about previous research conducted that could be linked to this study. Firstly, it outlines family structure, which is an important unit in socializing adolescents for identity formation. It also discusses the forms of family structure under investigation in this study, which are one and two parent families, to delineate how parenting is employed by parents. The chapter gives an account of the three different strategies employed by adolescents to form their own identities. It also discusses the concept of parenting, three parenting styles and their characteristics, as well as benefits to adolescents. Lastly, the chapter discusses the relationship between parenting styles, adolescent identity styles and family structure in terms of previously conducted researches.

3.2. The family structure

The family unit essential to adolescents and, according to Parke and Buriel (2006), it is the most pervasive and influential context for socialization from a very young age. The main function of family is the care and training of children and adolescents, widely known as socialization. This is the process by which an individual acquires identity and learns beliefs, as well as behavioral norms that can be established or expected by people around her/him (Shaffer & Kipp, 2007). Children's exposure to socialization begins in the family, mainly through direct parent-child interaction (Fabes, Gaertner & Popp, 2005). Family socialization, therefore, refers to the group of interaction processes happening within the family context,

with the objective being to imprint a system of certain values, norms and beliefs in children (Musitu & García, 2001). These interactions between parents and adolescents take place through the process of parenting. Some studies of youth outcomes state that family structure influences children's educational, behavioural and emotional futures (Barber, Axinn, & Thornton, 2002; Marchena & Waite, 2002; Wolfinger, 2003).

There are children who are raised in a one-parent family structure. The creation of the one-parent family structure could be due to a parent deciding not to marry, or due to the family experiencing one or more family structure transition, such as divorce or death of a spouse (Magnuson & Berger, 2009). A two-parent family, rather than a one-parent family, may increase the likelihood of positive developmental outcomes for children (Bauserman, 2002), as it is in a two-parent family that adolescents are believed to receive good parenting. However, some studies that found differences between children in single-parent families and children raised by two parents state that, when family income is controlled, family structure has no effect, or only a modest effect, on child outcomes and well-being (Bramlett & Blumberg, 2007; Gennetian, 2005). In addition to this assertion, the results of the study conducted by Riciutti (2004) indicate that the adverse effects of single-parenthood are clearly mitigated by the presence of positive maternal attitudes and diverse resources. Hutchinson, Afifi & Krause (2007), also report positively that single-parent families often express closeness as a family and a sense of accomplishment, resulting from responding to, and working through, their difficulties.

3.2.1. One-Parent Family

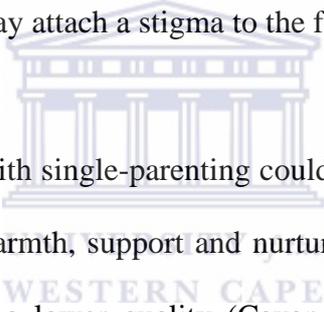
Certain circumstances and family structure transitions result in one-parent families. As Zartler (2014) indicates, the prevalence of single-parent families, as a result of increases in divorce and non-marital child bearing, is one of the most strongly

pronounced trends in family behaviour over the past decades. The developments of change in family structure have led to a greater tolerance of family-related behaviour that had formerly been categorized as non-traditional (Thornton & Young-DeMarco, 2001). Negative and stigmatizing connotations regarding single-parent families still exist, and the two-parent family ideology remains the yardstick against which single parents measure their own families and are evaluated by others (Nelson, 2006; Usdansky, 2009). Being raised by married and resident biological parents is still widely regarded as the best option for children, and other family forms are seen as disadvantaged (Zartler, 2014).

This view, however, does not correspond to some empirical evidence, which indicates that the outcomes of single-parenting depend on a variety of factors, such as economic and social resources, the co-parental relationship and the relationship between children and non-resident parents (Amato, 2000; Amato, Kane & James, 2011). Attitudes towards single-parent families are characterized as ambivalent or negative (Moxnes, 2003; Usdansky, 2009). Single-parents are frequently confronted with challenges, such as, an elevated poverty risk, constrained economic resources, high time pressure and difficulties in reconciling family care and work (Gingrich, 2008; Skevik, 2006). They also face the stressful psychological, emotional and physical needs alone, while concurrently attending to their children's needs (Hamid & Salleh, 2013).

A body of literature that pertains to children's conceptualization of family forms, points to the fact that children also seem to be oriented toward an idealized dual-parent family, and that those growing up with a single-parent may experience negative connotations with regard to their families (Moxnes, 2003; Ribbens McCathy, Edwards & Gillies,

2000; Rigg & Pryor, 2007; Smart, 2006). Many single-parent families experience difficulties related, specifically, to their family structure, including economic hardships (Moore & Vandivere, 2000), emotional challenges, behaviour problems (Hutchinson, Afifi, & Krause, 2007; Wallerstein, Lewis & Blakeslee, 2000), lack of parental supervision, and less parental time to carry out household and parenting tasks (Cooney & Mortimer, 1999). Children, who are raised in single-parent families are also perceived as receiving less parental observation, and are, therefore, often considered at risk, as opposed to children, who are reared in married families (Magnuson & Berger, 2009). Some societies, such as the Korean, for example, tend to see single-parent families as defective, abnormal or incomplete families (Suh & Hwang, 2002). This could be problematic and may attach a stigma to the family.



The stress that may come with single-parenting could have indirect effects on children, such as reduced parental warmth, support and nurturance, thereby resulting in parent-adolescent relationships of a lower quality (Cavanagh, 2008). In a study about the effects of single-parenting, conducted in Swaziland, the children reported that they face challenges, such as socio-emotional resource deprivation, material resource deprivation and negative coping strategies (Thwala, Ntinda & Mabuza, 2014).

3.2.2. Two-Parent Family

Children from two-parent families tend to be better adjusted than children from other family structures (Goodman & Greaves, 2010; Musick & Meier, 2010; Waldfogel, Craigie & Brooks-Gunn, 2010). The quality of parenting is likely to be higher in two-parent families because of the assistance and encouragement that spouses provide to each other (Amato, 2001). Two-parent families seem to have higher socio-economic status (Rosenfeld, 2010), and are seen as being more 'attractive', as each member in

the family brings his/her own resources that are used together, and, therefore, a more equitable division of labour exists within the household (Stoleru, Radu, Antal & Szigeti, 2011). It is assumed that mutual support within the marriage enhances the ability of each of the parents to cope with stress, including the demands of parenting (Simons, Chen, Simons, Brody, & Cutrona, 2006). Furthermore, when compared with children in single-parent families, those in married, two-parent families have more positive parent-child relationships and are exposed to a better home environment characterized by, for example, higher levels of responsiveness and acceptance of the child (Amato, 2005; Aronson & Houston, 2004). Amato (2005) also states that children, who spend their entire childhood living with their married parents, experience, on average, fewer academic, behavioural and social problems during childhood. In either family structure, adolescents have to construct a sense of identity. Kroger (2004) asserts that identity development, during adolescence, can be defined as a process of person-context interaction, which reaffirms the importance of family structure in adolescent identity formation.

3.3. Identity Styles

Adolescents employ different identity styles as a way of constructing a sense of identity. Smits, Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Luyckx and Goossens(2010) articulate that adolescents may have quite different reasons for using a particular identity style. For example, some adolescents actively gather information because they believe that this active search will allow them to make a well-informed and thoughtful choice, whereas others might do so because they would feel guilty and regret not doing it, should they end up making a poorly informed decision. Some normative adolescents might act in accordance with their parental norms, out of fear of being criticized or to avoid parental disappointment, whereas others might

genuinely concur with their parents and may choose to adopt their parents' choice (Smits, Soenens et al., 2010).

Individuals, who utilize informational and normative processing orientations, hold stronger personal commitments and convictions than diffuse-avoiders (Berzonsky, 1990). To effectively regulate and govern their lives, individuals need to develop a stable and meaningful identity structure, which provides a frame of reference for making decisions, problem-solving and interpreting experience and self-relevant information (Berzonsky, Ciecuch, Duriez & Soenens, 2011). The three identity styles are information oriented, normative oriented and diffuse-avoidant oriented identity style.

3.3.1. Information oriented identity style

Individuals, who employ this identity style, deliberately search out, process and evaluate self-relevant information before resolving identity conflicts and forming commitments (Berzonsky, 1990). The information-seeking identity style is characterized by intense and effortful exploration with the goal of self-discovery (Williams & Esmail, 2014). To find a stable and satisfying identity, youth employing an information-seeking identity style, make informed commitments only after considering and contemplating a variety of choices (Williams & Esmail, 2014). They are reflective, skeptical about their self-views, interested in learning new things about themselves, and willing to evaluate and modify their identity structure in light of dissonant feedback (Berzonsky, in press). Individuals with high informational scores tend to define themselves in terms of personal attributes, such as personal values, goals, and standards (Berzonsky, 1994; Berzonsky, Macek & Nurmi, 2003). They have an open-minded view and, consequently, are prepared to accommodate their goals and values to new information (Berzonsky & Sullivan, 1992). Some studies conducted on

identity styles reveal that the informative style is associated with self-insight, open-mindedness, problem-focused coping strategies, vigilant decision-making, high commitment levels and an achieved identity style (Berzonsky in press).

3.3.2. Normative oriented identity style

Individuals with a normative identity style automatically adopt and internalize the goals and standards of significant others and referent groups (Berzonsky, Cieciuch et al., 2011). Such individuals have overly agreeable personalities (Dollinger, 1995; Dunkel, Papini & Berzonsky, 2008). They require structure; resent experiencing uncertainty, or a lack of structure; usually do not engage in self-exploration, or experiment with values; but are rather quick to commit to socially prescribed values and practices, to minimize the threat of rejection (Williams & Esmail, 2014). When confronted by an identity crisis, adolescents with a normative identity style quickly adopt another socially acceptable option, or they will distort their cognition by bending, or fabricating, reality to bring a sense of relief (Berzonsky & Adams, 1999). They seem to be caught between pleasing friends (peer pressure to engage in popular or risky acts) and pleasing family (pressure to conform to mores) (Berzonsky & Luyckx, 2008). Individuals with high normative scores tend to define themselves in terms of collective self-attributes, such as religion, family and nationality (Berzonsky, 1994; Berzonsky, Macek & Nurmi, 2003). A normative style is associated with high commitment levels, self-control, a sense of purpose, inflexibility, a foreclosed identity status and low tolerance for ambiguity (Duriez & Soenens, 2006; Soenens, Duriez & Goossens, 2005).

3.3.3. Diffuse-avoidant oriented identity style

Individuals with a diffuse-avoidant style procrastinate and attempt to defer facing identity conflicts and problems for as long as possible. When they have to act or make

choices, their behaviour is driven, primarily, by immediate external demands and consequences. Such situational accommodations, however, tend to be short-term acts of compliance, rather than long-term modifications in their sense of self-identity (Berzonsky & Ferrari, 2009). Such individuals may avoid making decisions, lack concern or worry, and are confused about their beliefs (Munro, Selman, Esmail & Heather, 2009). Adolescents with a diffuse identity are seen as carefree with a risky lifestyle that may put them in detrimental situations. Furthermore, they often feel like outcasts from society and are drawn to counter-cultural groups, where peer influence is strong (Williams & Esmail, 2014). Fear of rejection can impede meaningful commitments or responsible relationships. According to Berzonsky's (1990) model, diffuse-avoidance is more than a fragmented or confused self; it involves strategic attempts to evade or obscure potentially negative self-relevant feedback. A diffuse-avoidant style is associated with weak commitments, low self-control, an external locus of control, impulsivity, emotionally-focused coping behaviours, self-handicapping and a diffusion identity status (Berzonsky, in press; Berzonsky & Ferrari, 1996; 2009). Individuals with a diffuse-avoidant style tend to define themselves in terms of social attributes, such as reputation and popularity (Berzonsky, 1994; Berzonsky, Macek & Nurmi, 2003).

Numerous studies have examined the role that identity processing styles may play in forming commitments and a sense of identity (Berzonsky, 2003; 2004). A normative processing style associates with identity foreclosure, an informational style positively correlates with identity achievement and moratorium, and a diffuse-avoidant style associates with identity diffusion (Berzonsky & Neimeyer, 1994; Krettenauer, 2005). Since identity styles encompass decision-making capabilities, some studies investigated the linkages between identity styles and

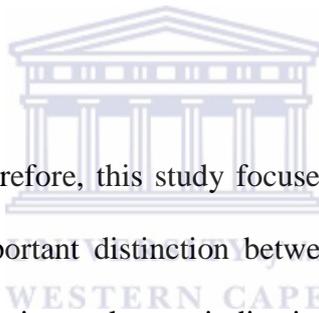
reasoning processes. An informational style associates with problem-focused coping (Berzonsky, 1992a; Soenens, Duriez & Goossens, 2005), cognitive motivation (Berzonsky, 1990) and openness to alternative ideas (Berzonsky, 1990; Duriez, Soenens & Beyers, 2004). A normative style associates negatively with openness to alternative values and actions, but positively with a need for cognitive closure (Berzonsky, 1990; Duriez et al., 2004). A diffuse-avoidant style associates with emotion-focused avoidant coping (Berzonsky, 1992a; Soenens, Duriez & Goossens, 2005) and maladaptive decisional strategies, including pre-decisional procrastination and avoidance, and post-decisional rationalization and excuse-making (Berzonsky & Ferrari, 1996).

Identity styles and value orientations are found to be relevant to identity formation. Value orientations are principles that indicate which goals and end states individuals should strive to attain, whereas identity processing styles reflect how individuals, strategically, attempt to attain and accomplish their goals (Berzonsky & Papini, 2014). Berzonsky, Ciecuch et al. (2011) highlight that stylistic differences in the way individuals deal with issues of identity formation are uniquely associated with different value orientations. An informational style positively associates with the self-transcendent and openness value dimensions and negatively correlates with hedonistic values. A normative style positively associates with conservation values and negatively with hedonistic ones. A diffuse-avoidant style positively correlates with openness and hedonistic values (Berzonsky, Ciecuch et al., 2011).

3.4. Parenting

Parenting plays a major part in child socialization (White, Roosa, Weaver & Nair, 2009) and also provides an early understanding of the self (Baumrind, 1966; 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983; Rudy & Grusec, 2006; Soenens, Van Steenkiste, Lens, Luyckx, Goossens, Beyers &

Ryan, 2007). Family, and especially parents, play a crucial role in providing environments that could either enhance, or hinder, the satisfaction of the basic psychological needs, and subsequent well-being, and personal growth of their children into well-adjusted adults (Grolnick, 2003; Soenens, 2006). Quality parenting associates with general adjustment (Lamborn & Groh, 2009). This concurs with a study, conducted in Botswana by Ntinda, Mpofu, Bender and Moagi (2014), which highlights the important role of parents in the well-being and adjustment of adolescents. In other studies, more positive parenting is linked to positive adolescent outcomes (McKinney, Morse & Pastuszak, 2014; Soenens, Van Steenkiste et al., 2007), whereas sub-optimal parenting is associated with externalizing behaviour, such as anti-social behaviour, social initiative and decision-making (Soenens 2006; O'Connor & Scott, 2007).



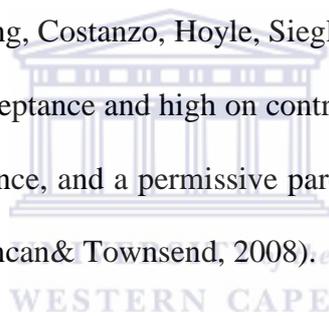
Parenting is a broad concept; therefore, this study focuses on parenting styles. Darling and Steinberg (1993) suggest an important distinction between parenting styles and parenting practices. More specifically, parenting styles are indicative of the emotional climate that the parent creates for socialization, while parenting practices are intentional parental behaviours in response to specific socialization goals (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). Gallarin and Alonso-Arbiol (2012) state that family socialization takes on a different form, depending on each person's parenting style.

3.5. Parenting Styles

The parenting styles, as originally identified by Baumrind (1971; 1991) are authoritative, authoritarian and permissive. Parenting research has, over time, dichotomized the permissive style into indulgent and neglectful parenting styles (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). Parenting style is often defined as a 'typology of attitudes and behaviours that characterize how a parent

will interact with a child across domains of parenting' (Ventura & Birch, 2008). A parenting style is also defined as a group of attitudes toward the child or adolescent, which, taken together, create an 'emotional climate' where parents' behaviour is expressed (Musitu & García, 2004).

These styles create the context in which parents raise their children and the manner in which they parent (Darling & Steinberg, 1993). The parents' warm and caring approach towards the child, their expectations of the child, their communication with the child and their disciplinary attitudes, constitute parental child rearing attitudes (Bartell, 2005). The three parenting styles are differentiated by parental control and acceptance, as well as by warmth and interactions (Fuemmeler, Yang, Costanzo, Hoyle, Siegler, Williams & Ostbye, 2012). An authoritarian parent is low on acceptance and high on control, while an authoritative parent is high on both control and acceptance, and a permissive parent is high on acceptance and low on control (Swartz, dela Rey, Duncan & Townsend, 2008).

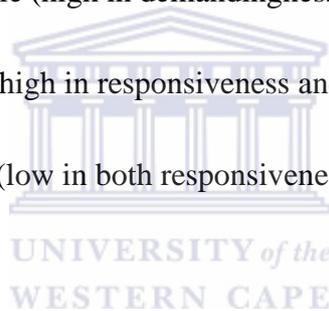


One of the most useful approaches that differentiate parenting styles from each other examines two main constituent dimensions of the parents' behaviour towards the adolescent; *parental responsiveness* (warmth) and *parental demandingness* (control) (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). *Parental responsiveness* is the degree to which parents attend to their children's needs in an accepting, supportive, warm and encouraging manner (Slicker, Picklesimer, Guzak & Fuller, 2005), and the extent to which the child is allowed to grow individually by self-assertion (Baumrind, 2005). Responsive parents develop reciprocal relationships with their children, practice inductive, non-punitive discipline, and show consistency in their child rearing practices (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). This dimension of responsiveness is characterized by affection, acceptance and care (Fan & Zhang, 2014).

Parental demandingness, on the other hand, refers to the extent to which parents expect and demand mature, responsible behaviour from their children, the extent to which parental behavioural control is exhibited by the parent, and the extent to which limit setting and behavioural monitoring is exerted (Slicker et al., 2005). Demandingness constitutes boundaries and rules that parents place on children in order to integrate them into society, as well as the level of parental supervision over children and the direct confrontation between children and parents (Baumrind, 2005). The intersection of these two dimensions creates four types of parenting styles:

- authoritative parenting style (high in both demandingness and responsiveness);
- authoritarian parenting style (high in demandingness but low in responsiveness);
- indulgent parenting style (high in responsiveness and low in demandingness); and
- neglectful parenting style (low in both responsiveness and demandingness)

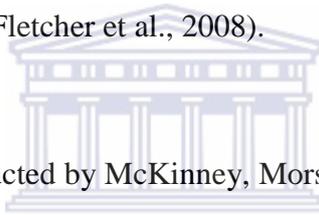
(Fan & Zhang, 2014).



3.5.1. Authoritative parenting style

Authoritative parents set clear, reasonable guidelines and exercise reliable control in a legitimate and loving fashion (Baumrind, 1971; 1991). They support their children with verbal and non-verbal expressions. These parents have more cooperative approach and their expectations are related to their children's competencies (Johnson, 2006; Lamb & Baumrind, 1978). Authoritative parents are aware of their children's ideas, feelings and attitudes, and show respect for those ideas, feelings and attitudes (Bartell, 2005). Parents, who adopt this style, tend to have good nurturing skills and exercise moderate parental control, to allow the child to become progressively more autonomous (Baumrind, 1966; 1967; 1991). Parenting that is authoritative and without excessive

psychological or behavioural control, is predictive of better adolescent well-being (Bornstein, 2006). In this parenting style, children are not completely restricted, but are rather allowed a reasonable degree of latitude in their behaviour. Parents do enforce limits in various ways, such as reasoning, verbal give-and-take, overt power and positive reinforcements (Dwairy, 2004). Fletcher, Walls, Cook, Madison & Bridges (2008) state the possibility that parents, whose parenting styles are characterized by high levels of both responsiveness and demandingness (authoritative parents), are less likely to use punitive discipline and inconsistent discipline practices. This is largely due to their provision of a positive parenting context that makes children more responsive to parental disciplinary efforts, resulting in parents resorting to problematic disciplinary techniques less frequently (Fletcher et al., 2008).



The results of a study conducted by McKinney, Morse & Pastuszak (2014) indicate that adolescents from authoritative families are better adjusted, than participants from other types of families, as judged by competence (higher autonomy and self-esteem), conformity (negative attitude towards drugs and lower external locus of control) and presence of problem behaviours (lower externalizing problems and illicit drug use). These adolescents also report having parents, who are loving and influential (McKinney et al., 2014). Children and adolescents, who are raised in authoritative households, are more psychologically competent, more successful in school, and less prone to internalizing and externalizing problems, than their peers, who have been raised in authoritarian and permissive households (Baumrind, 1991). In some studies, warm, authoritative parenting is associated with positive adjustment in later adolescents (Laible & Carlo, 2004; Jackson, Pratt, Hunsberger & Pancer, 2005). Roche, Ensminger and Cherlin (2007) also state that adolescents fare better, when experiencing warm and

supportive parenting, and experience more problem behaviours, when their parents are permissive or disengaged.

3.5.2. Authoritarian parenting style

Authoritarian parents set definite limits and make rules that are not open to discussion (Baumrind, 1971; 1991). They control the behaviour of their children with rigid rules and limitations, shaped with an excessive level of authority. Those parents do not give support or courage, and believe that what they say should be accepted by the child as the truth (Bartell, 2005). The nurturing skills of authoritarian parents tend to be low. They rarely use words of comfort and are unlikely to demonstrate affection or praise the adolescents (Dwairy, 2004). Although these parents have shortcomings for child care, they have the attitudes of the highest level of parental control (Johnson, 2006). They use verbal and non-verbal (physical) punishments against unwanted behaviour of the child, while not praising positive behaviour. Fletcher, Walls, Cook, Madison and Bridges (2008) state that authoritarian parents, whose parenting styles reflect low levels of responsiveness but emphasize compliance and behavioural control, may be more likely to use punitive disciplinary techniques.

The authoritarian parenting style can be controlling and problematic (Givertz & Segrin, 2012). Overly controlling parental behaviour interferes with the development of self-efficacy, the belief that one can successfully perform a task (Bandura, 1977). It interferes with an individual's ability to problem solve, make decisions, meet needs, set goals and achieve them. Parental behaviour that is psychologically controlling does not allow for self-exploration and self-discovery; is widely associated with a child's diminished psychological self, with lower levels of self-well-being (LeMoyne & Buchanan, 2011); and has been found to disrupt ego development (Barber & Harmon,

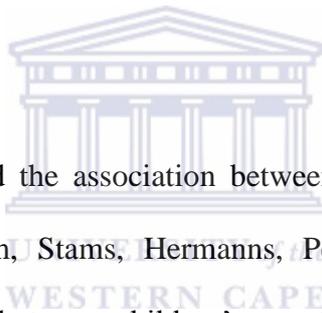
2002). Such parents also decide quickly, but do not evaluate the influences of their decisions over their children (Locke, 2002). According to Locke (2002), children of authoritarian parents may suffer from anxiety, unhappiness and uneasiness. They may use physical violence when they are angry. Furthermore, they are introvert in social relations and they may be aggressive (Bartell, 2005).

3.5.3. Permissive parenting style

Permissive parents are responsive and indulging, but make few demands and exercise limited control (Baumrind, 1971; 1991). The nurturing skills of parents, who adopt the permissive style, tend to be moderate to high, whereas the control of their children is weak (Baumrind, 1991). They encourage their children's autonomy and enable them to make their own decisions, as well as regulate their own activities. They avoid confrontation, tend to be warm, supportive people and do not care to be viewed as figures of authority (Dwairy, 2004). Indulgent parents, who are fully engaged in the parenting process, but have difficulties setting behavioural boundaries, may possibly engage in inconsistent disciplinary efforts, or yield to coercive pressures exerted by children (Fletcher et al., 2008). When parents use inconsistent discipline or avoid practicing adult authority, children are liable to be uncertain about rules and consequences, and may, therefore, receive 'mixed messages' about which behaviours are acceptable and which are not (Crosswhite & Kerpelman, 2009). Children raised by permissive parents have poor social skills and low self-esteem (Baumrind, 2001), and are often seen as selfish, dependent, irresponsible, spoiled, unruly, inconsiderate of other's needs, as well as antisocial (Bigner, 1994; Wenar, 1994).

Several studies about parenting styles have been conducted. In a study about adolescent perceptions of parenting styles, conducted in Sweden, Italy and Greece, it was found that

across those countries, authoritative was the most frequently adopted parenting style by both mothers and fathers. However, adolescents perceived their mothers as being more authoritative than fathers (Olivari, Wahn, Madiraki-Kassotaki, Antonopoulou & Confalonieri, 2015). These findings are consistent with several studies about maternal and paternal parenting styles. For instance, McKinney and Renk, (2008) highlight that mothers score higher on authoritative parenting style than do fathers. In the South African study by Roman, Davids, Moyo, Schilder, Lacante & Lens (2015), the results revealed that an authoritative parenting style was the most frequently perceived parenting style, with mothers being perceived more positively than fathers. As for other parenting styles, McKinney and Renk (2008) state that fathers score higher than mothers on both authoritarian and permissive parenting styles.



Several studies have investigated the association between parenting styles and adolescent outcomes. Paulussen-Hoogbeem, Stams, Hermanns, Peetsma and van den Wittenboer (2008) note that the relationship between children's negative emotionality and internalizing or externalizing problems, is fully mediated by a maternal authoritative parenting style, but not an authoritarian style. Fletcher et al., (2008) assessed the impact of discipline strategies and parenting practices on youth outcomes. The results indicate that authoritative mothers use less punitive discipline, whereas neglecting mothers use the most. Mothers classified as authoritative or authoritarian are found to be more consistent than mothers classified as indulgent. Fletcher et al., (2008) further highlight that punitive and inconsistent parenting is associated with lower grades in school, and more social, internalizing and externalizing problems (Fletcher et al., 2008). Renk, McKinney, Klein and Oliveros (2006) concur that harsh and inconsistent parenting styles and discipline are associated with problematic psychological adjustment of children and adolescents. Padilla-Walker (2008) investigated

adolescents' perceptions of discipline and reported that adolescents considered maternal talking and reasoning, as opposed to yelling or another punitive form of discipline, in response to misbehavior, as the most appropriate and responsive. Maepa, Idemudia and Ofonedu (2015) conducted a study about parenting styles and street children in Limpopo Province, South Africa. The study reveals that there is a highly positive relationship between ineffective parenting styles, such as authoritarian, and children running away from home to the streets. Children who experience authoritarian parenting would view their home environment as hostile and non – supportive, and as a result, would run away from home in order to protect themselves from their abusive parents and caregivers (Maepa et al., 2015).

3.6. Parenting Styles in the African Context

Most African studies about parenting styles were conducted in South Africa and findings reveal that perceptions of mothers' authoritative parenting styles were more prevalent than any other parenting style (Makwakwa, 2011; Moyo, 2012). However, a Kenyan study by Ashiono and Mwoma (2015) also indicate that majority of the parents used authoritative parenting style. Furthermore, Latouf (2005), Makwakwa (2011) and Moyo (2012) show that parents used mainly an authoritative parenting style across ethnic groups. This suggests that African parents employ the nurturing warm and loving approach towards their children. The findings of a study on positive discipline and skillful parenting conducted in Kenya, Uganda, Ethiopia and Rwanda posits that a higher percentage of parents did not support physical punishment as a means for correcting behavior. Nonetheless, there was still a high percentage for those who support it (Parenting Research Report for Africa, 2015). The finding may suggest that Africans still resort to physical punishment which is a characteristic of an authoritarian parenting style. About perceptions of parenting styles in South Africa regarding the effects of gender and ethnicity, Roman, Makwakwa and Lacante (2016) found that black

African fathers scored significantly lower on both authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles than whites.

3.7. Identity Styles, Parenting Styles and Family Structure

Identity formation is a dynamic process involving interaction between a person and the context in which that person lives (Beyers & Goossens, 2008). One of the strongest influences of identity development, lie in the earliest form of socialization, the parent-child relationship (Meeus, Oosterwegel & Vollebergh, 2002; Arseth, Kroger, Martinussen & Marcia, 2009). Beyers and Goossens (2008) concur that parents influence the process of adolescent identity formation, thereby implying that the dynamics of identity development and separation-individuation are integrated, and based on the conceptualization of parents and children as two inter-related identity systems (Koepke & Dennissen, 2012). Schachter and Ventura (2008) use the term '*identity agents*,' when referring to caregivers, who actively interact with adolescents and influence their identity development. The results of some studies are consistent with the notion that a combination of a warm and close relationship with parents (including emotional support, guidance, intimacy, secure attachment) and encouragement by parents to strive for autonomy (including autonomy support, valuing independence, individuation within the family, encouragement of free and independent behaviour) is associated with healthy identity development (Reis & Youniss, 2004; Sartor & Youniss, 2002; Adams, Berzonsky & Keating, 2006; Perosa, Perosa & Tam, 2002).

Parents, however, should promote adolescent autonomy, when dealing with identity relevant information. Adolescents, whose parents impose their own identity issues on them, may be less in touch with their own identity and sense of self, which may contribute to difficulties in making their own personal commitments. Various research studies suggest that intrusive,

psychologically controlling parents are detrimental to adolescents' development of a stable and integrated personal identity (Barber, 2002; Elliot & Thrash, 2004; Luyckx, Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Goossens, & Berzonsky, 2007; Vansteenkiste, Zhou, Lens, & Soenens, 2005). Other research studies also show that parents, who provide their children with autonomy, warmth and encouragement, are more likely to have children, who experience healthy identity development (Beyers & Goossens, 2008; Sim & Chin, 2012).

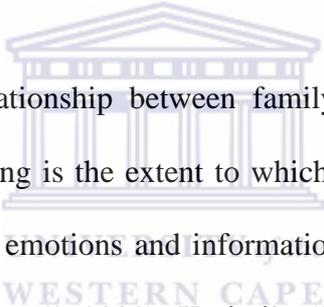
Adolescents may also benefit from positive identification with their parents, thus allowing them to use their upbringing as a springboard to explore their own identities (Gutman & Eccles, 2007). Parents are, therefore, considered to be dynamically interlinked to their adolescent's identity formation (Beyers & Cok, 2008; Beyers & Goossens, 2008; Crocetti et al., 2008; Sabatier, 2008; Smits et al., 2008). Berzonsky (1990) highlights that identity development is considered to involve an ongoing dialectical interchange between assimilative processes (governed by the identity structure) and accommodative processes (directed by the social and physical contexts within which adolescents live and develop). Empirical research reveal that identity formation is associated with relationships that individuals have with significant others, as well as the contextual factors surrounding those relationships (Van Hoof, 1999; Beyers & Goossens, 2008). Hence, parenting is critical and decisive in terms of identity development (Beyers & Goossens, 2008).

A study by Cakir and Aydin (2005) investigated parental attitudes and the ego identity status of Turkish adolescents. The results indicate that students, who perceive their parents as authoritative, are more foreclosed than those who perceive their parents as neglectful. Furthermore, students, who perceive their parents as permissive, are more foreclosed than those who perceive their parents as neglectful (Cakir & Aydin, 2005). Foreclosure is an ego

identity status by Marcia, which refers to high commitment with low exploration (Marcia, 1966, 1980). Within Marcia's (1966) identity status paradigm, foreclosed identity commitment is associated with normative identity processing style (Berzonsky & Neimeyer, 1994). The association between parenting and identity styles was first investigated by Berzonsky (2004). Furthermore, associations have been established between aspects of parenting and adolescents' identity processing styles (Berzonsky, 2004; Smits et al., 2008; Soenens, Berzonsky, Dunkel, & Papini, 2011). In a study with university students, Berzonsky (2004) reported that the informational identity style is positively predicted by the authoritative parenting style. The normative identity style, although most strongly and positively predicted by the authoritative parenting style, is also positively predicted by the authoritarian parenting style. Finally, the diffuse-avoidant style is positively predicted by both the authoritarian and indulgent parenting styles, but negatively predicted by the authoritative parenting style. Therefore, parents who are democratic in their parenting style (deliver punishments within a warm, accepting, and empathic context that recognizes the adolescent as an autonomous individual) elicit the most psychologically adaptive identity styles. Alternatively, parenting styles that emphasize warmth without control, and control without warmth, tend to elicit a diffuse avoidant identity style (Berzonsky, 2004).

Smits et al. (2008) conducted a study about perceived parenting dimensions (support, behavioural control and psychological control) and identity styles among middle and late adolescents. Their findings revealed that the information-oriented identity style is positively predicted by perceived parental support, that is, nurturant parenting would foster an open and flexible exploration of identity-relevant information. Contrary to their expectations, an information-oriented style was also positively predicted by perceived parental psychological control, suggesting that psychologically controlling parenting fosters an active search for

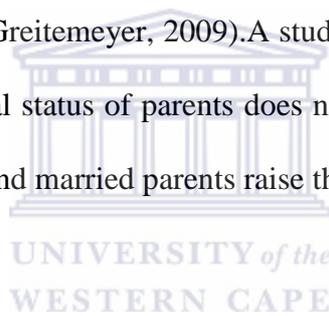
identity alternatives in some adolescents. Smits et al. (2008) further revealed that the normative identity style is positively predicted by perceived supportive parenting, as well as perceived (maternal) behavioural control. The diffuse-avoidant identity style is predicted by a maladaptive pattern of perceived parenting. In particular, across parental gender, positive associations were found between perceived psychological control and the diffuse-avoidant identity style (Smits et al., 2008). In a study conducted by Berzonsky, Branje and Meeus (2007), perceived parent-adolescent relationships were found to be associated with identity in adolescents. For example, authoritative parenting practices, which include communicating explanations, being responsive and making reasonable demands within a climate of warmth and acceptance, were linked to an informational style.



Karimi (2010) examines the relationship between family functioning and identity styles among students. Family functioning is the extent to which family members are emotionally bonded, effectively communicate emotions and information, and respond cooperatively and flexibly to problems (Olson & Gorall, 2003). Karimi's (2010) results show that there is a significant relationship between family functioning and identity styles, meaning that family functioning has a positive and direct relationship with informational, as well as normative identity styles, but a negative and reversal relationship with the diffuse-avoidant identity style. There is, therefore, a significant and positive relationship between the family functioning and identity commitment (Karimi, 2010). Some studies report significantly lower levels of family functioning in single-parent households, in comparison to intact two-parent households (Clark, Barrett, & Kolvin, 2000; Yeung & Chan, 2010), whereas others report none (Agate, Zabriskie, & Eggett, 2007; Herzer, Gofiwala, Hommel, Driscoll, Mitchell, Crosby & Modi, 2010; Hornberger, Zabriskie, & Freeman, 2010;). Beyers and Goossens (2008) examine short-term changes in parenting and identity formation, during late

adolescence. Their results indicate that parenting predicts the explorative phases of identity formation (that is, exploration in breadth and commitment making), while evaluative phases of identity formation (that is, exploration in depth and commitment identification) predict more supportive parenting.

Several African studies highlight the parenting styles employed by married and single mothers. Roman (2011) investigates parenting styles of single and married mothers in South Africa. The results of the study show that there is no significant difference between the parenting styles of single or married mothers. This is in line with other South African studies that found no significant differences in parenting practices between single or married mothers (Avinson, Ali & Walters, 2007; Greitemeyer, 2009). A study by Ashiono and Mwoma (2015) in Kenya suggests that the marital status of parents does not influence their parenting styles. Their findings imply that single and married parents raise their children in the same way.



3.8. Conclusion

This chapter provided a detailed discussion of the current study's literature review. Previous studies conducted were linked to this study, addressing concepts of the family structure, adolescent identity styles and parenting styles. Firstly, family structure was outlined and parenting in one and two-parent families was explored. The three different identity styles, which are the different strategies employed by the adolescents to form their own identities, were discussed. The three parenting styles were examined in detail to reveal the styles that nurture adolescent development, as well as the styles that are detrimental to their well-being. Lastly, the association of parenting styles and adolescent identity styles, in terms of previously conducted studies, were reviewed. The next chapter will discuss the methodology of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

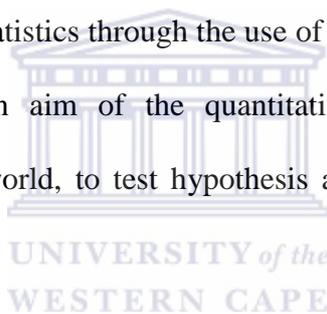
4.1. Introduction

This chapter outlines the research methodology that was applied to implement the study, answer the research questions, achieve the objectives and test the hypotheses. The research approach and design employed for this study is presented and a detailed account of the population and sample selection is provided. The pilot study that was conducted before the main study is discussed followed by the data collection of the main study, as well as the instruments used to collect the data. The data analysis is discussed in detail, while the validity and reliability of the instruments used in the study are examined. Lastly, the chapter discloses the ethics that were taken into consideration during the implementation of this study.

4.2. Research Methodology

A quantitative research methodology was used to conduct the study. Gaur and Gaur (2009) state that quantitative research involves collecting quantitative data, based on precise measurements, through archival data sources, or the use of structured, reliable and validated data collection instruments. The nature of the data is in the form of variables, and the data analysis involves establishing statistical relationships (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). Like qualitative researchers, those who engage in this form of enquiry have assumptions about testing theories deductively, building in protections against bias, controlling for alternative explanations and being able to generalize and replicate findings (Creswell, 2009).

In quantitative research, the primary aim is to determine the relationship between an independent variable and another set of dependent or outcome variables in a population (Singh, 2007). Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee (2006) also state that the quantitative research methodological approach produces statistical outcomes and attempts to prove or disprove hypotheses for resultant relationships between the variables of the study. The variables that were under investigation for this study were adolescent identity styles, perceived parenting styles and one and two-parent family structures. The data collection was in the form of numerical data. The quantitative research approach is further described in terms of the types of research strategies used and also the specific methods employed in conducting these strategies (for example, collecting data quantitatively by means of questionnaires). Hence, quantitative research generates statistics through the use of methods such as questionnaires or structured interviews. The main aim of the quantitative methodology approach is to objectively measure the social world, to test hypothesis and to predict and control human behaviour (De Vos, 2005).



4.3. Research Design

De Vaus (2001) simply describes a research design as a logical structure of inquiry. This is done by making plans and procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis.

In terms of the time dimension, the cross-sectional research design was used. According to De Vaus (2001), in a cross-sectional research design, data is collected at one point in time. Data about adolescents' identity styles, parenting styles, as well as one and two-parent families are collected at a snapshot and the results are representative of what transpired at that particular point in time. A correlational comparative research design was also used to conduct

this study. McMillan and Schumacher (2006) describe correlational research as assessing relationships between two or more phenomena. The correlation design examines the strength of the relationship between variables (Asadoorian & Kantarelis, 2005). For this study, the variables under investigation, to establish the correlation between them, were parenting styles and adolescent identity styles. The correlation design, therefore, determines the extent to which these variables are related, and also the strength of that relationship. Pearson correlation was used to determine the relationship between the variables.

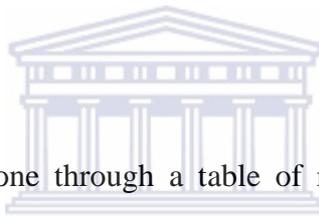
Comparative studies, on the other hand, investigate the relationship of one variable to another by examining the differences on the dependent variable between two groups of subjects (Field, 2009). The comparative design explored the differences in the relationship between identity styles and parenting styles in one and two-parent family structures. Independent t-tests were used to determine comparisons. The descriptive design was used to obtain the descriptive information regarding the relationship between adolescent identity styles and parenting styles in one and two-parent families.

4.4. Population and Sampling

The population for this study was Form 3 learners between the ages of 13-17, living in either a one parent or two-parent family structure in the city of Gaborone, Botswana. Blaikie (2003) defines a population as an aggregate of all units or cases that conform to some designated set of criteria. In terms of the population for the current study, there are twelve (12) public, junior secondary schools in Gaborone. The population size is approximately 3 240 Form 3 learners. The schools are located around Gaborone, depending on the coverage and proximity to the communities. Participants were easily reachable in a school setting because, in Botswana, junior school education is accessible to many adolescents, since there is automatic

progression from primary to junior schools, regardless of the academic performance at primary school.

Samples are groups of participants selected to make inferences about the populations from which they are drawn (Marston, 2010). The sampling method employed was probability sampling. In a probability sampling, every member of the target population has a known, non-zero probability of being included in the sample (Fink, 2003). A simple random sampling technique was used to select participants for the study. According to Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005), in simple random sampling, each member of the population has the same chance of being included in the sample and each sample of a particular size has the same probability of being chosen.



Simple random sampling was done through a table of random numbers. Each of the 12 schools was assigned a random number and the table was presented in a form of a row. Every third school in a table was selected, as such, a total of 4 schools were selected. One benefit of simple random sampling is the generalizability of the findings (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001). The schools that were selected, each had 6 classes of Form 3 students, and each class had approximately 45 learners. Therefore, one school had approximately 270 Form 3 learners, and the 4 schools together had about 1 080 Form 3 learners. Due to the large number of the population group, all Form 3 learners could not be included in the sample. The schools' management felt that many days of data collection would disrupt their curriculum. However, 3x Form 3 classes per school were permitted to complete the questionnaires. The sample was, therefore, reduced to about 540 learners; however, only a total of 194 participants in the 4 schools completed the questionnaires. The high dropout rate occurred due to some learners being engaged with other school activities during data collection times. Of the total number

of participants who completed the questionnaires, 109 were females and 85 were males, mainly because many classes had a larger number of female learners than males. The mean age of the participants was 15.4.

4.5. Data Collection Instruments

Data was collected by a means of self-administered questionnaires. The questionnaires included demographics, the identity style inventory version 4, and the parenting style and dimensions questionnaire. The word ‘questionnaire’ is typically used in a very general sense to mean any printed set of questions that participants in a survey are asked to answer, either by checking one choice from among several possible answers listed beneath a question, or by writing out an answer (Thomas, 2003). The instrument was categorized into 3 sections, first being the demographics questionnaire, followed by the identity style inventory and lastly the parenting style and dimensions questionnaire. The demographics questionnaires required participants to select the response that best suited them from a number of responses. The items for identity style inventory and parenting style and dimensions questionnaires were scored on a 5 point Likert scale. For identity style inventory questionnaire, the scale ranged from 1=not at all like me, 2= unlike me, 3=neither like me, 4=like me and 5=very much like me. Regarding the parenting style and dimensions questionnaire, the scale ranged from 1=never, 2=once in a while, 3=about half of the time, 4=very often and 5=always.

4.5.1. Demographics Questionnaire

The demographics questionnaire was intended to gather descriptive data of the participants (see Appendix D). The characteristics included age, sex, educational level, the family structure, family composition, as well as their parents’ occupations.

4.5.2. Identity Style Inventory Version 4

To assess the identity styles, adolescents completed a revised version of the Identity Style Inventory version 4 developed by Berzonsky, Soenens, Luyckx, Goosens, Dunkel & Papini (2011). (See Appendix E). This revision is an improved version of the Identity Style Version 3 (Berzonsky, 1992), which has been the most commonly used measure of identity styles. For instance, the ISI-3, like a number of measures of identity (e.g., Balistreri, Busch-Rossnagel & Geisinger, 1995), includes a mixture of items that refer to various specific life domains (e.g. religion, occupation) and a mixture of items worded in the present and past tense. In this revision, all the items are worded in the present tense and referred to an individual's current identity-processing style. The items are also designed to tap the processing of identity relevant information in general (for example, values, goals, standards, beliefs and personal problems) independent of a specific identity domain (Soenens, Berzonsky, Dunkel, Papini & Vansteenkiste, 2011). Sample items include: "I handle problems in my life by actively reflecting on them" for the informational scale; "I automatically adopt and following values I was brought up with" for the normative scale; "When I have to make a decision, I try to wait as long as possible in order to see what will happen" for the diffuse-avoidant scale. The ISI-4 also contains a scale measuring commitment, which consists of 9 items (for example, "I know basically what I believe and do not believe."). The scale has a total of 48 items. Items were rated on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). In a study by Soenens et al., (2011), Cronbach alphas for the three identity style scales are indicated as .76 (informational style), .75 (normative style), and .71 (diffuse-avoidant style). Cronbach alphas for commitment is .84.

4.5.3. Parenting Style and Dimensions Questionnaire

The scale was developed by Robinson, Mandelco, Olsen & Hart in 1995 and included 62 items (Robinson, Mandelco, Olsen & Hart, 1995). Following the changes made to the initial scale in 2001, the scale now has 32 items (see Appendix F). The 32-item version of the parenting styles and dimension questionnaire (Robinson, Mandelco, Olsen, & Hart, 2001) was used to assess participants' perception of their parents' style of parenting in the current study. Baumrind's (1971) parenting styles have sub-factors that are known as dimensions or practices. Three subscales include the authoritative parenting style, which has 15 items, the authoritarian parenting style, which has 12 items and the permissive parenting style, which has 5 items. These styles also include parenting practices as subscales for each of the styles. Participants had to respond on a 5-point Likert scale which ranges from 1=never to 5=always. Items include, for instance, "my parent encouraged me to talk about my troubles" and "my parent found it difficult to discipline me". The Cronbach alpha coefficients observed in the South African study by Roman, Davids, Moyo, Schilder, Lacante and Lens (2015) are as follows: 0.92 for authoritative parenting style, 0.88 for authoritarian parenting style and 0.62 for permissive parenting style for mothers. As for fathers, the Cronbach alpha coefficients are 0.96 for authoritative parenting style, 0.94 for authoritarian parenting style and 0.78 for permissive parenting style (Roman et al., 2015).

4.6. Pilot Study

Prior to the main data collection, a pilot study was conducted. A pilot study is a smaller version of a main study that is carried out before the actual investigation is done (Bryman & Bell, 2003). Data for the pilot study was collected after approval had been given by the Senate Research Committee at the University of the Western Cape. An application for a

research permit was made to the Ministry of Education and Skills Development in Gaborone, Botswana. After the permit was granted, permission to collect data was sought from the Department of Education Regional Operations and the school's management. A pilot study was done at a Junior Secondary School in Gaborone, Botswana with a sample of 32 Form 3 learners, aged between 13-17 years. Of that sample, 18 were from a two-parent family structure, while 14 were from one-parent family structure.

During the first meeting with the learners, information sheets (See Appendix A) were issued and the researcher explained what the study entailed and what it hoped to achieve. The participants were reminded that participation in the study was voluntary. Parents' consent forms (See Appendix B), as well as participants' consent forms (See Appendix C) were given to the learners. On the scheduled day, data collection commenced. The participants, whose parents had given permission, and who had also assented to participate in the study, were provided with questionnaires. The session was done in a classroom setting and the participants took about 30-40 minutes to complete the questionnaires.

The pilot study was used to test the accessibility of the participants, the logistics to be followed when distributing the questionnaires and the learners' level of understanding of the items. Some learners needed clarification on some items on the identity style inventory and the parenting style and dimensions questionnaires. No changes were made to the questionnaires since the measuring instruments gathered enough data, as intended, for the demographics, adolescents' identity styles and parenting styles. The findings of the pilot study were used to assess the reliability of the measuring instruments before they could be applied to the main study, as well as highlight any challenges or limitations and how they could be addressed during the main data collection process.

4.6.1. Challenges faced during the Pilot study phase

Some challenges were encountered during the pilot study. The school management had granted the afternoon study period as a convenient time to collect data. It was also evident that other learners used that time to do various school projects such as going to the garden and a range of laboratories. This scenario, however, reduced the response rate and caused learners to arrive at different times, while data collection was already in progress. Handing out questionnaires to the new arrivals became a challenge, especially when the other participants were already nearing completion with theirs. Some students might not have been in class the previous day and would not have taken consent forms to their parents. They were, therefore, unable to participate in the study. Another challenge was the limited understanding of certain questionnaire items that needed clarification, especially with the participants arriving at different times, which delayed the progress of completing the questionnaires.

4.6.2. Adjustments made for the main study

The challenges encountered during the pilot study informed some adjustments that had to be made for the main study. For instance, the researcher negotiated with some schools to grant permission to collect data during lesson hours and not during the afternoon study time, which improved the response rate. The questionnaire items that were not easily understood by the learners were noted and clarified for the main study.

4.7. Data Collection Procedure

The data collection procedure for the main study followed the same procedure as that of the pilot study. After approval was granted by Senate Research Committee at the University of the Western Cape (see Appendix G), a research permit was obtained from the Ministry of

Education and Skills Development in Botswana (see Appendix H). Permission was also sought from Department of Education Regional Office (see Appendix I), the School Heads, parents and the learners. The School Heads of the selected schools were presented with the proposal stipulating the research study, aim, objectives and its significance. The schools then discussed and decided on their most convenient times to administer questionnaires to the learners. The schools were, apparently, operating different curriculums as some preferred the afternoons study period, while others had allocated extra lessons during that time. In such schools, an arrangement was made to administer the questionnaires during lesson time periods and the most preferred time was during the guidance and counselling lesson. Each lesson is allocated 40 minutes; therefore, one class was able to complete the questionnaire during that time. In the schools where data collection was done during the afternoon study time, 2 classes were able to complete the questionnaires in the allocated time, which was 1 hour, 30 minutes. The first meeting with a class was to explain what the study entailed and distribute participants' and parents' consent letters. A second meeting was arranged with the learners for data collection on the next scheduled day. About 35 learners, per classroom setting, completed the questionnaires and 194 in total.

4.8. Data Analysis

The data collected was entered into a Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS). The data was then coded, and errors, as well as irrelevant data were eliminated. Coding involves identifying variables to be used in statistical analysis and assigning code values to each variable (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). The descriptive statistics analysis of the data provided a summary of information about demographics, adolescent identity styles and parenting styles. Descriptive statistics are concerned with the description and/or summary of the data obtained for a group of individual units of analysis (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell,

2005). Descriptive analysis for variables in the study included describing the results through the mean and standard deviations. Mean is a sum of the values of a variable divided by the number of observations, and standard deviation is the positive square root of variance (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). Standard deviation was computed to measure the spread of scores about the mean. According to Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005), a normal distribution is a distribution, which is perfectly symmetrical about its mean.

The analysis of data also included the use of inferential statistics that aim to examine the relationships and comparisons between variables. Pearson's correlation was used to explore the relationship between independent variables and the dependent variables. As applied to this study, Pearson's correlation was used to determine the relationship between parenting styles and adolescent identity styles in one and two-parent families. According to Chen and Krauss (2004), Pearson's correlation coefficient best represents the contemporary use of the simple correlation that assesses the linear relationship between two variables. When variables are interval/ratio, as in this current study, Bryman and Cramer (2005) state that the most common measure of correlation is Pearson's coefficient. Independent t-tests were used for the comparison of identity styles between one and two-parent families, as well as for the comparison of parenting styles between one and two-parent families. T-tests are used to test whether two group means are different (Field, 2009). Independent sample tests refer to the experiment done to detect differences between the means of two independent groups (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). The two independent groups in this study were the one and two-parent families.

4.9. Validity and Reliability

The measuring instruments for the study were selected based on their validity and reliability scores from previous studies. According to Creswell (2009), validity refers to whether

meaningful and useful inferences could be drawn from scores on the instruments. The three traditional forms of validity to search for are *content validity* (Do the items measure the content they were intended to measure?), *predictive or concurrent validity* (Do scores predict a criterion measure? Do results correlate with other results?), and *construct validity* (Do items measure hypothetical constructs or concepts?) (Creswell, 2009). In the current study, validity referred to whether the Identity Style Inventory 4 measured adolescents cognitive strategies of using identity relevant information and whether the Parenting Style and Dimensions Questionnaire measured adolescents perception of their parents' parenting styles.

Reliability refers to the confidence that can be placed on the measuring instrument to give the same numeric value when the measurement is repeated on the same object (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). One of the most commonly used technique for assessing reliability is Cronbach alphas for internal reliability of a set of scales (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). The pilot study assisted in measuring the reliability of the instrument being used as a test-retest method, which was implemented before the main study was conducted. The reliability of the measuring instruments used to conduct this study has been well established in previous studies. Berzonsky, Soenens et al. (2011) established the internal structure of the Identity Style Inventory version 4 scales by exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses, and estimates of internal reliability for the three style scales were found to be higher than .70. In addition, the scales were found to be correlated in theoretically expected ways with measures of identity status, identity content and cognitive functioning. In a South African study by Davids, Roman & Leach (2015), the Cronbach alpha scores for the Parenting Style and Dimensions Questionnaire was .85.

4.10. Ethical Considerations

Before the collection of data, ethical clearance to conduct the study was approved by UWC Senate Degrees Committee. Permission was sought from both the Ministry of Education and Skills Development and the Regional Education Department in Botswana. Permission was also sought from the schools' management. The participants and their parents, or guardians, also gave permission for participation in the study. The study was conducted based on the 4 principles of ethical considerations in research. These are voluntary participation, informed consent, no harm to participants and confidentiality and anonymity.

4.10.1. Voluntary participation

The participants were informed of their voluntary participation in the study and that there was no obligation to participate. They were advised that they could decline to participate and could withdraw at any point, if they so desired, without victimization.

4.10.2. Informed Consent

Information sheets with detailed information about whom the researcher was, what the study was about, the benefits, risks and what the study envisioned to achieve, were given to each participant. The researcher clarified the information sheets with the participants and explanations were given where and when they did not understand. This allowed them to be conversant with the study and, therefore, make an informed consent. Consent forms were also issued to participants who had agreed to participate, as well as to the parents, since the participants were considered to be minors, according to the law. There were some consent forms that were translated into the Setswana language for parents, who could not read the English language.

4.10.3. No harm to participants

According to Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2007), the respondents should be given the assurance that they would be indemnified against any physical and emotional harm. The researcher, as well as the participants, acknowledged that some risks were possible, especially when eliciting some personal experiences related to family structure such as death or divorce of parents. Participants were assured that, should they be emotionally affected by any questionnaire item, they would be referred for emotional support.

4.10.4. Confidentiality and anonymity

Anonymity was ensured as the participants were guaranteed of their right to privacy and that their names would not appear on the questionnaires. The researcher also upheld the principle of confidentiality and assured the participants that their information would not be disclosed without their consent and that the findings of the study would not be used for any purpose, other than what it was intended to achieve.

4.11. Conclusion

In conclusion, the chapter provided a detailed research methodology that was followed to conduct the study and answer the research questions. A quantitative methodology approach was used to conduct the study. The research design applied was the cross sectional, correlational comparative design. The chapter also outlined a detailed account of how the population and sample of participants were selected, as well as a discussion about the instruments that were used to collect the data. The psychometric properties of these instruments were also examined. The chapter further explored how the descriptive, correlation and comparative data were analyzed. Finally, this study adhered to the ethical considerations in research. Chapter 5 will outline the results of the quantitative data analysis.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

5. 1. Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the analysis for this study. The analysis was conducted with the use of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 23 (SPSS). The results presented in this chapter include descriptive data regarding adolescent identity styles and parenting styles, correlations between the variables, as well as the comparison of the variables between one and two-parent families. In order to understand the coding used in SPSS for parenting styles, the following list of variables were used.

Abbreviation	Variable
MCONNECT	Mothers connection dimension
FCONNECT	Fathers connection dimension
MREG	Mothers regulation dimension
FREG	Fathers regulation dimension
MAUTGRNT	Mothers autonomy granting dimension
FAUTGRNT	Fathers autonomy granting dimension
MAUTIVE	Mothers authoritative parenting style
FAUTIVE	Fathers authoritative parenting style
MPHYSCOERC	Mothers physical coercion dimension
FPHYSCOERC	Fathers physical coercion dimension
MVERBHOST	Mothers verbal hostility dimension
FVERBHOST	Fathers verbal hostility dimension
MPUNITIVE	Mothers punitive dimension
FPUNITIVE	Fathers punitive dimension

MTARIAN	Mothers authoritarian parenting style
FTARIAN	Fathers authoritarian parenting style
MPERMISS	Mothers permissive parenting style
FPERMISS	Fathers permissive parenting style

5.2. Overview of Hypotheses

The hypotheses of the study propose that:

1. There is a significant relationship between parenting styles and identity styles.
2. There is a significant difference in the relationship between parenting styles and identity styles in one and two-parent families.

5.3. Internal Consistency

The two instruments that were used to measure variables in this study are the Identity Style Inventory 4 (ISI 4) developed by Berzonsky, Soenens et al. (2011) and the Parenting Style and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ) developed by Robinson et al. (2001). The ISI 4 measures participants' cognitive processing of identity relevant information. The PSDQ measures participants' perception on parenting.

5.4. Demographic Profile

Table 5.1: presents an overview of the demographic profile of the 194 participants in this study. The demographic information include gender, head of the home, structure of the family, the presence of biological or step fathers, interaction of father with children, if present or absent, and the employment status of the parents.

Table 5.1: Demographic information of participants

VARIABLES		n=194	%
Gender	Male	85	43.8
	Female	109	56.2
Head of the home	Mother	57	29.4
	Father	122	62.9
	Grandmother	9	4.6
	Grandfather	1	.5
	Aunt	4	2.1
	Sister	1	.5
Structure of the family	Parents married & staying together	90	46.4
	Parents married but separated	6	3.1
	Parents living together but not married	29	14.9
	Parent single, do not live together and are not married	41	21.1
	Parent single because he/she is widowed	21	10.8
	Parent single because he/she is divorced	1	.5
	Extended family	4	2.1
	Only siblings	2	1.0
Biological father present	Yes	118	60.8
	No	76	39.2
Stepfather present	Yes	28	14.4
	No	166	85.6
Interaction of father with children if present/absent	Present but does not interact with the children	8	4.1
	Present and interacts with the children	124	63.9
	Absent but interacts with the children	25	12.9
	Absent and does not interact with the children	37	19.1
Parents employed	Yes	181	93.3
	No	13	6.7

The demographic profile shows that the majority of the participants were female [109 (56.2%)] living in homes headed by a father [122 (62.9%)]. Of the 194 participants, 90

(46.4%) were living in a two-parent family structure. This was followed by participants, who lived in a one-parent family [41 (21.1%)]. The majority of the participants [118 (60.8%)] indicated that their biological fathers were present in the home and 28 (14.4%) had a stepfather present. Of the 194 participants, 124 (63.9%) had fathers present, who interacted with them, while 8 (4.1%) had fathers present, who did not interact with them. Those with parents, who were employed were [181 (93.3%)], while those with unemployed parents were [13 (6.7%)].

5.5. Identity Styles

Tables 5.2: to 5.6: outline the means and standard deviation results for Identity Styles of 194 participants. The subscales are informational identity style with 13 items, normative identity style with 13 items, diffuse-avoidant identity style with 13 items and commitment subscale with 9 items. Table 5.7 presents the overall results of each identity style inventory subscale.

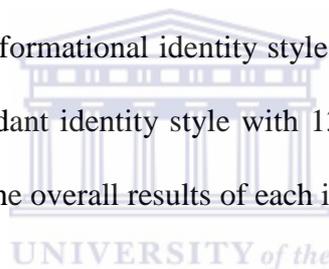


Table 5.2: Means and SD for Informational Identity Style. Subscale (n=194)

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
2. I intentionally think about what I want to do with my life	4.47	1.00
6. Talking to others helps me explore my personal beliefs.	3.63	1.39
10. When facing a life decision, I take into account different points of view before making a choice.	3.92	1.30
14. I spend a lot of time reading or talking to others trying to develop a set of values that makes sense to me.	3.48	1.51
18. When facing a life decision, I try to analyse the situation in order to understand it.	3.90	1.33
22. I find that personal problems often turn out to be interesting challenges.	3.47	1.51
26. When making important decisions, I like to spend time thinking about my options.	4.12	1.29
30. I handle problems in my life by actively reflecting on them.	3.53	1.40
34. When making important decisions, I like to have as much information as possible.	3.99	1.87
37. I periodically think about and examine the logical consistency between my values and life goals.	3.61	1.28

40. When others say something that challenges my values or beliefs, I try to understand their point of view.	3.38	1.52
43. Uncertainty about my values or life goals indicates that I need to actively seek out and evaluate relevant information.	3.51	1.25
46. It is important for me to obtain and evaluate information from a variety of sources before I make important life decisions.	3.82	1.27

Responses were on a Likert scale of 1=Not at all like me, 2=Unlike me, 3=Neither like me, 4=Like me and 5=very much like me.

In Table 5.2:, the results of the informational identity style subscale show that the majority of the 194 participants indicated for item 2, *I intentionally think about what I want to do with my life* ($M=4.47, SD=1.00$). Item 22, *I find that personal problems often turn out to be interesting challenges* had the lowest score of ($M=3.47, SD=1.51$) among other items.

Table 5.3: Means and SD for Normative Identity Style. Subscale (n=194)

Item	M	SD
3. I automatically adopt and follow the values I was brought up with	3.60	1.45
7. I strive to achieve the goals that my family and friends hold for me	3.53	1.47
11. I have always known what I believe and do not believe, I never really have doubts about my beliefs	3.74	1.40
15. I never question what I want to do with my life because I tend to follow what important people expect me to do	2.57	1.63
19. I think it is better to adopt a firm set of beliefs than to be open-minded	3.01	1.45
23. I think it is better not to question the advice of established professionals (eg clergy, doctors, lawyers) when making a personal decision	2.96	1.58
27. I think it is better to hold on to fixed values rather than to consider alternative value systems	3.06	1.31
31. I prefer to deal with situations in which I can rely on social norms and standards	3.15	1.42
35. When I make a decision about my future, I automatically follow what close friends or relative expect from me	2.23	1.53
38. When others say something that challenges my personal values or beliefs, I automatically disregard what they have to say	3.44	1.44
41. Uncertainty about my values or life goals makes me anxious and nervous	2.92	1.43
44. I rarely need to spend a lot of time reasoning about major life decisions, the choice I should make is quickly obvious to me	3.43	1.40
47. When personal problems arise, I automatically know what I should do	3.37	1.49

Responses were on a Likert scale of 1=Not at all like me, 2=Unlike me, 3=Neither like me, 4=Like me and 5=very much like me

Relating to the normative identity style, Table 5.3: suggests that the majority of participants scored higher for item 11, *I have always known what I believe and do not believe, I never really have doubts about my beliefs* ($M=3.74, SD=1.40$). Item 35, *When I make a decision about my future, I automatically follow what close friends or relative expect from me* had the lowest score of ($M=2.23, SD=1.53$).

Table 5.4: Means and SD for Diffuse-avoidant identity style. Subscale (n=194)

Item	M	SD
4. I am not sure where I am heading in my life, I guess things will work themselves out	2.37	1.55
8. It does not pay to worry about values in advance, I decide things as they happen	2.62	1.47
12. Many times, by not considering myself with personal problems, they work themselves out	2.37	1.50
16. I am not really thinking about my future now, it is still a long way off	1.79	1.30
20. When I have to make a decision, I try to wait as long as possible in order to see what will happen	3.35	1.53
24. It is best for me not to life too seriously, I just try to enjoy it	2.21	1.52
28. I try not to think about or deal with problems as long as I can	3.03	1.46
32. I try to avoid personal situations that require me to think a lot and deal with them on my own	3.41	1.49
36. Sometimes I refuse to believe a problem will happen, and things manage to work themselves out	3.24	1.51
39. I find that my emotions and feelings are the best guide when facing life choices	3.76	1.40
42. My life plans tend to change whenever I talk to different people	3.06	1.57
45. Who I am changes from situation to situation	3.18	1.53
48. When personal problems arise, I try to delay acting as long as possible	2.80	1.50

Responses were on a Likert scale of 1=Not at all like me, 2=Unlike me, 3=Neither like me, 4=Like me and 5=very much like me

In the diffuse-avoidant scale, the highest mean and standard deviation score ($M=3.76, SD=1.40$) was for item 39, *I find that my emotions and feelings are the best guide when facing life choices*. The participants had the least score ($M=1.79, SD=1.30$) for item 16, *I am*

not really thinking about my future now, it is still a long way off. This indicated that the response was not at all like them.

Table 5.5: Means and SD for Commitment. Subscale (n=194)

Item	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. I know basically what I believe and do not believe	4.32	1.13
5. I know what I want to do with my future	4.45	1.05
9. I am not really sure what I believe	2.10	1.46
13. I am not sure which values I really hold	2.35	1.44
17. I am not sure what I want to do in the future	2.02	1.44
21. I have clear and definite life goals	3.89	1.32
25. I am not sure what I want out of life	1.91	1.37
29. I have a definite set of values that I use to make personal decisions	3.35	1.45
33. I am emotionally involved and committed to specific values and ideals	3.55	1.37

Responses were on a Likert scale of 1=Not at all like me, 2=Unlike me, 3=Neither like me, 4=Like me and 5=very much like me

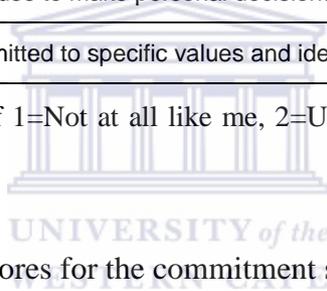


Table 5.5: shows that the mean scores for the commitment scale ranged from 1-4. The highest commitment mean and standard deviation scores ($M=4.45$, $SD=1.05$) was for item 5, *I know what I want to do with my future*. The lowest score ($M=1.91$, $SD=1.37$) was for item 25, *I am not sure what I want out of life*, of which participants suggested that it is not at all like them.

Table 5.6: Overall Means and SD for Identity Styles Subscales (n=194)

Identity Style	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Informational	1.62	5.00	3.64	.62
Normative	1.85	4.54	3.15	.54
Diffuse-avoidant	1.69	4.38	2.98	.48
Commitment	1.89	4.56	3.74	.49

Table 5.6: indicates that the most prevalent identity style across the sample (n=194) is the informational identity style with mean and standard deviation ($M=3.64$, $SD=.62$). This was

followed by the normative identity style with scores ($M=3.15$, $SD=.54$). The participants scored low for the diffuse-avoidant style. The results also show that the participants scored mean and standard deviation ($M=3.10$, $SD=1.34$) regarding commitment and this is the subscale that had the highest scores.

5.6. Parenting Styles (Mothers and Fathers)

Tables 5.7: to 5.9: present the means and standard deviation scores for both mothers' and fathers' parenting styles. The subscales are authoritative parenting style, authoritarian parenting style and the permissive parenting style. The authoritative parenting style is categorized according to the dimensions of connection (warmth and support), regulation (reasoning/ induction) and autonomy granting (democratic participation). Each dimension has 5 items. The authoritarian parenting style consists of the physical coercion dimension, verbal hostility dimension and non-reasoning/ punitive dimension. Each dimension has 4 items. The tables show the permissive parenting style according to the indulgent dimension. The subscale is made up of 5 items. The table also presents the dimension score for each parenting style, as well as the overall parenting style scores for mothers and fathers.

Table 5.7: Means and SD of items for Authoritative Parenting Style

Authoritative parenting: Items	Mothers	Fathers
CONNECTION DIMENSION (WARMTH AND SUPPORT)		
7. Encouraged me to talk about my troubles.	3.50 (1.57)	3.38 (1.67)
1. Responsive to my feelings or needs.	3.82 (1.37)	3.64 (1.46)
12. Gave comfort and understanding when I was upset.	3.31 (1.53)	3.25 (1.62)
14. Gave praise when I was good.	4.06 (1.37)	3.99 (1.44)
27. Had warm and intimate times together with me.	3.33 (1.52)	3.07 (1.55)
REGULATION DIMENSION (REASONING/INDUCTION)		
25. Gave me reasons why rules should be obeyed.	3.99 (1.41)	3.91 (1.48)

29. Helped me to understand the impact of my behaviour by encouraging me to talk about the consequences of my own actions.	3.59 (1.45)	3.26 (1.53)
31. Explained the consequences of my behaviour.	3.99 (1.31)	3.76 (1.37)
11. Emphasized the reasons for rules.	3.69 (1.51)	3.64 (1.55)
5. Explained to me how she/he felt about my good and bad behaviour	3.97 (1.32)	3.79 (1.41)
AUTONOMY GRANTING DIMENSION (DEMOCRATIC PARTICIPATION)		
21. Showed respect for my opinions by encouraging me to express them.	3.63 (1.48)	3.61 (2.35)
22. Allowed me to give input into family rules.	2.98 (1.58)	3.14 (1.66)
18. Took into account my preference in making plans for the family.	3.02 (1.53)	3.10 (1.59)
9. Encouraged me to freely express myself even when I disagreed with her/him.	3.19 (1.69)	3.08 (1.74)
3. Considered my desires before asking me to do something.	2.74 (1.30)	2.74 (1.36)

Responses were on a Likert scale of 1 = Never to 5 = Always

Table 5.7: indicates that within the connection dimension, the majority of participants ($M = 4.06$, $SD = 1.37$) perceived their mothers to be giving praise when they are good. Other items within the dimension were scored around the mean of 3, showing that the mothers employed the parenting style about half of the time. As for the regulation dimension, the items 25 and 31, *gave me reasons why rules should be obeyed and explained the consequences of my behavior* scored the highest mean and standard deviation scores of ($M = 3.99$, $SD = 1.41$) and ($M = 3.99$, $SD = 1.31$) respectively. They were closely followed by item 5, *explained to me how she felt about my good and bad behavior* with a score of ($M = 3.97$, $SD = 1.32$). Within the autonomy granting dimension, the highest mean and standard deviation scores ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 1.48$) was for participants who perceived their mothers to be showing respect for their opinions by encouraging them to express themselves. The least scores ($M = 2.74$, $SD = 1.30$) was for item 3, *took my desires into account before asking me to do something*.

Relating to fathers, Table 5.7: indicates that within all dimensions of the authoritative parenting style, the participants had mean scores of around 3 for all the 15 items. As for the connection dimension, the highest mean and standard deviation scores ($M = 3.99$, $SD = 1.44$)

was when participants perceived their fathers to be giving them praise when they were good. The least score in the dimension ($M=3.07$, $SD=1.55$) was for item 27, *had warm and intimate times with me*. For regulation dimension (reasoning/induction), item 25, *gave reasons why rules should be obeyed* had the highest mean and standard deviation scores of ($M=3.91$, $SD=1.48$). Participants perceived their fathers to be employing the least regarding regulation dimension for item 29, *helped me to understand the impact of my behaviour by encouraging me to talk about the consequences of my own actions*. Within the autonomy granting dimension (democratic participation), majority of participants ($M=3.61$, $SD=2.35$) perceived their fathers to be showing respect for their opinions by encouraging them to express themselves.

Table 5.8: Means and SD of items for Authoritarian Parenting Style (Mothers and Fathers)

Authoritarian parenting: Items	Mothers	Fathers
PHYSICAL COERCION DIMENSION		
2. My mother/father used physical punishment as a way of disciplining me.	2.18 (1.33)	1.81 (1.26)
6. My mother/father spanked me when I was disobedient.	2.22 (1.41)	1.96 (1.35)
19. My mother/father grabbed me when I was being disobedient.	2.17 (1.48)	1.90 (1.36)
32. My mother/father slapped me when I misbehaved.	1.94 (1.43)	1.67 (1.21)
VERBAL HOSTILITY DIMENSION		
16. My mother/father exploded in anger towards me.	2.64 (1.50)	2.42 (1.45)
13. My mother/father yelled or shouted when I misbehaved.	3.51 (1.58)	3.26 (1.62)
23. My mother/father scolded or criticized me to make me improve.	2.98 (1.62)	2.94 (1.63)
30. My mother/father scolded or criticized me when my behavior didn't meet her expectations.	3.07 (1.58)	2.87 (1.56)
NON-REASONING/PUNITIVE DIMENSION		
10. My mother/father punished me by taking privileges away from me with little if any explanation.	2.27 (1.48)	2.21 (1.48)
26. My mother/father used threats as punishment with little or no justification.	2.38 (1.55)	2.14 (1.48)

28. My mother/father punished me by putting me off somewhere alone with little if any explanation.	1.59 (1.15)	1.58 (1.19)
4. When I asked why I had to conform, she/he stated: "Because I said so", or "I am your parent and I want you to."	2.75 (1.49)	2.39 (1.40)

Responses were on a Likert scale of 1 = Never to 5 = Always

Table 5.8: shows that the majority of participants ($M=2.22$, $SD=1.41$) perceived their mothers to be employing item 6, *spanked me when I was disobedient*. Relating to the verbal hostility dimension, participants scored higher ($M=3.51$, $SD=1.58$) for item 13, *yelled or shouted when I misbehaved*. Item 16, *exploded in anger towards me*, had the least score in the dimension ($M=2.64$, $SD=1.50$). For the non-reasoning/punitive dimension, the majority of participants ($M=2.75$, $SD= 1.49$) scored higher for item 4, *when I asked why I had to confirm, she stated: because I said so, or I am your parent and I want you to*.

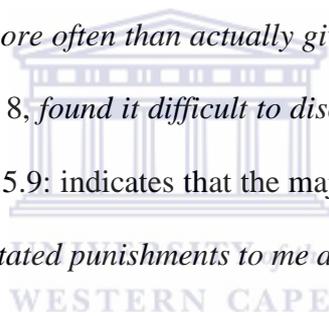
As for fathers, Table 5.8 shows that the highest score in the physical coercion dimension was for item 6, *spanked me when I was disobedient* ($M=1.96$, $SD=1.35$). The participants scored highest ($M=3.26$, $SD=1.62$) for item 13, *yelled or shouted when I misbehaved* in the verbal hostility dimension. Other items did not have a large variation in terms of the mean scores. For the non-reasoning/punitive dimension, the majority of participants ($M=2.39$, $SD=1.40$) perceived their fathers to be practicing item 4, *when I asked why I had to confirm, he stated: because I said so, or I am your parent and I want you too*. Item 28, *punished me by putting me off somewhere alone with little if any explanations* had the least scores of ($M=1.58$, $SD=1.19$).

Table 5.9: Means and SD of items for Permissive Parenting Style (Mothers & Fathers)

Permissive parenting: Items	Mothers	Fathers
INDULGENT DIMENSION		
20. Stated punishments to me and did not actually do them	2.70 (1.59)	2.87 (1.60)
24. Spoiled me.	2.46 (1.41)	2.47 (1.53)
8. Found it difficult to discipline me.	2.19 (1.99)	2.28 (1.63)
15. Gave in to me when I caused a commotion about something.	2.71 (1.37)	2.67 (1.38)
17. Threatened me with punishment more often than actually giving it.	2.73 (1.59)	2.61 (1.66)

Responses were on a Likert scale of 1 = Never to 5 = Always

Table 5.9: indicates that the participants' mothers' permissive parenting style items were scored within the mean range of 2. The highest score ($M=2.73$, $SD=1.59$) was for item 17, *threatened me with punishment more often than actually giving it*. The participants scored the least ($M=2.19$, $SD=1.99$) for item 8, *found it difficult to discipline me*. Relating to the fathers' permissive parenting style, Table 5.9: indicates that the majority of participants scored higher ($M=2.87$, $SD=1.60$) for item 20, *stated punishments to me and did not actually do them*.



5.7. Overall Mothers and Fathers Parenting Styles

Tables 5.10:, 5.11: and 5.12: show a summary of the mothers' and fathers' parenting styles. It presents the means and standard deviations scores of the dimensions of each parenting style for both mothers and fathers, as well as the overall scores for each parenting style.

Table 5.10: Means and SD of Total Scores for Authoritative Parenting Style. Subscale

Variables	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>Min</i>	<i>Max</i>	<i>SD</i>
MAUTIVE	181	3.52	1.33	5.00	.81
FAUTIVE	135	3.42	1.00	4.93	.85
MCONNECT	181	3.61	1.00	5.00	1.04
FCONNECT	135	3.47	1.00	5.00	1.09
MREG	181	3.85	1.00	5.00	.96

FREG	135	3.67	1.00	5.00	.99
MAUTGRNT	181	3.11	1.00	5.00	.93
FAUTGRNT	135	3.13	1.00	7.40	1.06

Table 5.10: indicates that, within the authoritative parenting style, the connection dimension mean and standard deviation scores for mothers were ($M=3.61$, $SD=1.04$). The participants perceived their mothers to be warm and offering them support, compared to their fathers, who scored ($M=3.47$, $SD=1.09$) in the same dimension. The participants also scored higher ($M=3.85$, $SD=.96$) for the mothers' regulation dimension than fathers'. The majority of participants ($M=3.13$, $SD=1.06$), perceived their fathers to be more autonomy granting than the mothers. The results, however, do not have a large variation in the mean scores. For the overall authoritative parenting style, mothers scored higher than fathers with scores of ($M=3.52$, $SD=.81$).

Table 5.11: Means and SD of Total Scores for Authoritarian Parenting Style Subscale

Variables	N	M	Min	Max	SD
MTARIAN	181	2.47	1.08	4.92	.84
FTARIAN	135	2.26	1.00	4.50	.73
MPHYSCOERC	181	2.13	1.00	5.00	1.08
FPHYSCOERC	135	1.83	1.00	4.50	.86
MVERBHOST	181	3.05	1.00	5.00	1.09
FVERBHOST	135	2.87	1.00	5.00	1.08
MPUNITIVE	181	2.24	1.00	4.75	.93
FPUNITIVE	135	2.08	1.00	5.00	.85

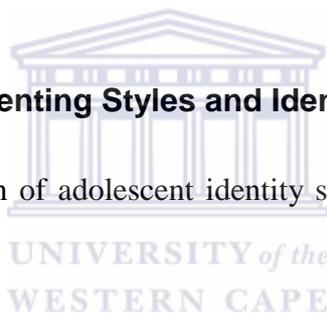
Relating to authoritarian parenting style, Table 5.11: shows that mothers scored higher ($M=2.13$, $SD=1.08$) on the dimension of physical coercion. This suggested that the mothers use more physical punishment than the fathers. The mothers also scored higher ($M=3.05$, $SD=1.09$) on verbal hostility dimension than fathers. The majority of participants ($M=2.24$,

$SD=.93$) also perceived their mothers to be employing the non-reasoning/ punitive dimension. For overall authoritarian parenting style, mothers also scored higher ($M=2.47, SD=.84$).

Table 5.12: Means and SD of Total Scores for Permissive Parenting Style Subscale

Variables	N	M	Min	Max	SD
MPERMISS (Indulgent)	181	2.56	1.00	5.60	.83
FPERMISS (Indulgent)	135	2.58	1.00	5.00	.80

Table 5.12: shows that the fathers' permissive parenting style score was slightly higher than the mothers. The fathers mean and standard deviation scores was ($M=2.58, SD=.80$) while for the mothers was ($M=2.56, SD=.83$).



5.8. Correlation between Parenting Styles and Identity Styles

Table 5.13: shows the correlation of adolescent identity styles and parenting styles of both mothers and fathers.

Table 5.13: Correlation between Parenting Styles and Identity Styles

Parenting styles	Informational	Normative	Diffuse-avoidant	Commitment
MAUTIVE	.23**	.18*	.01	.13
FAUTIVE	.34**	.29**	.05	.21*
MTARIAN	-.07	-.01	.21**	-.03
FTARIAN	-.04	-.05	.20*	.01
MPERMISS	.19*	.10	.13	.06
FPERMISS	.03	-.06	-.03	.07

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

The results in Table 5.13: indicate significant relationships between parenting styles and identity styles. For mothers, a significantly positive relationship was established between authoritative parenting and informational identity style ($r = .23^{**}, p = <0.01$). The mothers'

authoritative parenting style also related with normative identity style ($r = .18^*$, $p = <0.05$). The fathers' authoritative parenting style was significantly related with the information identity style ($r = .34^{**}$, $p = <0.01$) and normative identity style ($r = .29^{**}$, $p = <0.01$). Furthermore, the fathers' authoritative parenting style was related to commitment ($r = .21^*$, $p = <0.05$). The mothers authoritarian parenting style had a significant positive relationship with diffuse-avoidant identity style ($r = .21^{**}$, $p = <0.01$). The fathers' authoritarian parenting style also had a positive relationship with diffuse-avoidant identity style ($r = .20^*$, $p = <0.05$). The mothers permissive parenting style had a positive relationship with information oriented style ($r = .19^*$, $p = <0.05$).

5.9. A comparison of Identity Styles within the structure of the family

Table 5.14: shows the comparison of adolescent identity styles between one and two-parent families to determine if there is a significant difference in the variables.

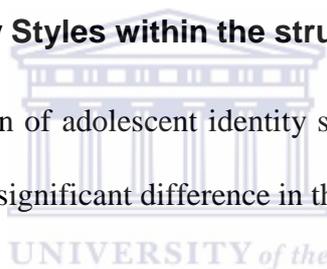


Table 5.14: Group differences: Identity styles and family structure of adolescents (One-parent family in parenthesis)

Variables	N	M	SD	SE	df	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
INFORMATION	119 (69)	3.67 (3.66)	0.59 (0.61)	0.05 (0.07)	0.01	0.11	0.92
NORMATIVE	119 (69)	3.16 (3.15)	0.55 (0.53)	0.05 (0.06)	0.01	0.17	0.87
DIFFUSE	119 (69)	3.02 (2.88)	0.45 (0.52)	0.04 (0.06)	0.13	1.82	0.07
COMMITMENT	119 (69)	3.50 (3.47)	0.49 (0.45)	0.05 (0.05)	0.03	0.41	0.68

Table 5.14: shows that there was no significant difference between adolescent identity styles in one and two-parent families. The significance values for all the identity style subscales had significance values greater than 0.05.

5.10. Comparing Parenting Styles between One and Two-Parent Families

Table 5.15: shows the comparison of mothers' and fathers' parenting styles between one and two-parent family structures to determine if there is a significant difference in the variables.

Table 5.15: Group differences: Parenting styles and family structure of adolescents (One parent family in parenthesis)

Parenting Styles	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>
MAUTIVE	119 (56)	3.61 (3.36)	.72 (.99)	.07 (.13)	.25	1.88	.06
FAUTIVE	117 (18)	3.45 (3.13)	.81 (1.07)	.08 (.25)	.34	1.56	.12
MTARIAN	119 (56)	2.49 (2.41)	.85 (.84)	.08 (.11)	.09	.63	.53
FTARIAN	117 (18)	2.26 (2.27)	.74 (.61)	.07 (.14)	-.01	-.05	.96
MPERMISS	119 (56)	2.60 (2.48)	.86 (.80)	.08 (.11)	.12	.88	.38
FPERMISS	117 (18)	2.57 (2.64)	.79 (.86)	.07 (.20)	-.08	-.37	.71

Results in Table 5.15: show that the way adolescents perceived the parenting styles of their mothers and fathers was not significantly different between one and two-parent families. The parenting style subscales for mothers and fathers had significance values greater than 0.05.

5.11. Correlation of Parenting and Identity Styles between One and Two-Parent Families

Table 5.16: presents correlation results between identity styles and parenting styles in one and two-parent families. The results are presented in terms of Pearson correlation scores.

Table 5.16: Correlations between Parenting Styles and Identity Styles in One and Two Parent Families (One parent family in parenthesis)

Parenting styles	Informational	Normative	Diffuse-avoidant	Commitment
MAUTIVE	.33** (.11)	.31** (-.02)	-.04 (.07)	.11 (.18)
FAUTIVE	.31** (.43)	.29** (.32)	-.04 (.38)	.23* (.04)
MTARIAN	-.10 (.03)	-.07 (.16)	.23 (.13)	.01 (-.13)
FTARIAN	-.07 (.18)	-.06 (.05)	.18 (.38)	.02 (-.15)
MPERMISS	.18 (.18)	.06 (.21)	.07 (.22)	.10 (-.09)
FPERMISS	.05 (-.10)	-.03 (-.19)	-.05 (.08)	.11 (-.30)

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Table 5.16: indicates that in a two-parent family, only the mothers' and fathers' authoritative parenting styles were related to identity styles. The mothers' authoritative parenting style was shown to be significantly positively related to informational identity style ($r = .33^{**}$, $p = <0.01$) and normative identity style ($r = .31^{**}$, $p = <0.01$). The fathers' authoritative style was also significantly positively related to informational identity style ($r = .31^{**}$, $p = <0.01$) and normative identity style ($r = .29^{**}$, $p = <0.01$). Furthermore, it was also related to commitment ($r = .23^*$, $p = <0.05$). In a one-parent family, all parenting styles had no relationship with identity styles.

5.12. Summary of Findings

The results from the sample ($n = 194$) had shown that the most prevalent identity style was the informational identity style, followed by the normative identity style with the least prevalent being the diffuse-avoidant identity style. As for parenting styles, it was established that both mothers and fathers employed authoritative parenting styles mostly, but mothers were more nurturing, supportive and warm, than fathers. The second prevailing parenting style was permissive, and the findings revealed that fathers were slightly more indulgent than mothers. The mothers and fathers practiced less of the authoritarian parenting style, but mothers were perceived by adolescents to do more physical punishing, scolding and yelling. The results indicated that there was a relationship between most of the mothers' and fathers' parenting styles and identity styles. Regarding to the prediction of variables, it was established that mothers' and fathers' parenting styles only predicted the informational identity style and commitment. When comparing the results across family structure, it was discovered that there was no significant difference in adolescent identity styles in one and two parent-families. Furthermore, there was also no significant difference between the mothers' and fathers' parenting styles in one and two-parent families. As for correlation, both the mothers' and fathers' authoritative parenting styles in a two-parent family were correlated with identity styles. In a one-parent family, all parenting styles had no correlation with identity styles. The next chapter discusses the findings of the study, outlines the limitations, and presents the recommendations, as well as the conclusion of the study.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

In this last chapter, the results of the study about the relationship between adolescent identity styles and parenting styles in one and two-parent families will be discussed. With the discussion of the findings, the previous chapters will be revisited and integrated into the findings. The research questions, objectives and hypotheses of the study, which were first introduced in Chapter One, will be re-examined to establish whether they were answered and met. The conceptual framework will be linked to the findings of the study. The findings will be compared and contrasted to previous studies presented in the literature review. This chapter also discusses the limitations, encountered during the study, the recommendations made, as well as the conclusion of the study.

6.2. Overview of Research Questions, Aim, Objectives and Hypotheses

6.2.1. Research Questions

This study intended to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there a significant difference in the relationship between parenting styles and identity styles in one and two-parent families in Botswana?
2. Do parenting styles in one and two-parent families affect adolescents' identity styles?

6.2.2. Aim and Objectives

Aim

The study aimed to compare the relationship between parenting styles and identity styles of adolescents living in one and two-parent families in Botswana.

Objectives

The objectives of the study were to:

1. Establish the identity styles of adolescents living in one and two-parent families in Botswana.
2. Determine adolescents' perceptions of their parents' parenting styles in one and two-parent families in Botswana.
3. Examine the relationship between perceived parenting styles and adolescent identity styles in one and two-parent families in Botswana.
4. Compare the relationship between perceived parenting styles and adolescent identity styles in one and two-parent families in Botswana.

6.2.3. Hypotheses

The hypotheses of this study were formulated in Chapter one as follows:

1. There will be a significant relationship between parenting styles and identity styles.
2. There will be a significant difference in the relationship between parenting styles and identity styles in one and two parent family

The findings of the study that were outlined in Chapter 5 are in line with both hypotheses. The study highlighted a significant relationship between parenting styles and identity styles. Almost all variables of mothers and fathers parenting styles were significantly related to identity styles. Fathers' permissive parenting style was the only variable that did not have a relationship with any of the identity style variables. The

study also showed that there is a significant difference in the relationship between parenting styles and identity styles in one and two-parent family. The only distinction, however, was found in a two-parent family, where both the mothers and fathers authoritative parenting styles were found to be significantly related to identity styles.

6.3. Adolescent Identity Styles

An identity style is an important construct in adolescent development. As conceptualized in Erikson's (1968) theory, adolescence is the period during which an individual develops a sense of identity. A profusion of studies about identity styles has been conducted, linking it to some indices of well-being, such as psychological well-being (Vleioras & Bosma, 2005; Phillips & Pittman, 2007), coping strategies (Berzonsky, 1992), cognitive processes (Berzonsky, 2008) and value orientations (Berzonsky, Cieciuch, Duriez & Soenens, 2011). Some studies explored the idea that individual differences in identity styles are at least partly rooted in underlying differences in personality (Dolinger, 1995; Duriez, Soenens & Beyers, 2004). Nonetheless, little research devoted attention to potential determinants of identity styles (Smits et al., 2008). As such, this study intended to investigate how parenting styles could influence differences in adolescent identity styles. Several studies have shown that the formation of a carefully constructed identity is related to mental soundness and general well-being (Sroufe, 2005; Waterman, 2007; Berman, Weems & Stickle, 2006). These identity styles, discussed in detail, in previous chapters, are the informational, normative and diffuse-avoidant styles. Previous research has revealed that each style is characterized by a specific pattern of psychosocial and social-cognitive correlates and consequences (Soenens, Duriez & Goossens, 2005).

As the first objective intended to establish the identity styles of adolescents living in one and two-parent families, the findings revealed that adolescents had differences in choosing an identity styles. However, the majority of participants reported choosing the informational identity style to construct a sense of identity, which meant thoroughly exploring, assessing and evaluating self-relevant information. This choice was followed by normative and then diffuse-avoidant style. This study's findings contradict those of Seabi's (2009) South African study, which highlighted that most University students were classified as normative, then diffuse-avoidant and lastly informational oriented. The results were expected for the current study because most residents of Gaborone, being the city, may have adopted the individualistic orientation to life, which might form the basis for the socialization of children. As such, the children may place more emphasis on personal self attributes in their approach to identity relevant information. When these adolescents were categorized by family structure, the results indicated that there is no significant difference between adolescent identity styles in one and two-parent families. This finding might be attributed to certain factors. Some studies, for instance, Bramlett and Blumberg (2007) and Gennetian (2005) suggest that differences between children in single parent families and those raised by two parents are mainly due to economic factors and when family income is controlled, family structure has no effect on child outcomes and well-being. This also links well to this study as it had more employed parents across one and two-parent families.

6.4. Parenting Styles

Adolescents' perceptions of their parents parenting styles were also investigated. Parents are significant to adolescent identity development. As was discussed in the theoretical framework chapter, Erikson (1968) stated that adolescents initially identify with important socialization figures, such as parents. Parents play an important role in adolescent development in

recognizing, supporting and, therefore, helping to shape their identity (Erikson, 1968). Spera (2005) also indicated that parents play a crucial role in socializing and shaping adolescents values and belief systems. This socialization process occurs within the parent-child relationship and through the parenting style of the parents (Akinsola, 2011).

The results of this study indicated that the most prevalent parenting style was authoritative. Mothers, however, were found to be more authoritative than fathers. This could be related to the study by Olivari et al. (2015), in Sweden, Italy and Greece, that found that across the countries, authoritative was the most frequently adopted parenting style by both mothers and fathers. However, adolescents perceived their mothers to be more authoritative than fathers. McKinney and Renk (2008a) also showed that mothers were practicing more authoritative parenting than fathers. The results for the current study are also consistent with South African study by Roman et al. (2015), which showed that an authoritative parenting style was the most prevalent parenting style, with mothers being perceived more positively than fathers. Mothers' supportive attitude, nurturing nature and provision of warmth to children were expected. It appears that, in most societies, mothers spend more time with children than fathers (Ang, 2006; McKinney & Renk, 2008a; Phares, Fields & Kamboukos, 2009). In addition, mothers are expected to spend more time caring for children and showing affection, while fathers are expected to be providers and disciplinarians (McKinney & Renk, 2008a).

However, contradicting results are for the authoritarian parenting style as the study of McKinney and Renk (2008a) scored higher on fathers' authoritarian parenting styles, while this current study scored higher for mothers' authoritarian parenting style than fathers. Fathers scored slightly higher than mothers on permissive parenting, contrary to McKinney and Renk's (2008a) study, where fathers scored lower than mothers.

The differences in parenting styles between one and two-parent families were also investigated. It was interesting to note that a number of studies about parenting styles and family structure concentrated on married parents (Roman, 2011; Avinson, Ali & Walters, 2007). Although this study did not only include married parents, the results can be linked to these African studies (Roman, 2011; Avinson, Ali & Walters, 2007; Greitemeyer, 2009; Ashiono & Mwoma, 2015). The results yielded by this study indicated that there is no significant difference in parenting styles between one and two-parent families. The following studies concur and found that there was no significant difference between parenting styles of single and married mothers (Roman, 2011; Avinson, Ali & Walters, 2007; Greitemeyer, 2009; Ashiono & Mwoma, 2015).

6.5. Relationship between Parenting Styles and Identity Styles

One objective of this study was to examine the relationship between perceived parenting styles and adolescent identity styles in one and two-parent families. The findings support the view that parenting styles are related to differences in adolescents' choices of identity styles. The findings in this study indicate that mothers and fathers authoritative parenting styles were strongly correlated with the informational identity style. This is consistent with the results from the studies of Berzonsky, Branje and Meeus (2007) and Berzonsky (2004b) that reported a relationship between authoritative parenting styles and an informational identity style. This current study also indicated a relationship between mothers and fathers authoritarian parenting styles and the diffuse-avoidant identity style. On the contrary, Berzonsky (2004b) linked authoritarian parenting style to a normative identity style. Mothers' permissive parenting style had a positive correlation with the informational identity style in the current study, which is not consistent with Berzonsky (2004b), as he reported that permissive parenting was related to diffuse-avoidant style.

Parenting styles are also determined by the dimensions of support, behavioural control and psychological control. Smits et al. (2008) conducted a study about these perceived parenting dimensions and identity styles among middle and late adolescents. Their findings revealed that the informational identity style was positively predicted by perceived parental support (that is authoritative parenting). This supports Berzonsky's (2004) results, but is not consistent with those of this current study, as there was no prediction relationship between authoritative parenting and the informational identity style. In their study, an informational identity style was also positively predicted by perceived parental psychological control (that is, authoritarian parenting), suggesting that psychologically controlling parenting fosters an active search for identity alternatives in some adolescents. Smits et al. (2008) further revealed that the normative identity style was positively predicted by perceived supportive parenting, as well as perceived (maternal) behavioural control. On the contrary, maternal permissive parenting only predicted the informational style in this current study. Across parental gender-positive associations were found between perceived psychological control and the diffuse-avoidant identity style (Smits et al., 2008). The current study's findings are similar to the results of Berzonsky (2004).

The family structure was also shown to have a significant difference in the relationship between identity styles and parenting styles in one and two-parent family. However, the two-parent family was the only structure that had a linkage to identity styles. Mothers' and fathers' authoritative parenting had a strong positive correlation with both the informational and normative identity styles. These findings may be linked to factors such as family functioning. Karimi's (2010) study revealed that there is a significant relationship between family functioning and identity styles. Clark, Barrett and Kolvin, (2000) and Yeung and Chan (2010) reported significantly lower levels of family functioning in single-parents households,

compared with intact two-parent households. The current study also found that the fathers' authoritative parenting style in the two-parent family was also correlated with commitment. This may suggest the important role of fathers in the way fathers' authoritative parenting contributes to the extent of adolescents' adherence to identity relevant choices. This finding may be linked to Karimi's (2010) study that found a significant and positive relationship between the family functioning and identity commitment in a two-parent family. Although this current study's results yielded a significant difference in the relationship between identity styles and parenting styles in a two-parent family, a study by Davids, Roman and Leach, (2015), in rural South Africa, suggests that there was no significant main effects of family structure on perceived parenting styles, decision-making styles and healthy lifestyle behaviours.



6.6. Limitations of the Study

This study was not without challenges and the following were encountered;

1. There was a high dropout rate which reduced the sample size. One school that was randomly selected did not grant permission to collect data from learners. Even those schools that granted permission limited the number of classes for data collection. As a result, the sample size was reduced, which affected the generalizability of the findings to the whole population. The other challenge faced at the schools was adjusting to each school's curriculum. Some schools were having examinations at the time and others had some other engagements on the day that was allocated for data collection.
2. The questionnaire was a bit lengthy with identity style inventory having 48 items and parenting style and questionnaire having 32 items. Some learners expressed a lack of patience, which may suggest that some items might have been rushed through.

3. The study sample consisted of a majority of females, since most classes had more female students than males. This might have influenced the perceived parenting styles as previous research has indicated that females and males relate to their parents differently.

6.7. Recommendations

A suggested recommendation is for further research studies to be conducted on adolescent identity styles, parenting styles and family structure. The information about family structure in this current study was insufficient to refer to and empirical evidence has revealed that research relating to the determinants of the differences in identity styles, is still lacking. Further studies should also be conducted, especially around areas of parenting across different family structures, as new family forms are emerging. Future research should also focus on two-parent families, and not only married parents, as a way of acknowledging family dynamics.

Another recommendation is that further studies should also investigate variations in parenting practices, as a result of environmental and economic factors. For instance, this study was conducted in Gaborone, which is a city and attracts people seeking employment opportunities. This was evident from the number of employed parents in the demographic questionnaire. In the future, this study could be replicated in villages to establish parenting styles, where single parents normally have a low economic basis. Furthermore, in the Botswana context, the extended family structure is still prevalent in the villages. Adolescents have different interactions with family members and further research should be conducted to determine how multiple interactions within a family shape a child's life.

This study has indicated the benefits of effective parenting styles; therefore, another recommendation is that parenting programmes be enacted and training offered to sensitize parents about effective parenting practices.

6.8. Conclusion

This study investigated the relationship between adolescent identity styles and parenting styles in one and two-parent families in Botswana. It revealed that these variables have a linkage and their relationships were compared between one and two-parent families. Family is the immediate and main unit in which the socialization of adolescents takes place, and the process influences adolescent development. Family is not static and different forms of families have emerged with some having two parents, while others only have one parent.

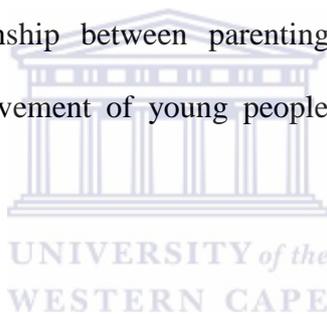
Family demographics have also changed drastically and marriage is no longer a basis for two-parent families. Further studies on adolescent development should, therefore, incorporate these factors. This study has revealed that adolescents have differences in the way they construct their identities which is influenced by parenting styles. The current study also yielded a significant difference in the relationship between identity styles and parenting styles in one and two-parent families. This suggests that family structure is crucial in adolescent development.

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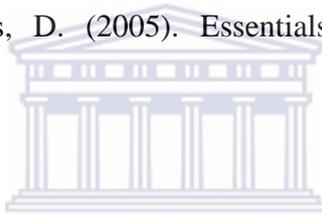
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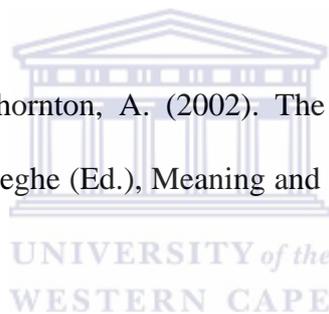
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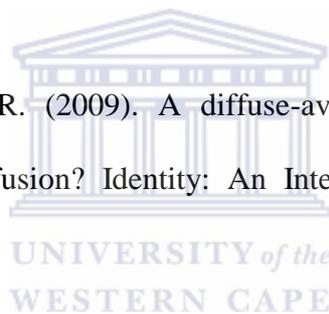
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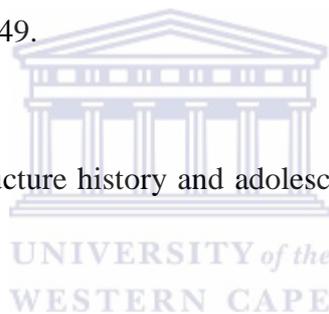
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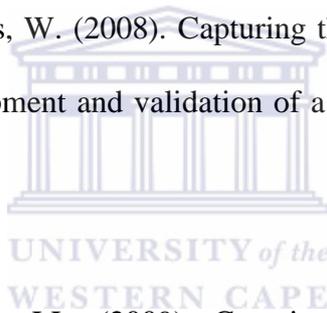
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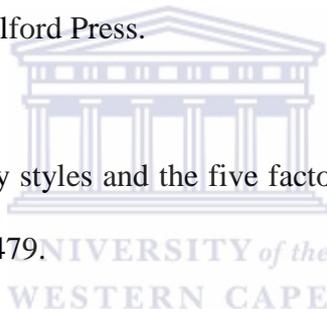
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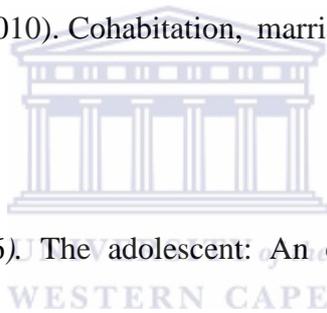
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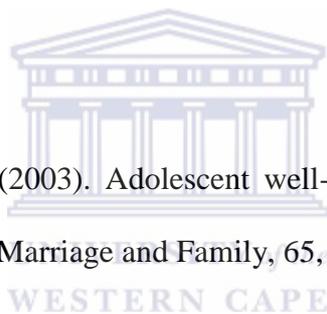
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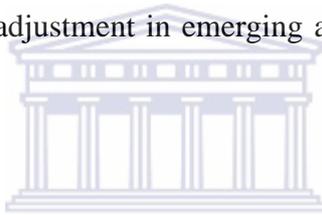
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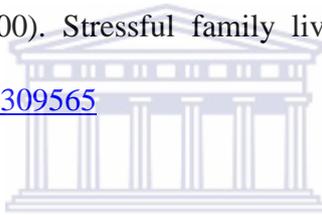
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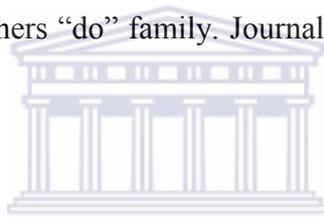
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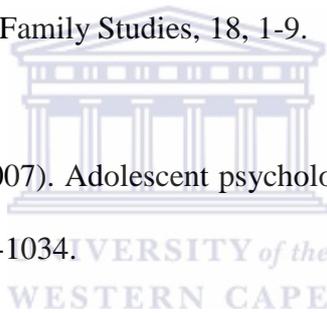
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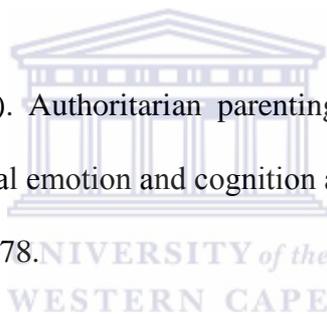
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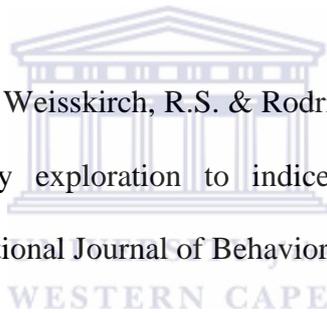
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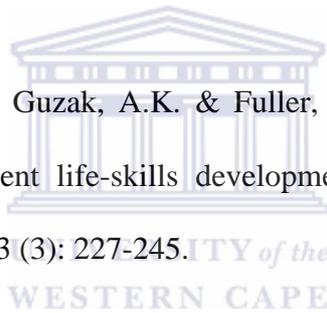
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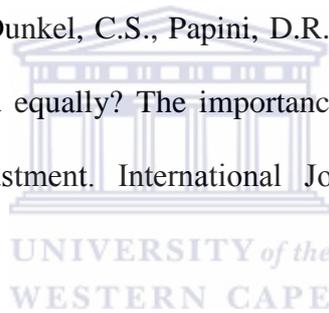
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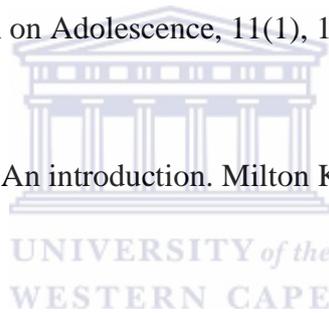
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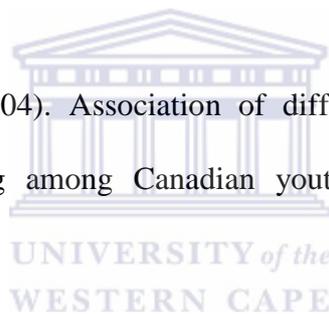
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APPENDICES

Appendix A



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Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
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INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title: The relationship between adolescent identity styles and parenting styles in one and two parent families in Botswana

What is this study about?

This is a research project being conducted by Leungo Sebangane, a post graduate Social Work student from the University of the Western Cape. I am inviting you to voluntarily participate in this research project as you are an adolescent living in either a one or two parent family structure. The aim of this research project is to compare the relationship between perceived parenting styles and adolescent identity styles living in one and two parent families in Botswana.

What will I be asked to do if I agree to participate?

You will be asked to participate in 3 questionnaires which are demographics questionnaire, identity style questionnaire as well as parenting styles and dimensions questionnaire. The demographics questionnaire will be used to obtain information regarding your age, gender, family structure and composition (e.g. parents, siblings and any other relative staying in the household) education level and employment status of your parents. The identity style questionnaire will assess the social cognitive strategies through which you process identity related information and parenting styles and dimensions questionnaire will assess perceived parenting styles that are employed by your parents. Administering of these questionnaires will be done by the researcher in a classroom setting within the school time. The exercise is expected to take at least 30 minutes.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?

Your personal information will be kept confidential. To help protect your confidentiality, your real name will not be required on the questionnaires. Pseudonyms will be used when reporting the study results. Your information will be absolutely anonymous and treated confidentially. A code number will be placed on the reports. The reports will be kept in a locked cabinet and only the interviewer and the research supervisor will have access to this information. The research findings will not include any personal details.

What are the risks of this research?

Some risks may be encountered from participating in this research study. Some items on the questionnaires might elicit personal experiences of dealing with issues such as death of a parent or parents' divorce which may have caused a transition to the family structure. Should that arise, the researcher will refer the participant for counselling services.

What are the benefits of this research?

The results of this study will help individuals, parents and guardians, service providers as well as policy makers. Adolescents will be made aware of the social cognitive strategies which they can utilize to make meaningful life choices. Parents and guardians will be sensitized about good parenting styles that may foster the way in which adolescents engage in identity formation issues. Service providers especially those working with adolescents may benefit from the study in terms of assessing identity styles and designing relevant intervention strategies. The study will also inform policies and programs formulation regarding effective parenting styles in both one and two parent family structures. This research will also add to current international knowledge regarding the relationship between adolescents' identity styles and parenting styles in one and two parent families.

Describe the anticipated benefits to science or society expected from the research, if any.

There are limited studies done on the relationship between adolescents' identity styles and parenting styles on the context of family structure. The data collected will provide valuable information about identity styles and parenting styles in one and two parent families. Hence, this research will yield results about the relationship between perceived parenting styles and adolescents' identity styles in one and two parent families.

Do I have to be in this research and may I stop participating at any time?

Your participation in this research is completely voluntary. You may choose not to participate at all. If you participate in this research and decide to stop at any time, you are allowed to do so. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be victimized or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.

Is any assistance available if I am negatively affected by participating in this study?

You will be referred to guidance and counselling unit for emotional support. If you wish to be seen for counselling outside the school premises, you will be given options and referred to other counselling services.

What if I have questions?

You may contact me at: 0798472033 / 00267 76072754 or leusbee@gmail.com or my supervisor **Prof Roman in the Social Work Department** at the University of the Western Cape. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Prof Roman at: Department of Social Work, tel. 021 959 2970, email: nroman@uwc.ac.za.

Should you have any questions regarding this study, the questionnaire and/ or your rights as a research participant or if you wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact:

Head of Department: **Prof. C. Schenck**

Dean of the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences: **Prof. J. Frantz**

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17

Bellville 7535

Tel: 021-959 2613

This research has been approved by the University of the Western Cape's Senate Research Committee and Ethics Committee.



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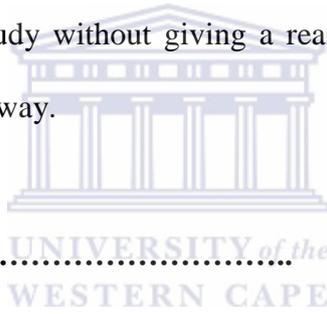
E-mail: nroman@uwc.ac.za

Appendix B

CONSENT FORM FOR PARENTS

Title of Research Project: The relationship between adolescent identity styles and parenting styles in one and two parent families in Botswana

The study has been described to me in a language that I understand and I freely and voluntarily agree to allow my child to participate in the study. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand that my child's identity will not be disclosed and that my child may withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time and this will not negatively affect my child in any way.



Parent's name.....

Parent's signature.....

Date.....

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact the study coordinator:

Study Coordinator's Name: Prof N Roman

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17, Bellville 753

Telephone: 021 959 2277/2970 Email: nroman@uwc.ac.za



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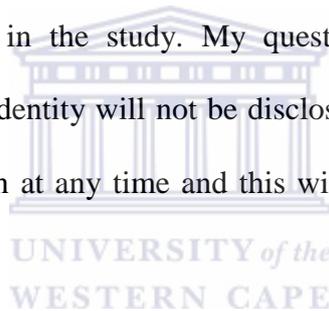
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Appendix C

CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

Title of Research Project: The relationship between adolescent identity styles and parenting styles in one and two parent families in Botswana

The study has been described to me in a language that I understand and I freely and voluntarily agree to participate in the study. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed and that I may withdraw from the study without giving a reason at any time and this will not negatively affect me in any way.



Participant's name.....

Participant's signature.....

Date.....

Should you have any questions regarding this study or wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact the study coordinator:

Study Coordinator's Name: Prof N Roman

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17, Bellville 753

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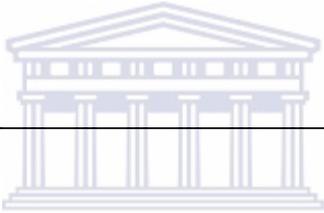
E-mail: nroman@uwc.ac.za

Appendix D

DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

Please complete the following by marking the correct response.

Gender	Male			Female		
Age						
Education level in Form	1					
	2					
	3					
Who is the head of your home?	Mother	Father	Grandparent	Uncle/Aunt	Sibling	
What is the structure of your family?	Parents married and staying together					
	Parents Married but separated					
	Parents living together but not married					
	Parent single, do not live together and are not married					
	Parent single because he / she is widowed					
	Parent single because he / she is divorced					
	Extended family					
	Only siblings					

Is there a biological father present in your home?	Yes		No	
Is there a stepfather present in your home?	Yes		No	
If there is a father present, is he:	Present but does not interact with the children	Present and interacts with the children	Absent but interacts with the children	Absent does not interact with the children
Is your parent(s) employed?	Yes		No	
If yes, what is the occupation?	Father			Mother

Appendix E

IDENTITY STYLE INVENTORY VERSION 4 QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions

You will find a number of statements about beliefs, attitudes, and/or ways of dealing with issues. Read each carefully and use it to describe yourself. On the answer sheet, select the number which indicates the extent to which you think the statement represents you. There are no right or wrong answers. For instance, if the statement is very much like you, mark a 5, if it is not like you at all, mark a 1. Use the 1 to 5 point scale to indicate the degree to which you think each statement is uncharacteristic (1) or characteristic (5) of yourself.

- 1=not at all like me
- 2=unlike me
- 3=neither like me
- 4=like me
- 5=very much like me

1. I know basically what I believe and don't believe.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
2. I intentionally think about what I want to do with my life.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
3. I automatically adopt and follow the values I was brought up with.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
4. I'm not sure where I'm heading in my life; I guess things will work themselves out.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
5. I know what I want to do with my future.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
6. Talking to others helps me explore my personal beliefs.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
7. I strive to achieve the goals that my family and friends hold for me.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
8. It doesn't pay to worry about values in advance; I decide things as they happen.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
9. I am not really sure what I believe.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
10. When facing a life decision, I take into account different points of view before making a choice.

- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
11. I have always known what I believe and don't believe; I never really have doubts about my beliefs.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
12. Many times, by not concerning myself with personal problems, they work themselves out.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
13. I am not sure which values I really hold.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
14. I spend a lot of time reading or talking to others trying to develop a set of values that makes sense to me.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
15. I never question what I want to do with my life because I tend to follow what important people expect me to do.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
16. I am not really thinking about my future now, it is still a long way off.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
17. I am not sure what I want to do in the future.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
18. When facing a life decision, I try to analyze the situation in order to understand it.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
19. I think it is better to adopt a firm set of beliefs than to be open-minded.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
20. When I have to make a decision, I try to wait as long as possible in order to see what will happen.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
21. I have clear and definite life goals.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
22. I find that personal problems often turn out to be interesting challenges.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
23. I think it's better not to question the advice of established professionals (e.g., clergy, doctors, lawyers) when making a personal decision.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
24. It's best for me not to take life too seriously: I just try to enjoy it.
- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
25. I am not sure what I want out of life.

- (NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
26. When making important decisions, I like to spend time thinking about my options.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
27. I think it's better to hold on to fixed values rather than to consider alternative value systems.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
28. I try not to think about or deal with problems as long as I can.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
29. Uncertainty about my values or life goals indicates that I need to actively seek out and evaluate relevant information.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
30. I rarely need to spend a lot of time reasoning about major life decisions; the choice I should make is quickly obvious to me.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
31. Who I am changes from situation to situation.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
32. It is important for me to obtain and evaluate information from a variety of sources before I make important life decisions.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
33. When personal problems arise, I automatically know what I should do.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
34. When personal problems arise, I try to delay acting as long as possible.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
35. I have a definite set of values that I use to make personal decisions.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
36. I handle problems in my life by actively reflecting on them.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
37. I prefer to deal with situations in which I can rely on social norms and standards.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
38. I try to avoid personal situations that require me to think a lot and deal with them on my own.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
39. I am emotionally involved and committed to specific values and ideals.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
40. When making important decisions, I like to have as much information as possible.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)

41. When I make a decision about my future, I automatically follow what close friends or relative expect from me.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
42. Sometimes I refuse to believe a problem will happen, and things manage to work themselves out.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
43. I periodically think about and examine the logical consistency between my values and life goals.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
44. When others say something that challenges my personal values or beliefs, I automatically disregard what they have to say.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
45. I find that my emotions and feelings are the best guide when facing life choices.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
46. When others say something that challenges my values or beliefs, I try to understand their point of view.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
47. Uncertainty about my values or life goals makes me anxious and nervous.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)
48. My life plans tend to change whenever I talk to different people.
(NOT AT ALL LIKE ME) 1 2 3 4 5 (VERY MUCH LIKE ME)

Appendix F

PARENTING STYLE AND DIMENSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

REMEMBER: Make two ratings for each item; (1) rate how often your mother[M] exhibited this behavior with you when you were a child and (2) how often your father[F] exhibited this behavior with you when you were a child.

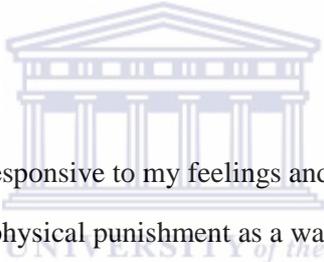
MY MOTHER EXHIBITED THIS BEHAVIOR:

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Once in a while
- 3 = About half of the time
- 4 = Very often
- 5 = Always

MY FATHER EXHIBITED THIS

- 1 = Never
- 2 = Once in a while
- 3 = About half of the time
- 4 = Very often
- 5 = Always

[M] [F]

- 
1. My parent was responsive to my feelings and needs.
 2. My parent used physical punishment as a way of disciplining me.
 3. My parent took my desires into account before asking me to do something.
 4. When I asked why I had to conform, [she stated] [he stated]: because I said so, or I am your parent and I want you to.
 5. My parent explained to me how she/he felt about my good and bad behavior.
 6. My parent spanked me when I was disobedient.
 7. My parent encouraged me to talk about my troubles.
 8. My parent found it difficult to discipline me.
 9. My parent encouraged me to freely express myself even when I disagreed with them.
 10. My parent punished me by taking privileges away from me with little if any explanations.
 11. My parent emphasized the reasons for rules.
 12. My parent gave comfort and understanding when I was upset.
 13. My parent yelled or shouted when I misbehaved.
 14. My parent praised me when I was good.

15. My parent gave into me when I caused a commotion about something.
16. My parent exploded in anger towards me.
17. My parent threatened me with punishment more often than actually giving it.
18. My parent took into account my preferences in making plans for the family.
19. My parent grabbed me when I was being disobedient.
20. My parent stated punishments to me and did not actually do them.
21. My parent showed respect for my opinions by encouraging me to express them.
22. My parent allowed me to give input into family rules.
23. My parent scolded or criticized me to make me improve.
24. My parent spoiled me.
25. My parent gave me reasons why rules should be obeyed.
26. My parent used threats as punishment with little or no justification.
27. My parent had warm and intimate times with me.
28. My parent punished by putting me off somewhere alone with little if any explanations.
29. My parent helped me to understand the impact of my behavior by encouraging me to talk about the consequences of my own actions.
30. My parent scolded or criticized me when my behavior didn't meet their expectations.
31. My parent explained the consequences of my behavior.
32. My parent slapped me when I misbehaved



UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

Appendix G

OFFICE OF THE DEAN DEPARTMENT OF RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT

18 December 2014

To Whom It May Concern

I hereby certify that the Senate Research Committee of the University of the Western Cape approved the methodology and ethics of the following research project by:

Ms L Sebangane (Social Work)

Research Project: The relationship between adolescent identity styles
and parenting in one and two parent families in
Botswana

Registration no: 14/10/51 APE

Any amendments, extension or other modifications to the protocol must be submitted to the Ethics Committee for approval.

The Committee must be informed of any serious adverse event and/or termination of the study.

*Ms Patricia Josias
Research Ethics Committee Officer
University of the Western Cape*

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A place of quality,
a place to grow, from hope
to action through knowledge

Appendix H

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REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
AND SKILLS DEVELOPMENT
PRIVATE BAG 005
GABORONE

REF: DEPRS 7/1/5 XVI (6)

15th January 2015

Leungo Sebangane
P O Box 198
Makaleng

Dear Madam

RE: APPLICATION FOR A RESEARCH PERMIT

This serves to grant you permission to conduct your study in the sampled MoESD junior secondary schools in Gaborone to address the following research objectives/questions /topic:

The relationship between adolescent identity styles and parenting styles in one and two parent families in Botswana.

It is of paramount importance to seek **Assent and Consent** from Regional Education Office, School Heads, Teachers, Students and Parents of selected Schools in Gaborone that you are going to collect data from. The Interviews/Administration of questionnaires to pupils should be done in the afternoon to avoid students missing lessons. We hope that you will conduct your study as stated in your proposal and that you will adhere to research ethics. Failure to comply with the above stated, will result in immediate termination of the research permit. The validity of the permit is from 19th January 2015 to 18th January 2016.

You are requested to submit a copy of your final report of the study to the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, in the Department of Educational Planning and Research Services, Botswana.

Yours faithfully

O A Mmereki
For/Permanent Secretary

Appendix I

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
AND SKILLS DEVELOPMENT

TELEPHONE: (267)
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Republic of Botswana

Director, Regional Operations
South East
Private Bag 00343
GABORONE
BOTSWANA

REF: 1/15/2 V (42)

2 February 2015

Leungo Sebangane
P. O. Box 198
Makaleng

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: REQUEST FOR A PERMIT TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

You are hereby granted permission to conduct research study at Nanogang JSS, Bokaoso JSS, Sire Seretse Khama JSS, Marang JSS and Gaborone West JSS.

By copy of this letter, the School Heads are requested to arrange and facilitate the carrying out of the requested research.

This permission is dependent on the School Management satisfying themselves that it is convenient and possible.

I look forward for a good relationship with the school and the region.

Yours faithfully

Daphney B. Moikabi

FOR DIRECTOR, SOUTH EAST REGION

Cc. School Heads



This Ministry supports the Vision 2016 in terms of creating "an educated and informed nation", "a prosperous, productive and innovative nation" and "an open, democratic and accountable nation"



Appendix J

22 October 2015

To whom it may concern

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: Editorial Certificate

This letter serves to prove that the thesis listed below was language edited for proper English, grammar, punctuation, spelling as well as overall layout and style by myself, publisher/proprietor of Aquarian Publications, a native English speaking editor.

Thesis title

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ADOLESCENT IDENTITY STYLES AND PARENTING STYLES IN ONE AND TWO PARENT FAMILIES IN BOTSWANA

Author

Leungo Sebangane

The research content or the author's intentions were not altered in any way during the editing process, however, the author has the authority to accept or reject my suggestions and changes.

Should you have any questions or concerns about this edited document, I can be contacted at the listed telephone and fax number, e-mail address or website.

Yours truly



E H Londt
Publisher/Proprietor



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