

The influence of parenting styles and practices on the identification of goals and aspirations of Grade 11 learners in the Western Cape

ALICE RUJEKO MOYO

A mini-thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Magister Artium in Child and Family Studies, Department of Social work, Faculty of Community and Health Sciences, University of the Western



Supervisor: Dr Nicolette Roman

NOVEMBER 2012

ABSTRACT

Self-Determination Theory is a theory of motivation that aims to explain individuals' goal directed behaviour. Grade 11 learners are naturally in a stage of pursuing certain life goals and aspirations in the process of completing their schooling careers. Often the circumstances or environment provide the opportunities for individuals to be motivated towards aspiring to their life goals. Parents are key role players in either enhancing or hindering the motivation for children to be goal directed. This study examined the association of parenting practices and styles on the identification of goals and aspirations of Grade 11 learners in secondary schools in the Metro South region of the Western Cape. The objectives were to determine: (1) the content of the goals and aspirations of Grade 11 learners, (2) the perceived parental styles and practices of their parents and (3) the relationship between (1) and (2). A quantitative research method with a cross-sectional correlation design was used. The Parental Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire and the Aspiration Index were the instruments for collecting the data. The final sample consisted of 257 participants of which 155 (60.3%) were females. The mean age was 17.3 years. The results suggest that the maternal parenting was more prevalent than paternal parenting. Maternal and paternal authoritative parentings were significantly positively related to both intrinsic and extrinsic goals and aspirations whereas maternal and paternal permissive parentings were significantly positively related to only extrinsic goals. The study showed that the participants are inclined towards intrinsic goal pursuits. Furthermore, maternal parenting was a significant predictor of both intrinsic and extrinsic goals and aspirations and both parents predicted a stronger association.

KEY WORDS

Parenting

Parenting styles

Parenting practices

Parental warmth

Parental support

Parental control

Extrinsic goals and aspirations

Self Determination Theory



DECLARATION

I declare that the current study *the influence of parenting styles and practices on the identification of goals and aspirations of Grade 11 learners in secondary schools in the Western Cape* has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any university, and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged as complete references.

Alice Rujeko Moyo



November 2012

DEDICATION

TO:

*MY PARENTS (THE LATE MR. I. KANYENZE AND THE LATE MRS. B. KANYENZE) FOR
THEIR UNCONDITIONAL LOVE.*

AND MY HUSBAND AND CHILDREN



JEHOVAH JIREH, LORD OF ALL CREATION

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to thank my supervisor Dr. Nicolette Roman for her continuous support and contribution throughout my research process and development of my thesis. I experienced a lot of growth under the mentorship and leadership of Dr. N. Roman. I salute her; she has been an inspiration for me. My profound gratitude also goes to Professor Willy Lens, KU Leuven, Belgium for mentoring and support.

I also thank Lauren Schilder (fellow student) whom I closely worked with throughout our coursework, field research, development and completion of my thesis. I would also want to express my gratitude to the following individuals and institutions for their support and/or contribution towards this research study: Dr. Vaughan Stannard (Beautiful Gate South Africa), Mrs. Edna Rich (University of Western Cape) and Mr. Eugene Davids (Fellow student).

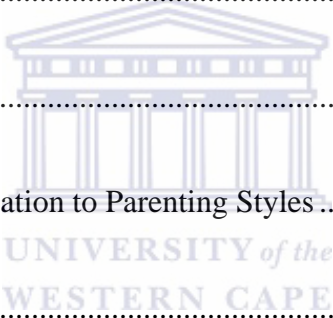
I am particularly indebted to all my family members especially my parents, sisters, brothers and my husband Caleb for their support, assistance and encouragement throughout my studies. Also a big thank you goes to our children Shane and Chiara for their understanding during the period of study and research.

My profound gratitude goes to the National Research Foundation Thuthuka Fund and Beautiful Gate for the financial support throughout my studies and also my personal development throughout the study. I also express my gratitude to my fellow students who also made a substantial input towards the development and success of this study. Last but not least I would like to thank the staff from the Department of Social Work, University of Western Cape and Beautiful Gate South Africa staff for their support throughout my studies.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1	INTRODUCTION	1
1.1	Background and rationale	1
1.2	Conceptual Framework.....	3
1.3	Problem Statement	5
1.4	Research questions.....	6
1.5	Aims and Objectives	7
1.5.1	The aim of the study	7
1.5.2	Objectives of the study	7
1.5.3	Hypotheses.....	7
1.6	Methodology	8
1.7	Significance of the Study.....	8
1.8	Definition of Terms.....	9
1.9	Overview of chapters	12
CHAPTER 2	CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK.....	14
2.1	Introduction.....	14

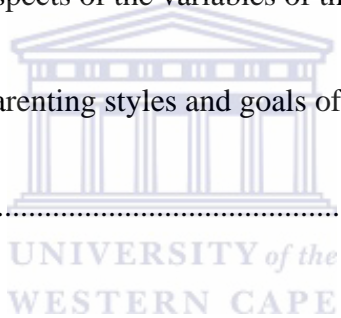


2.2	Adolescence	14
2.3	Self-Determination Theory	16
2.4	Parenting	18
2.4.1	Conceptual review of parenting styles.....	19
2.4.2	Empirical review of parenting styles	26
2.4.3	Parenting in the South African Context.....	30
2.5	Motivation.....	32
2.6	Goals and Aspirations	36
2.7	Goals and Aspirations in Relation to Parenting Styles.....	38
2.8	Conclusion	40
 UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE		
CHAPTER 3	METHODOLOGY	41
3.1	Introduction.....	41
3.2	Research Methodology	41
3.3	Research Design.....	42
3.4	Study sample	42
3.5	Research Instruments	43

3.5.1	Parental Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ)	43
3.5.2	Aspiration Index	44
3.6	Research procedure	44
3.7	Pilot Study and Results	45
3.7.1	Pilot Study	45
3.7.2	Results of pilot.....	46
3.7.3	Changes to the instrument	47
3.7.4	Application of the instrument	48
3.8	Data Collection Process	48
3.9	Data Analysis	48
3.10	Validity and Reliability.....	50
3.11	Ethical considerations	50
3.12	Conclusion	51
CHAPTER 4	RESULTS	52
4.1	Introduction.....	52
4.2	Analysis overview.....	52



4.3	Internal consistencies of instruments	53
4.4	The demographics of the study sample.....	55
4.5	Parental styles and practices	57
4.6	Goals and aspirations of learners	59
4.6.1	Extrinsic Life Goals.....	59
4.6.2	Intrinsic life goals	66
4.7	Determining associational aspects of the variables of the study.....	77
4.7.1	Correlations between parenting styles and goals of the participants.....	77
4.7.2	Regression analysis.....	79
4.8	Summary	83
CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....		84
5.1	Introduction.....	84
5.2	Parental style and practices	84
5.3	Goals and aspirations of learners	86
5.4	The association between parental styles on goals and aspirations of the learners.....	89
5.6	Conclusion	95



5.7 Recommendations.....	95
References.....	98

LIST OF TABLES

- Table 3.1: Intrinsic and extrinsic goals alpha scores
- Table 3.2: Parenting alpha scores
- Table 3.3: Parenting styles and sub-factors
- Table 4.1: Parenting styles and practices abbreviations
- Table 4.2: Goals and aspirations abbreviations
- Table 4.3: Internal consistencies of the measures (PDSQ & AI)
- Table 4.4: Demographic descriptions of participants
- Table 4.5: Perceived parental styles and practices
- Table 4.6: Mean and Standard Deviation of wealth importance
- Table 4.7: Mean and Standard Deviation of wealth likelihood
- Table 4.8: Mean and Standard Deviation of wealth
- Table 4.9: Mean and Standard Deviation of fame importance
- Table 4.10: Mean and Standard Deviation of fame likelihood
- Table 4.11: Mean and Standard Deviation of fame
- Table 4.12: Mean and Standard Deviation of image importance
- Table 4.13: Mean and Standard Deviation of image likelihood
- Table 4.14: Mean and Standard Deviation of image
- Table 4.15: Mean and Standard Deviation of personal growth importance

- Table 4.16: Mean and Standard Deviation of personal growth likelihood
- Table 4.17: Mean and Standard Deviation of personal growth
- Table 4.18: Mean and Standard Deviation of relationship importance
- Table 4.19: Mean and Standard Deviation of relationship likelihood
- Table 4.20: Mean and Standard Deviation relationship
- Table 4.21: Mean and Standard Deviation community importance
- Table 4.22: Mean and Standard Deviation community likelihood
- Table 4.23: Mean and Standard Deviation community
- Table 4.24: Mean and Standard Deviation of importance and likelihood of intrinsic goals
- Table 4.25: Mean and Standard Deviation of importance and likelihood of extrinsic goals
- Table 4.26: Mean and Standard Deviation of the extrinsic and intrinsic goal content
- Table 4.27: Correlation between parental styles and goals
- Table 4.28: Maternal and paternal parenting styles prediction of intrinsic goals
- Table 4.29: Maternal and paternal parenting styles prediction of extrinsic goals
- Table 4.30: Hierarchical regression of maternal and paternal parenting styles prediction of intrinsic and extrinsic goals

LIST OF FIGURES

- Figure 2.1: Parenting styles
- Figure 2.2: Self- determination continuum (types of motivation).

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Information letter

Appendix B: Consent form for participants

Appendix C: Questionnaire

Appendix D: Table 3.4: Parenting styles and sub-factors

Table 4.1: Parenting styles and practices abbreviations

Table 4.2: Goals and aspirations abbreviations



CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and rationale

In Self-Determination Theory (SDT), Deci and Ryan (2008a) state that human motivation is an inherent ability for individuals to aspire to be psychologically well. As long as basic psychological needs are met, humans have the best ability and drive towards motivation, human development and wellness. The environment plays a central role in meeting the needs of individuals to achieve their fullest potential. Chirkov, Ryan, Youngmee and Kaplan (2003, p.97) believe that wellbeing is “enhanced” when the basic psychological needs are met and will be “diminished” when the social environment is frustrating, preventing the gratification of these needs. Thus the environment can either enhance or hinder the quality of human motivation, development and wellness (Chirkov et al, 2003). Individuals can be intrinsically or extrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; 2008b). In structuring goals (aspirations), research in SDT has found that individuals who are intrinsically motivated would likely place emphasis on aspiring to goals such as affiliation, personal growth, self-acceptance, physical health and pro-social behaviour whilst the extrinsically motivated individuals would be more likely to aspire to wealth, fame and image (Deci & Ryan, 2008a). The intrinsic goals are inward bound whilst the extrinsic goals are outward based (Deci & Ryan, 2008a).

Studies have shown a strong relationship between parenting and socio-emotional outcomes of children in terms of self-esteem and self-worth, pro-social behaviour, performance in school,

sympathy, social competence and behaviour (Aunola & Nurmi, 2004; Conger, Conger & Scaramella, 1977; Criss, Pettit, Bates, Dodge & Lapp, 2002; Dumas, Lawford, Tieu & Pratt, 2009; Endicott & Liossis, 2005; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994; Laible & Carlo, 2004; Vieno, Nation, Pastore, & Santinello, 2009). These researchers have focused on spheres of life other than linkages to goals and aspirations.

Grade 11 learners could naturally pursue certain goals and aspirations. These goals and aspirations could be based on the Grade 11 learners' circumstances and how they have been parented in order to acquire a better life and wellness (Chirkov et al., 2003; Ingrid, Majda & Dubravka, 2009). Family, and especially parents, could play an important role in either enhancing or hindering the satisfaction of the needs and particularly wellbeing and growth of their children into well-adjusted adults (Chirkov, et al., 2003; Grolnick, 2003). It is therefore highly probable that parental styles and practices influence the goals and aspirations of children and more specifically Grade 11 learners as they are nearing the end of their school life.

In South Africa, changing family circumstances have been seen to affect children's and adolescents' ideals, actions and aspirations (Bray, Gooskens, Moses, Kahn & Seekings, 2010). Research by Bray et al. (2010) showed that in South Africa children sharing a home with their parents did not guarantee them quality of care and relationships. According to Bray et al. (2010), young people would respond to the shortfall in their care in order to protect their wellbeing through silence, reaction against strategic communication or residential moves. Thus, it can be assumed that children, adolescents and more specifically Grade 11 learners' goals and aspirations could be shaped by their experience of parenting (Bray et al., 2010; Kasser, Ryan, Zax & Sameroff, 1995). This study therefore determined if there is an association between

parenting styles and practices and the goals and aspiration of Grade 11 learners in secondary schools.

1.2 Conceptual Framework

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) may be defined as “an empirically based theory of human motivation, development and wellness” (Deci & Ryan, 2008a, p.82). According to Deci and Ryan (2008a; 2008b), SDT is said to be applicable to a wide range of areas within the life domain and addresses basic issues such as personality development, parenting, education, self-regulation, universal psychological needs, life goals and aspirations, energy and vitality, behaviour and wellbeing and so on (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; 2008b; 2008c).

In relation to life goals or aspirations, work within SDT has focused on long term goals which fall into intrinsic and extrinsic aspirations (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; 2008b; 2008c). Goals and aspirations are the desires that people have that determine the future of a person (Deci & Ryan, 2008a, 2008b), which are either intrinsic (inward) or extrinsic (outward) (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; Kasser & Ryan, 1993; 1996). Research has shown that there is more positive growth and wellbeing in adolescents or children who adopt particularly the intrinsic goals and aspirations (Laible & Carlo, 2004; Williams, Cox, Hedberg & Deci, 2000). SDT highlights the role of the social context, which can either facilitate or undermine children’s intrinsic motivation and internalization. Deci and Ryan (2008a) state that intrinsic motivation and internalization are likely to function optimally when children’s needs for autonomy are supported by parents and teachers.

The core motivational processes posited by the SDT, the goals and aspirations of children, are likely to be affected by the family environment and the family and parents in particular are a key environmental factor that children, adolescents and specifically Grade 11 learners are dependent on (Chirkov et al., 2003; Conger et al., 1977; Deci & Ryan, 2000, 2008a, 2008b). According to the SDT, the environment can either enhance or hinder the process of motivation and wellbeing of the children (Chirkov et al., 2003). Conger et al, (1977, p.114) state that parents have been viewed as the primary force influencing the identity formation process as a child moves from the first to the second decade of life. Erickson (1968) also stated conflict is influenced by biological and social needs which are significant for development of oneself. Hence the role parenting plays during the process of development and socialization of the child.

In terms of parenting, it is stated that child development requires a certain minimum level of responsible care (Neisser, 1996). Neisser (1996, p.88) adds that severely deprived, neglectful and abusive environments must have negative effects on many aspects including intellectual aspects of development. There is a very high probability that goals and aspirations of children are not an exception to this effect. Parental styles and practices could be important in the motivation for certain goals and aspirations. The way parents parent their children can be classified into four commonly identified parenting styles known as authoritarian parenting, permissive parenting, authoritative parenting and uninvolved parenting (Baumrind, 1966; Marcoby & Martin, 1983). Each of these parenting styles reflects different naturally occurring patterns of parental values, practices and behaviours, as well as a distinct balance of responsiveness and demandingness (Baumrind, 1991). From each parental style there are strategies that parents adopt to achieve specific goals; thus the way the parents parent their children, and these are parental practices (Pomeraz & Eaton, 2001 as cited in Aunola & Nurmi, 2004). These relate to the dimensions of

parenting. Parenting is seen as the strategy that parents employ in raising their children (parental practices) (Darling, 1999). Parenting practices include optimal parenting, neglectful parenting, affectionless control and affectionate constraint, depending on the level of care and protection (Parker, Tupling & Brown, 1979). In support of the family environment, parenting is seen to play a major role in entrenching socialization, providing an understanding of self (Aunola & Nurmi, 2004; Criss et al., 2002; Conger et al., 1977; Deci & Ryan, 2008a; Dumas et al., 2009; Endicott & Liossis, 2005; Erickson, 1968; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994; Laible & Carlo, 2004; Vieno et al., 2009). Parenting and associated variables have been well documented as a developmental process and socialization tool, especially in early phases of development, that is early childhood, childhood and adolescence (Baumrind, 1966).

1.3 Problem Statement

What motivates and inspires learners to desire certain things in life? In South Africa, Grade 11 learners are in a critical and transitional stage as identified by the critical stages stated by Erickson (1968). This developmental stage in the life of a Grade 11 learner may be characterized by decisions that have to be made, when opportunities for self-actualization and independence set in, and their decisions at this point determine what they become in life and their career path (Erickson, 1968; Laible & Carlo, 2004; Russel & Russel, 1987). Their goals and aspirations may be said to be either intrinsic or extrinsic in nature depending on what motivates them (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; Kasser & Ryan, 1993; 1996). According to SDT, the environment is a key motivator, enhancing or hindering wellbeing, quality of human motivation, development and wellness (Chirkov, et al., 2003, Grolnick, 2003). More specifically the family environment, especially parents, plays a big role in either enhancing or hindering the satisfaction of the needs

and particularly wellbeing and growth of their children into well-adjusted adults (Chirkov, et al., 2003; Grolnick, 2003). The home environment and parenting could assist in encouraging children to pursue certain goals and aspirations (Bray et al., 2010).

Research has been done relating to parenting styles and to a limited extent parental practices on different spheres of life that influence performance in school, self-esteem and self-worth, sympathy, social competence and behavioural problems as associated with family adversity and discipline, perceptions and so on (Aunola & Nurmi, 2004; Baumrind, 2005; Conger et al., 1977; Criss et al., 2002; Dumas et al., 2009; Endicott & Liopsis, 2005; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994; Laible & Carlo, 2004; Vieno et al., 2009). Limited research has been done linking parenting to goals and aspirations (Laible & Carlo, 2004; Sheldon, Kennon & Kasser, 1998). However, these researchers did not empirically establish particularly the influence of parental styles and practices on the children's identification of goals and aspiration and more specifically Grade 11 learners. This research has also been done in different contexts and country settings and would probably be very different in the South African context. This study suggested that parental styles and practices seem to play a major part in providing the basis for the choice of goals and aspirations of learners, in particular learners in secondary schools who are almost completing their schooling phase. The need for this has come about as both a practical concern (critical stage of learners) and due to gaps identified in previous research highlighted in the previous section.

1.4 Research questions

1. What are the perceptions of the Grade 11 learners on how they are parented by their parents?

2. What are the goals and aspirations of Grade 11 learners?
3. Do parenting styles and practices influence the identification of goals and aspirations of the Grade 11 learners?

1.5 Aims and Objectives

1.5.1 The aim of the study

The aim of this study was to investigate if there is an association between parenting styles and practices and goals and aspirations of learners, and also the importance learners in secondary schools attach to intrinsic versus extrinsic goals and aspirations.

1.5.2 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study were to:

- Examine Grade 11 learners' perceptions regarding how they are parented.
- Investigate the nature of goals and aspirations of the Grade 11 learners.
- Determine the influence of parenting styles and practices on the goals and aspirations of the Grade 11 learners.

1.5.3 Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is an association between parental styles and practices and the identification of either intrinsic or extrinsic goals or aspirations of Grade 11 learners in secondary schools.



Hypothesis 2: The authoritative parenting style is positively related to the identification of intrinsic goals by learners.

Hypothesis 3: The authoritarian parenting style is positively related to extrinsic goals.

Hypothesis 4: The permissive parenting style is positively related to the extrinsic goals.

Hypothesis 5: Maternal and Paternal parenting styles are significant contributors to the variation in the pursuit of intrinsic and extrinsic goals by the learners.

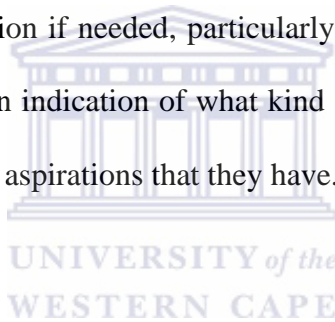
1.6 Methodology

The study used a quantitative approach to determine the role of parenting styles and practices in the identification of goals and aspirations of Grade 11 learners at secondary schools. A cross-sectional correlation research design was used in the study. This design describes the statistical association between two or more variables and the researcher observes two or more variables at the point in time (Breakwell, Hammond & Fife-Shaw, 1995). The study described the statistical association between parenting styles and goals and aspirations and the data was collected at that point in time.

1.7 Significance of the Study

This particular study provided a deeper and broader understanding of how parenting styles and practices impact the goals and aspirations of the secondary school learners, particularly Grade 11s. The study has implications on the teachers, schools, learners, parents, social service practitioners and society as a whole. The results of the study clarified how the parenting styles and practices affect the nature of goals and aspirations of the learners in secondary schools.

Firstly, the recommendations input into the curriculum of the schools will benefit the learners in how they can identify goals and aspirations that can assist them to identify better career paths. This in turn will benefit teachers and schools as they will positively influence the outcomes of the learners in their schools. Social services practitioners working with children and families are always seeking better ways to deliver their services; the recommendations of this study will help them to work with parents and children in a way that strengthens their parenting to instill positive goals and aspirations in their adolescents. These results also help in educational programs for the communities and community based organizations. Last but not least, the statistics give an idea of how often children are experiencing neglectful parenting. This can lead to the allocation of appropriate resources for intervention if needed, particularly by the Government. The results of the research (statistics) also give an indication of what kind of children we are grooming today, considering the nature of goals and aspirations that they have. This portrays an indication of what the future holds for this country.



1.8 Definition of Terms

Parenting:

Parenting is seen as the strategy that parents employ in raising their children. It is a complex activity that includes many specific behaviours that work individually and together to influence child outcomes (Darling, 1999). In this study the parents are seen as biological or adoptive parents, guardians and people who oversee the development of children.

Parenting styles:

Parental styles have been defined as the parents' behaviours and characteristics that describe their interaction with their children over a wide range of situations and so create the interactional climate for parent- child relations (Darling & Stein, 1993; Mize & Pettit, 1997 as cited in Aunola & Nurmi, 2004).

Parenting practices:

Parenting practices are defined as parental strategies undertaken to achieve specific goals in specific contexts or situations. (Pomerantz and Eaton, 2001 as cited in Aunola & Nurmi, 2004). This refers to the way in which parents parent their children.

Parental warmth:

Parental warmth refers to the characteristic of parenting which involves parents' expression of interest in children's activities and friends, involvement in children's activities, expression of enthusiasm and praise for children's accomplishments, and demonstration of affection and love (Suchman, Rounsaville, DeCoste & Luthar, 2007).

Parental support:

Parental support refers to the characteristic of parenting which involves responsiveness, involvement, acceptance and supportiveness (Aunola & Nurmi, 2004).

Parental control:

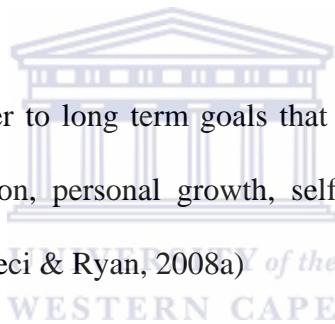
Parental control refers to the characteristic of parenting which involves maturity demands, monitoring and limit setting (Aunola & Nurmi, 2004).

Extrinsic goals and aspirations:

Extrinsic goals and aspirations refer to long term goals that people use to guide their activities that are inclined towards wealth, fame and image (or physical appearance), thus pursuing the attainment of social praise or rewards (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; Kasser & Ryan, 1993; 1996)

Intrinsic goals and aspirations:

Intrinsic goals and aspirations refer to long term goals that people use to guide their activities that are inclined towards affiliation, personal growth, self-acceptance, generativity, physical health and pro-social behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 2008a)



Self-Determination Theory (SDT):

Self-Determination Theory is an empirically based theory of human motivation, development and wellness. It focuses on types and amount of motivation, paying particular attention to autonomous motivation, controlled motivation and amotivation as predictors of performance, relational and wellbeing outcomes, and it addresses social conditions (Deci & Ryan, 2008a).

1.9 Overview of chapters

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter introduces the concepts of parenting styles and goals and aspirations. Furthermore, it outlines the background and rationale, as well as the problem statement of the study. Chapter one also outlines the aims and objectives that guide the study. It introduces the theoretical framework of Self-Determination Theory. This chapter also describes the methodology employed in the study as well as the significance of the study. The rest of the study is organized as follows: -

Chapter 2: Conceptual Framework

This chapter presents the conceptual framework of the study. It describes the theoretical framework and the main concepts that relate to parenting styles and goals and aspirations. It first details the Self-Determination Theory and then outlines the concepts of parenting and goals and aspirations within the SDT framework. Relevant and previous researches are also explored in this chapter.

Chapter 3: Methodology

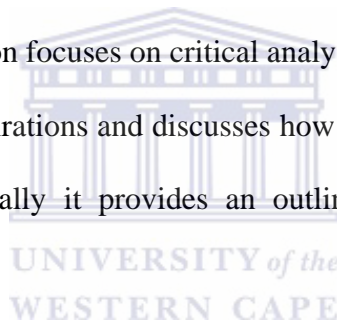
Chapter three provides the research methodology of the study detail. The chapter presents the discussion of the research design employed, pilot study and results, the data collection procedure and the research instruments that were used in the study. Furthermore, the chapter outlines the data analysis process that was employed within the study and the ethical considerations. .

Chapter 4: Results

Chapter four provides the presentation of the results of the study. The chapter presents the descriptive, inferential and regression analysis of the study. The chapter provides details and figures on demographic information, mean scores and standard deviations, correlation and regression results.

Chapter 5: Discussion and recommendations

This chapter concludes the study with the discussion of findings. Chapter five provides the discussion of the results in relation to previous research and the link to the aims, objectives and hypothesis of the study. This section focuses on critical analysis of research that has been done in relation to parenting goals and aspirations and discusses how the results of this study align or are different from past research. Finally it provides an outline of limitations, conclusions and recommendations.



CHAPTER 2

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

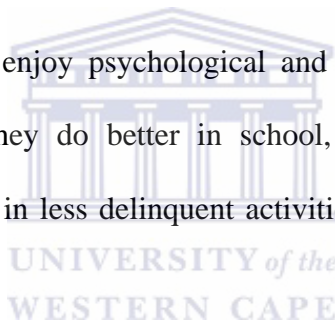
This chapter outlines the link in the theory, concepts and literature relating to goals and aspirations in relation to perceived parenting styles and practices. Firstly, this chapter describes the general developmental stage that the Grade 11 learners are in and the expected developmental outcomes. The theoretical framework is explored and past research relating to both parenting and goals and aspirations. A review of the related concepts is also provided

2.2 Adolescence

In South Africa, Grade 11 learners are at the age of around 16 to 17 and this age falls within the adolescence developmental stage. Adolescence is a period of development categorized by the age between 13-17 years (Erickson, 1968). Generally, the stage of development in which the child is found, is likely to result in them responding differently to individuals, peers, parents and society at large. Developmental theory has shown that children are at different levels of adjustment at different ages or stages (Louw van Eden & Louw, 2005). The physical care, play, and day to day cognitive, social and emotional needs of adolescence are uniquely specific to each and every stage (Russell & Russell, 1987). Furthermore Russell and Russell (1987) state that adolescents are at a stage where they want to make their own choices, develop unique personalities and opinions, want more independence and responsibility and require less day to day physical care. The onset of adolescence presents many physical, mental, emotional and

social challenges (Erickson, 1968). This is the stage where their input should be valued in decision making and the children would want to spend less time being closely monitored by parents. There is likely to be lot of changes in behaviour, and respect of their opinion by their parents and privacy become very important. Research done by Deroma, Lassiter and Davis (2004) showed that positive outcomes in adolescents were enhanced when parents engage the adolescents to be more involved in the decision making.

This is supported by the past research that indicates that autonomy and independence are critical in adolescence (Developmental Psychology Newsletter, 2011; Laible and Carlo; 2004; Russell & Russell, 1987). In support of this, it has been shown that adolescents whose parents are warm (accepting), firm and democratic enjoy psychological and behavioural advantages over their peers who did not have this. They do better in school, are more self-reliant, report less psychological distress and engage in less delinquent activities (Steinberg, Mounts, Lamborn & Dornbusch, 1991, p.30-31).



This study focused on learners in Grade 11 who find themselves in the period of adolescence development. Parents are the first significant figures in a child's life, therefore the dynamics between the parent-child relationships could influence their choices, worldview, goals and aspirations (Kasser, et al., 1995). As noted by the researchers above, the role of the parent is critical in creating an environment which is conducive to supporting the varied changes in adolescence development so as to meet their basic psychological needs. This study used the theoretical underpinnings of Self-Determination Theory to explore the role of perceived parenting styles and practices on the identification of goals and aspirations of the Grade 11 learners.

2.3 Self-Determination Theory

Self-Determination Theory (SDT) may be defined as “an empirically based theory of human motivation, development and wellness” (Deci & Ryan, 2008a, p.82). SDT is seen as a psychological approach to human behaviours as it considers people’s experience to be the proximal determinant of action (Deci & Ryan, 2008c) and postulates that individuals are inherently motivated and aspire toward being psychologically well. SDT uses this concept of innate, universal and psychological needs to understand human motivation. The Self-Determination Theory assumes that there is a set of universal psychological needs that must be satisfied for effective functioning and psychological health (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; William et al., 2000). SDT postulates the three basic needs as competence, autonomy and relatedness which are seen to be essential for facilitating optimal functioning of the natural propensities for growth and integration, as well as constructive social development and personal wellbeing (Deci & Ryan, 2008a, p.68).

Deci and Ryan (2008c) defined competence as perceived self-belief in one’s ability to perform well in an activity which refers to the experiencing of opportunities to exercise, expand and express one’s capabilities. Furthermore, Deci and Ryan (2008c, p.658) elaborated that feelings of competence are enhanced by engaging in optimal challenges and receiving feedback and, on the contrary, are diminished by conditions that deprive one of control over outcome. Autonomy is defined as freedom of choice which relates to self-organization and endorsement of one’s behaviour (Deci & Ryan, 2008c). In other words, one engages in certain activities because one chooses to, not because one feels pressured by others or by external factors. Finally, relatedness refers to a sense of shared experience, a feeling that one belongs and feels connected with others.

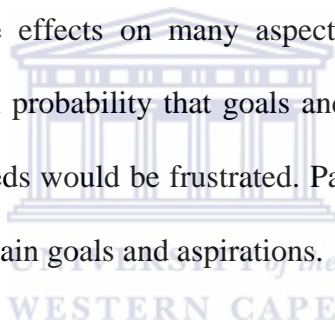
If all the three basic psychological needs are satisfied, SDT posits that individuals are motivated to develop towards their fullest potential, therefore developing towards a unified sense of self. According to Deci and Ryan (2004, p.3), “In the process of actively developing, there is a tendency for ‘knowledge and personality to be synthesized and organized’, thus resulting in an integration or assimilation of knowledge and experience with the self, subsequently leading to ‘a coherent sense of self – a sense of wholeness, vitality and integrity’ and ultimately wellbeing.”

The SDT is said to be applicable to a wide range of areas within the life domain and addresses basic issues such as personality development, parenting, education, self-regulation, universal psychological needs, life goals and aspirations, energy and vitality, behaviour and wellbeing and so on (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; 2008b; 2008c). The SDT also examines social environments that support, hinder or undermine self-motivation, social functions and personal wellbeing (Deci & Ryan, 2008a). Joussemet, Laundry and Koestner (2008) also state that SDT seems highly pertinent to the socialization of children, their internalization of behaviour and cognitive processes, and their development. The SDT further suggests that when parents block satisfaction of the children’s basic psychological needs, for example by directing them with rewards, threats and contingent love, the children experience distress and also tend to defensively lose awareness of their basic needs. It also postulates that they will look outward for satisfaction, thus formulating extrinsic aspirations (William et al., 2000). The following section therefore explores the role the environment plays in the satisfaction or frustration of the desires that learners have.

2.3.1 The influence of the environment

The family and parents in particular are key environmental role players that children, adolescents (Chirkov, et al., 2003; Grolnick, 2003) and specifically Grade 11 learners, are dependent on.

According to the SDT, the environment can either enhance or hinder the process of motivation and wellbeing of children (Chirkov et al., 2003, William et al., 2000). Conger et al, (1997, p.114) state that parents have been viewed as the primary force influencing the identity formation process, as a child moves from the first to the second decade of life. In terms of parenting, it is stated that child development requires a certain minimum level of responsible care (Neisser, 1996). Research has indicated parents play a significant role in the upbringing of the child with positive parenting resulting in satisfying the basic needs, leading to satisfaction, which could possibly result in better choices (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; Steinberg et al., 1991; William et al., 2000). On the contrary Neisser (1996, p.88) adds that severely deprived, neglectful and abusive environments must have negative effects on many aspects including intellectual aspects of development. There is a very high probability that goals and aspirations of children are not an exception to this effect as their needs would be frustrated. Parental styles and practices could be important in the motivation for certain goals and aspirations.



2.4 Parenting

Parenting is seen as the strategy that parents employ in raising their children (parental practices). Parenting practices include optimal parenting, neglectful parenting, affectionless control and affectionate constraint, depending on the level of care and protection (Parker, Tupling & Brown, 1979). In support of the family environment parenting is seen to play a major role in entrenching socialization, providing an understanding of self. Parenting and associated variables have been well documented as a developmental process and socialization tool especially in early phases of development, that is early childhood, childhood and adolescence (Baumrind, 1966). Thus family and especially parents, play a big role in either enhancing or hindering the satisfaction of the

needs and, particularly, the wellbeing and growth of their children into well-adjusted adults (Chirkov et al., 2003; Grolnick, 2003). Parenting practices therefore play a major role in determining the behaviour and outcomes of children and adolescents (Baumrind, 1991; Glasglow, Dornbusch, Troyer, Steinberg & Ruiter, 1997) and positive self-discovery Laible & Carlo, 2004; Vieno et al, 2009). Dresner and Grolnick (1996) supported these findings. The outcomes and behaviours of the children are different depending on the stage of development of the children, and younger children in middle childhood are likely to need more attention and involvement in the way they are parented, in comparison with adolescents who may require more privacy in their lives. Autonomy is important throughout lifespan but is manifested differently for different stages of life which therefore means younger children and adolescence need autonomy of different kinds.

These are outcomes in terms of their socialization, attachment, self-esteem, performance in school, sympathy, externalization and internalization. Studies have shown a strong relationship between parenting and socio-emotional outcomes of children in terms of self-esteem and self-worth, pro-social behaviour, performance in school, sympathy, social competence and behaviour (Aunola & Nurmi, 2004; Conger et al., 1977; Criss et al., 2002; Dumas et al., 2009; Endicott & Liossis, 2005; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994; Laible & Carlo, 2004; Vieno et al., 2009).

2.4.1 Conceptual review of parenting styles

Different parents have a different approach in the way they raise their children with some parents allowing their children to do as they please, while some parents are very restrictive in what they allow. Ultimately, the way in which parents raise their children is related to the child's behavioral outcomes and his behavior as an adult as parents are the primary agents in the process

of socialising their children to become well adjusted adults (Aunola & Nurmi, 2004; Criss et al., 2002; Conger et al., 1977; Deci & Ryan, 2008a; Dumas et al., 2009; Endicott & Liopsis, 2005; Erickson, 1968; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994; Laible & Carlo, 2004; Vieno et al., 2009).

The SDT does not focus on autonomy-support and control, therefore this study uses Baumrind theoretical framework to understand this. According to Baumrind (1991), there are three commonly identified parental styles known as authoritative parenting style, authoritarian parenting styles and permissive parenting styles. The fourth parenting style, neglectful parenting style, was incorporated by Macobby and Martin (1983). Each of these parenting styles reflects different naturally occurring patterns of parental values, practices, and behaviours as well as a distinct balance of responsiveness and demandingness (Baumrind, 1966; 1967; 1991) presenting different outcomes of the children. Each and every parenting style is defined in relation to the demandingness and responsiveness of the parents as indicated in Figure 2.1. However, from each parental style there are strategies that parents adopt to achieve specific goals; thus the way the parents parent their children, and these are parental practices. These relate to the dimensions of parenting which will be elaborated under their respective parenting styles.

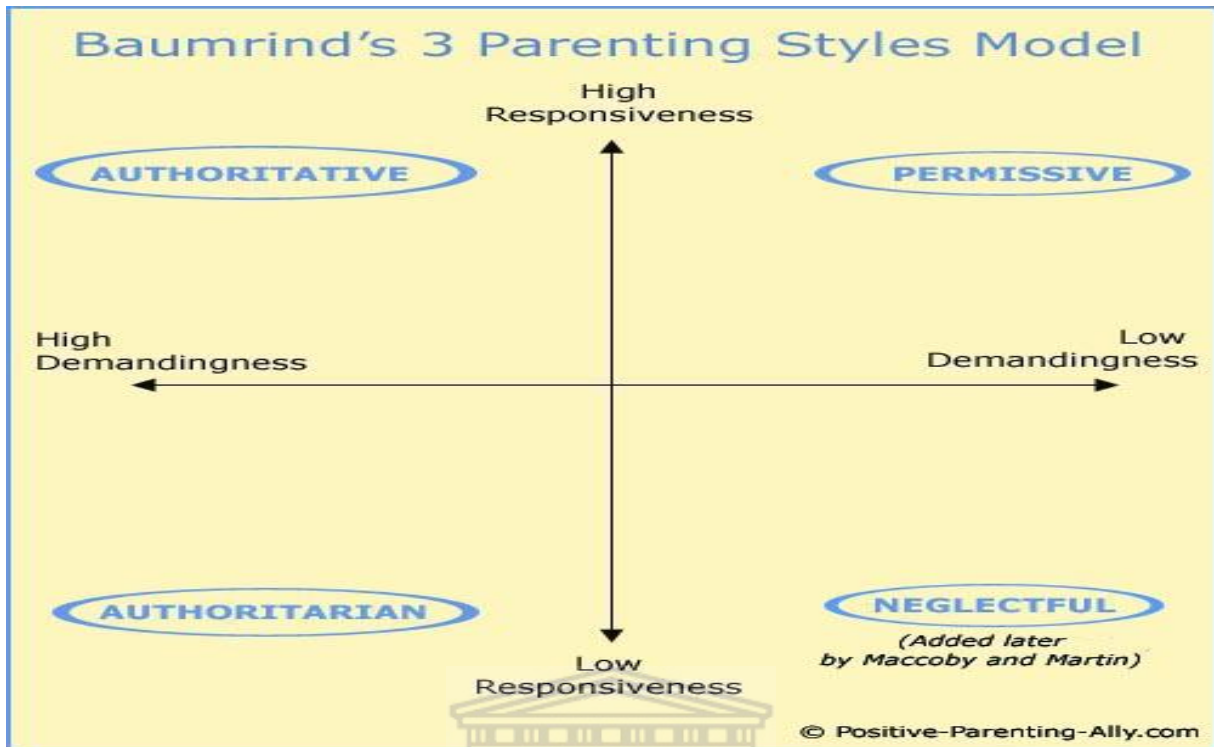


Figure 2.1: Parenting Styles

2.4.1.1 Authoritative parenting style

Authoritative parenting relates to a style where parents establish rules and guidelines that children are expected to follow, and which is much more democratic (Baumrind, 1991). It is characterized by high responsiveness as well as high demandingness as shown in Figure 2.1. Baumrind (1991) stated that parents who adopt the authoritative parenting style are responsive to their children and are willing to listen to their questions. When children fail to meet the expectations, these parents are more nurturing and forgiving rather than punishing (Baumrind, 1991). Baumrind (1991) suggests that their disciplinary methods are supportive and they want children to be assertive as well as socially responsible, and self-regulated and cooperative".

Research has identified that authoritative parenting style is characterized by three dimensions (parenting practices) namely connection dimension (warmth and support), regulation dimension (reasoning/induction) and autonomy granting (democratic participation) (Baumrind, 1967; Grolnick, 2003; Parker et al., 1979; Robinson et al., 2001).

Connection dimension (Warmth and support)

This is the parenting practice where parents are very responsive to the needs and feelings, and spend time with their children and are very understanding and give comfort when needed (Baumrind, 1967; Robinson et al., 2001). It relates to the quality of relationship that parents have with their children. It also involves giving praise to the child (Robinson et al., 2001) and is characterised by high care and high protection. Research has indicated that parental warmth and support relate to the support and closeness to the child, encouragement and emotional bonding in the development through childhood and adolescence (Baumrind, 1999).

Regulation dimension (Reasoning and induction)

Parents set rules and establish responsibilities for their children and make their children understand rules and discipline (Baumrind, 1967; Robinson et al., 2001). In particular, the parents emphasize reasons for rules, why they should be obeyed, consequences of behaviour, how they feel if a child behaves well or badly, and they help the child to understand the impact of their behaviour, which encourages the child to talk about consequences of their actions (Baumrind, 1967; Robinson et al., 2001).

Autonomy granting dimension (Democratic participation)

Parents respect the opinions of their children and encourage them to express themselves freely without feeling threatened on views that differ to their parents. Children are also allowed to input into the family rules and their desires and preferences are taken into account before decisions are made (Baumrind, 1967; Robinson et al., 2001).

2.4.1.2 Authoritarian parenting style

Another type of parenting style is the authoritarian style which is characterized by high demandingness and low responsiveness. According to Baumrind (1991), in authoritarian parenting, children are expected to follow strict rules established by parents. Failure to follow such rules usually results in punishment. Authoritarian parents fail to explain the reasoning behind these rules. If asked to explain, the parent might simply reply, "*Because I said so.*" As stated these parents have high demands, but are not responsive to their children. According to Baumrind (1991) these parents "are obedience- and status-oriented, and expect their orders to be obeyed without explanation". The authoritarian parenting style is high on control and low on warmth (affectionless control) and there are three dimensions that fall under the authoritarian parenting style; these are physical coercion, verbal hostility and non-reasoning/ punitive dimensions (Baumrind, 1967; Robinson et al., 2001). There is very little communication, and it is mainly one way: from the parent to the child.

Physical coercion dimension

This parenting practice under authoritarian style is characterized by physical punishment with no explanation. The parents use physical punishment for bad behaviour as a form of discipline

(Robinson, et al., 2001). As indicated by Robinson et al., (2001), spanking, grabbing and slapping are the norms within the physical coercion dimension of discipline.

Verbal hostility dimension

Parents who employ this practice for their children verbally attack their children (exploding, yelling, shouting) as a form of rebuke and do not appreciate when a child cannot meet their expectations, or it is used when parents expect their children to improve (Robinson et al., 2001). Parents scold and criticize their children in these circumstances, affording no form of support for their children (Baumrind, 1967; Robinson et al., 2001).

Non-reasoning/ punitive dimension

Parents employing this parenting practice do not believe in negotiating with the child; what they say goes, and the child has no right to question that. Furthermore, the parents believe in punishment in the form of taking privileges away, use of threats and isolation, all without any explanation or discussion with the child (Baumrind, 1967; Robinson et al., 2001).

2.4.1.3 Permissive parenting style

Baumrind (1991) also described permissive parenting as another type of parenting style which is characterized by high responsiveness and low demand. Disciplining the child is very rare in this kind of parenting style and the parents are lenient, do not require mature behaviour, allow considerable self-regulation, and avoid confrontation" (Baumrind, 1991; Dornbusch, Ritter & Steinberg, 1991). In other words the parents allow their children to monitor their own behaviour. Generally the parents are more of a friend than a parent to their children and quite

communicative and nurturing. In other words, this type of parenting is characterized by high warmth but little control. The permissive parenting style has one practice or dimension; namely indulgent.

Indulgent dimension

Parents who employ the indulgent parenting practice threaten their children with punishments but never do them, and they give in if their children make a commotion about something (Robinson et al., 2001). Furthermore, Robinson et al. (2001) stated that parents find it difficult to discipline their children and also spoil the children.

2.4.1.4 Neglectful parenting style

This style was incorporated by Maccoby and is discussed for the purpose of understanding all the styles but is not tested in this study. The neglectful parenting style is characterized by few demands, low responsiveness and little communication (Maccoby & Martin, 1983). While these parents fulfill the child's basic needs, they are generally detached from their child's life. In an extreme case parents may even reject or neglect the children's needs. The neglectful parenting style has one practice or dimension; namely uninvolved parenting dimension.

Uninvolved dimension

There is totally no control or involvement in the life of the child; whatever happens, the parents do not care about their children. Research has generally portrayed that neglectful parenting result in negative outcomes of the children, though the level of care, involvement and protection may differ at different stages.

The parental styles were researched in order to understand the effects each might have on behavior (Karavasilis, Doyle & Markiewicz, 2003; Steinberg, Lamborn & Darling, 1994). The section below highlights the empirical review of the parental styles and associated outcomes of children.

2.4.2 Empirical review of parenting styles

Authoritative parenting

In research the authoritative parenting style has been found to be associated with best child outcome as it respects children's interests and feelings (Baumrind, 1967; Joussemet et al., 2008; Maccoby and Martin, 1983). Authoritative parenting styles have been said to result in well-adjusted adults, more positive relational functioning as well as greater overall wellbeing, competency and healthy development, as well as identity formation (Grolnick, 2003; La Guardia & Patrick, 2008). The children that are raised with this type of parenting become independent, responsible and are said to have self-control as their parents promote and encourage them to be involved and open to discuss issues. Children have also been said to adjust well in school, learn better and have higher academic performance as they feel free to decide on their choice to learn certain things, and they are confident, socially responsible and less likely to be involved in juvenile delinquencies (Baumrind, 1991; Deci & Ryan, 2000, Joussemet et al., 2008).

Research has shown that the authoritative parenting type is associated with fostering personal and social responsibility and enhances self-development and positive self-discovery (Baumrind, 1991; Glasglow et al., 1997; Laible & Carlo, 2004; Vieno et al, 2009). Research has shown that this parenting style, which comprises autonomy-supportive, involved parenting, is associated

with the development of stronger intrinsic aspirations (Deci, 2000; Kasser et al., 1995; Williams et al.). This is also supported by Steinberg (2001) who indicated that there is enough evidence to conclude that adolescents benefit from having parents who are authoritative: warm, firm, and accepting of their needs for psychological autonomy. Also research by Dresner and Grolnick (1996) indicated greater autonomy in the day to day functioning of young women who have been raised by parents that have afforded them more encouragement of independence, and those who displayed intimacy indicated their fathers to have been more accepting. Also independence was seen to be related to support from both mother and father. Therefore, in authoritative parenting the basic needs of autonomy, independence and relatedness are satisfied and it is expected individuals are self-determined in their behaviour and are intrinsically motivated towards doing a task (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Research suggests that the satisfaction of basic psychological needs will encourage more intrinsic rather than extrinsic goals and aspirations. Furthermore, because parents create a particular environment with the parenting styles and practices they apply with their children, they could satisfy the basic psychological needs of their children who could subsequently formulate more intrinsic goals and aspirations.

Authoritarian parenting

Children who are raised under this style are likely to demonstrate a lack of confidence because the parents dictate what they need to do with no or very little participation. This intimidates the child and limits the capacity of the child to become independent as they do things in fear of their parents. Creativity is also limited resulting in lack of intellectual curiosity or learning new things. This form of punishment and verbal attack the parents employ demeans the child and results in very poor social skills and exacerbates the lack of confidence. These children are usually ranked

low on happiness and self-regulation as they are not allowed to express their views and opinions (Baumrind, 1991).

Research by Grolnick (2003) found out that the type of control from authoritarian parents leads to a lack of confidence, making it difficult to fulfill the independence and competence needs of the child. Since authoritative parenting is characterized by lack of care and high protection, research by Overbeek, ten Have, Vollebergh and de Graaf (2007) indicated that it increases the risk of the occurrence or onset of mental disorders and related addictions such as alcohol and drug dependency. As such it can be argued that children that experience this parenting style are likely to be involved in juvenile delinquencies. Hiramura, Uji, Shikai, Chen, Matsuoka and Kitamura (2010) also support the finding that this leads to aggression and delinquency.

Permissive parenting

The children are likely to be less confident, be poor in relationship forming and poor in performance, as the parents do not help their children in problem solving. They also lack self-control and maturity due to the lack of control by the parent.

Grolnick (2003) has indicated that children that are reared under permissive parenting have lack of self-control and have difficulties in establishing any form of relationship. Past research indicated that children that are reared by permissive parents have poor emotional control, portray disobedience and have antisocial behaviour, whilst emerging adults reared by authoritative parents were more satisfied and self-confident (Human, 2010). Furthermore, the children that have been raised under permissive parents are more likely to engage in risk-taking behaviour

such as drug abuse, as the parents offer little guidance on their children's behaviour (Baumrind, 1966, 1967).

Neglectful parenting

Children that are reared under neglectful parenting have very low self-esteem (Baumrind, 1991). The children are also said to have very poor performance, competence and relationships (Baumrind, 1991). This can also result in extreme cases for children such as withdrawal, depression and drug and alcohol dependency to seek attention (Watson, 2004).

Research has supported the finding that neglectful parenting leads to low self-esteem and competence of the child and the child lacks the ability to participate fully in society as an adult (Aunola & Nurmi, 2004; Knutson, De Garmo & Reid, 2004; Laible & Carlo, 2004; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts & Dornbusch, 1994; Watson, 2004). Research has suggested that controlling, uninvolved parenting is associated with the development of strong relative extrinsic aspiration (Kasser et al., 1995; Williams et al., 2000). In particular, 18 year olds who aspire to financial success more than intrinsic goals (self-acceptance), have mothers who are less nurturant and possibly grow up in less advantageous socio-economic circumstances (Kasser et al., 1995). Research has indicated that children have extreme difficulties in self-control and establishing any form of relationships under uninvolved parenting styles (Grolnick, 2003). In these parenting styles the basic needs of the adolescent are not met and research has indicated that when needs are thwarted people tend to be extrinsically motivated (Deci & Ryan, 2000; 2008a). Research has revealed that having strong relative aspirations for extrinsic outcomes is negatively associated with mental health indicators, whereas placing more importance on intrinsic aspirations has been found to be positively associated with mental health indicators (Kasser & Ryan, 1993; 1996)

Watson (2004) showed that neglectful parenting is most strongly associated with poverty and that it often occurs where there are large numbers of children being cared for by a young single mother with little social support. Watson (2004) also outlined that substance abuse, mental health issues and domestic violence often add to already limited parenting capacity and serve to exacerbate the situation. Such socio-economic conditions and behaviours are also familiar in the South African context. Watson (2004) highlights that while each neglectful incident may seem trivial, the long-term consequences of chronic neglect may be more damaging than isolated incidents of physical abuse, as children who have been neglected are prone to internalizing problems such as low self-esteem, depression, social withdrawal, apathy, passivity and helplessness.

2.4.3 Parenting in the South African Context

Not much literature is available to accurately describe the nature of parenting in the South African societies. Generally South Africa is a multi-racial and cultural nation and different strategies are adopted by different people in how they raise their children. In South Africa, changing family circumstances have been seen to affect children's and adolescents' ideals, actions and aspirations (Bray et al., 2010). Research by Bray et al. (2010) showed that in South Africa children sharing a home with their parents did not guarantee them quality of care and relationships. According to Bray et al. (2010), young people would respond to the shortfall in their care in order to protect their wellbeing through silence, reaction against strategic communication or residential moves.

The limited parenting research in South Africa not only suggests a more positive approach to parenting in general, but that there are similarities and differences to Western research studies as

well as differences across cultures. The studies that have been done in South Africa specifically focused on the parenting styles constructs of authoritarian, authoritative and permissive parenting looking at children in early childhood (Latouf, 2008; Moremi, 2002), adolescents (Kritzas, & Grobler, 2005) and young adults (Makwakwa, 2011). The study by Latouf (2005) indicated that in early childhood, authoritative parenting style was supportive of more acceptable behavior whereas Moremi (2002) study had inconsistent findings and found no direct relationships with children's socio-emotional adjustment at school. Furthermore, it indicated that the fathers' authoritarian styles are linked to emotion-focused coping strategies of adolescents, which is in contrast to the findings of previous research.

Research by Makwakwa (2011) examined the link between perceived parental styles and decision making styles of young adults. The results of Makwakwa's (2011) study indicated that there was an association between authoritative parenting style and thoughtful decision-making of young adults. It indicated that the parents of the young adults who participated in this study used more authoritative parenting approaches than authoritarian or permissive.

There are similarities and inconsistencies for parenting styles in South Africa as compared to the findings of research in other countries. These researchers focused on the parenting style and according to Gray and Steinberg (1999) this does not "unpack parenting styles and their effects across the lifespan and move beyond parenting styles and more towards practices." In this way, this study further explores into the styles and practices in relation to the goals and aspirations.

However, South Africa has had major developments in terms of legislative framework for the care and protection of the children. The New Children's Act is the tool intended to guide the parenting of children (defined as people between the ages of 0 to 18) (UNCRC, New Children's

Act, South African Constitution). It has mainly been influenced by United Nations Convention on the Rights of Children (CRC), African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (ACRWC) and the Constitution (Wakefield, 2011).

2.5 Motivation

The SDT is a theory of motivation, Deci and Ryan (2000) look at motivation as something that concerns energy, direction, persistence and equifinality, which are all aspects of activation and intention and are seen to be at the core of biological, cognitive and social regulation. Deci and Ryan (2000) state that people can be motivated because of the value they attach to something or due to external cohesive forces. There has been a differentiated approach to motivation in SDT due to the fact that there are functional and experiential differences between self-regulation and external motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

The question that comes up is what motivates an individual to act in a certain way? Self-Determination Theory differentiates motivation into two different types; thus autonomous motivation and controlled motivation are the most central (Deci & Ryan, 2008a). It has been clarified that these two types of motivation have different outcomes on behaviour, psychological health and performance (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; Levesque-Bristol & Stanek, 2009; Vallerand, Pelletier & Koestner, 2008). These relate to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation respectively. Deci and Ryan (2000:71) state that intrinsic motivation refers to doing an activity for the inherent satisfaction of the activity itself, whilst with extrinsic motivation performance of an activity is in order to obtain some separable outcome. Deci and Ryan (2008b) also indicate in their findings that environments which provide autonomy and support lead to qualitatively superior forms of motivation. These are characterized by high levels of self-determination, that is intrinsic

motivation and identified regulation that in turn are conducive to more adaptive cognitive, affective and behavioural outcomes.

The real question concerning non-intrinsically motivated practices is how individuals acquire the motivation to carry them out and how this motivation affects ongoing persistence, behavioural quality, and wellbeing, whenever a person (be it a parent, teacher, boss, coach, or therapist) attempts to foster certain behaviours in others. The others' motivation for the behaviour can range from amotivation or unwillingness, to passive compliance, to active personal commitment (Deci and Ryan, 2000, p.71). According to SDT, these different motivations reflect differing degrees to which the value and regulation of the requested behaviour have been internalized and integrated, and the internalization refers to people's "taking in" a value or regulation, and integration refers to the further transformation of that regulation into their own so that, subsequently, it will emanate from their sense of self (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p.71). Deci and Ryan (2000) and Levesque-Britol and Stanek (2009) stated the variation in the motivation ranges from amotivation to extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, leading to different processing and outcomes.

Fig 2.2 below illustrates this.

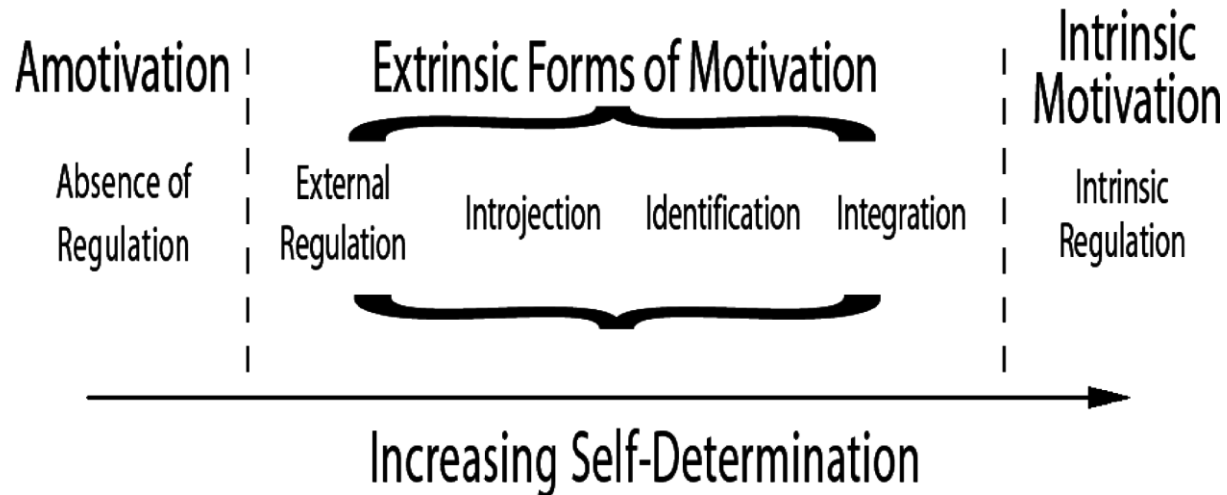


Figure 2.2: Self-Determination Continuum (types of motivation)

Source: Levesque-Britol and Stanek (2009); Deci and Ryan (2000)

From the continuum diagram above, there is a continuum from the least Self-Determined to the most Self-Determined. The forms of motivation include the following:

Amotivation which is defined as the state of lacking the intention to act and results in people not acting at all or acting without intent, thus just going through the motions (Deci & Ryan, 2000; La Guardia & Patrick, 2008). Amotivation therefore happens when people do not assign a value to a certain activity, or when they don't feel confident to do it; to them it just happens. This is characterized by the absence of regulation, lack of motivation, impersonal and non-intentional (Deci & Ryan, 2000; La Guardia & Patrick, 2008; Levesque-Britol & Stanek, 2009).

Amotivation is followed by 4 forms of extrinsic motivation, namely external regulation, introjections, identification and integration (Deci & Ryan, 2000; La Guardia & Patrick, 2008;

Levesque-Britol & Stanek, 2009). The external regulation's perceived locus of causality is external and is characterized by compliance, rewards and punishments as a regulatory process (Deci & Ryan, 2000). An example would be a person who acts in a certain way to avoid a certain outcome or obtain a positive outcome (Levesque-Britol & Stanek, 2009).

Introjection is somewhat external, however there is self-control, ego involvement, also rewards and punishments as the regulatory process (Deci & Ryan, 2000). An example would be a person who does something in order to avoid feeling guilty (Levesque-Britol & Stanek, 2009).

Identified regulation and integration are Self-Determined forms of motivation which are somewhat intrinsic and intrinsic respectively in terms of the perceived locus of causality under extrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2000; La Guardia & Patrick, 2008; Levesque-Britol & Stanek, 2009). Identification is characterized by personal importance, conscious and valuing in terms of the regulatory process of an individual (Deci & Ryan, 2000). A person would act in a certain way because they value the activities (Levesque-Britol & Stanek, 2009).

On the other hand in integrated, one goes beyond only valuing and would do the activities as they link with other aspects of one's life (Levesque-Britol & Stanek, 2009). It is characterized by awareness and synthesis with self (Deci & Ryan, 2000; La Guardia & Patrick, 2008).

Finally, intrinsic motivation has intrinsic regulation and is characterized by internal processing; there is interest, enjoyment and inherent satisfaction (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Research by Levesque-Britol and Stanek (2009) to assess the impact of autonomy supportive benefits indicated, however, that autonomy supportiveness of the environment was associated with higher levels of motivation and self-reported effort and value. Deci and Ryan (2000) support this, and

further indicated that support of both autonomy and competence facilitated human growth, whereas controlled behaviour undermined the growth. Therefore, parenting can be seen as a key environmental factor for adolescence; thus autonomy supportive parenting could enable motivation towards the identification of certain goals and aspirations which could be intrinsic and controlled resulting in extrinsic goals as indicated by literature.

Despite this, the conception of internalization and the types of regulation have shifted the primary differentiation within SDT from focus on extrinsic and intrinsic motivation to autonomous and controlled motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Autonomous motivation involves the experience of volition and choice whereas controlled motivation involves the experience of being pressured or coerced (Vansteenkiste & Lens, 2006). According to Deci and Ryan (1985), intrinsic motivation and well-internalized forms of extrinsic motivation are considered autonomous, on the other hand poorly-internalized forms of extrinsic motivation are considered controlled. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation therefore determines why the people pursue certain goals.

2.6 Goals and Aspirations

In relation to life goals or aspirations, work within SDT has focused on long term goals which fall into intrinsic and extrinsic aspirations. Goals and aspirations are the desires that people have that determine the future of a person (Deci & Ryan, 2008a, 2008b), this basically refer to the what of goal pursuits.

Deci and Ryan (2000) defined intrinsic goals as those pursuits that are generally congruent with the psychological needs for relatedness, autonomy and competence proposed by Self-Determination Theory. In structuring goals, research in SDT has found that individuals who are intrinsically motivated (inward), would be more likely to place an emphasis on goals which aspire individuals towards affiliation, personal development, generativity, self-acceptance, physical health and prosocial behaviour (community contribution) (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; Kasser & Ryan, 1993; 1996). The focus is on self. Research has shown that there is more positive growth and wellbeing in adolescents or children that adopt particularly the intrinsic goals and aspirations (Laible & Carlo, 2004; Williams et al., 2000). Deci and Ryan (2000) state that when needs have been met people tend to adopt intrinsic goals.

In contrast the extrinsic goals are seen to be primarily concerned with obtaining some reward or social praise; because they are typically a means to some other end or compensate for problems in need satisfaction, they are less likely to be inherently satisfying (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Individuals who are extrinsically motivated would be more likely to emphasize wealth, fame and image (or physical appearance), pursuing the attainment of social praise or rewards (Kasser & Ryan, 1993; 1996). Thus aspirations toward extrinsic goals focus outward, centering on external manifestations (Williams et al., 2000). As such extrinsic goals or aspirations are said to provide little or no direct satisfaction but provide some kind of substitute or compensation for lack of the need satisfaction, and therefore extrinsic goals are adopted when needs have been thwarted (Deci & Ryan, 2000, 2008a, 2008b, 2008c).

2.7 Goals and Aspirations in Relation to Parenting Styles

Therefore SDT highlights the role of the social context, which can either facilitate or undermine children's intrinsic motivation and internalization (Deci & Ryan; 2000, 2008a, 2008b, 2008c; Levesque-Britol & Stanek, 2009). Parents have a primary role to play as they are important in the socialization and subsequent control on the behaviour of their children in order to assist them to become well-adjusted adults in the society. As a primary base for instilling values into children, children learn certain things from their parents and adopt certain behaviours. Levesque-Britol and Stanek (2009) and Deci and Ryan (2008a) stated that intrinsic motivation and internalization are likely to function optimally when children's needs for autonomy are supported by parents and teachers. Autonomy support refers to the active support of a person's (child's) capacity to be self-initiating and autonomous, and it is said to be one of the key components of parenting with the others being involvement and structure (Deci & Ryan, 2000, 2008b; Joussemet et al., 2008).

Limited SDT research suggests that controlling, uninvolved parenting is associated with the development of strong relative extrinsic aspiration, whereas autonomy-supportive, involved parenting is associated with the development of stronger intrinsic aspirations (Kasser et al., 1995; Williams et al., 2000). Research by Jodl, Michael, Malanchuk, Eccles, and Sameroff (2001) showed that parents continue to have an influence on the goals and aspirations of adolescents as parents' values predicted adolescence aspirations and occupational aspirations via both direct and indirect pathways. This study indicated the potential role of parents as socializers of achievement-related values, and ultimately, adolescents' occupational visions of themselves in the future. Parents could also covertly or overtly encourage their children to pursue a particular

life path (goals and aspirations) by the parenting styles and practices they use (Cox, Hedberg & Deci, 2000; Jodl et al., 2001; Kasser et al., 1995; Williams et al., 2000).

Research by Williams et al. (2000) examined the adolescents' risk behaviors as a function of their extrinsic aspirations for wealth, fame, and image relative to their intrinsic aspirations for growth, relationships, and community; and as a function of their perceptions of their parents' autonomy support. The first study results indicated that using cigarettes had significantly stronger relative extrinsic aspirations than did adolescents who reported not smoking. In examining the function to parental perceptions, Williams et al. (2000) found that a composite risk behavior index for adolescents' use of tobacco, alcohol, and marijuana, and their having had sexual intercourse was significantly predicted by their relative extrinsic life goals, and both students' health-compromising behaviors and their relative extrinsic goals were significantly negatively predicted by their perceptions of their parents' autonomy support. This study builds on this study by further investigating the nature of goals and aspirations of the adolescents in association with the parenting styles and practices. Williams et al. (2000) is limited to autonomy support whereas this study explores many dimensions of parenting.

Also the results of the study conducted by Kasser et al. (1995) showed that teenagers who highly rated financial success aspirations were found to have less nurturing mothers. Furthermore, the results indicated that teens that grew up in less advantageous socio-economic circumstances and who were raised by mothers who valued their financial success were materially oriented.

Parenting therefore could account for a certain percentage of variation in the motivation of the children leading to the pursuit of certain goals and aspirations. There could however be other factors that affect as well, which may include culture and basic psychological needs. There has

been no research both internationally and locally that particularly looked at specific parental styles and practices to the nature of goals and aspirations of adolescence. This study intended to explore this relationship particularly in the South African context.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a developmental overview of the adolescence within which learners in secondary schools fall. The chapter outlined the Self-Determination Theory which provides the theoretical framework of the study. Furthermore, the chapter presented the parenting styles, motivation and goals and aspirations and related literature within the framework of the SDT. The following chapter presents the research methodology of the study.



CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a discussion of the methodology used in this study to investigate if there is a relationship between parenting styles and practices and the goals and aspirations of learners. The methodology is said to specify how a researcher goes about practically studying whatever they believe can be known (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006). This chapter therefore focuses on the methodology highlighting the research setting and design, sample characteristics, measuring instruments, the data collection and analysis procedures, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), descriptive analyses of the data and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Methodology

The current study employed a quantitative approach. Quantitative approach is said to be a research that has been the dominant strategy for conducting research before the 1970's, and though its influence has slightly decreased, it exerts a powerful influence in many quarters (Gephart, 1999; Miller and Brewster, 2001). A quantitative approach is a research approach where research is conducted using a range of methods which use measurement (numerical representation) to record and investigate aspects of social reality and manipulate observations, for the purpose of describing and explaining the phenomena that these observations reflect (Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Bless, Higson-Smith & Bless, 2000, p.156; Miller and Brewster, 2003). Babbie and Mouton (2001, p.49) explain three key aspects underpinning the quantitative

approach; firstly, “the emphasis is on quantification of constructs (assigning numbers to the perceived qualities of things)”, secondly, the role the variables play in describing and analyzing human behaviour and finally, reference to the central role given to control for sources of error in the research process (experimental or statistical control).

3.3 Research Design

A research design is defined as a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of research (Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter 2006, p.34). In other words it relates to the plans that guide the process of data collection and analysis and distinguishes the nature of observation. A quantitative methodological approach with a cross sectional correlation research design was used in this study. This design describes the statistical association between two or more variables and the researcher observes two or more variables at the point in time (Breakwell et al., 1995). This study uses a cross-sectional correlational design as it describes the statistical association between parenting styles (and practices) and goals and aspirations of learners, and the data were collected at that point in time.

3.4 Study sample

This study forms part of a bigger project being carried out in the Department of Social Work. The sample consisted of the Grade 11 learners attending secondary public schools in the Metro South District of the Western Cape Province of South Africa. The study sample consisted of 257 Grade 11 learners. The Grade 11 learners were identified for this study because they are at a critical and transitional stage where decisions are made based on their goals and aspirations for their futures. Stratification and random sampling techniques have been used to identify the

schools to be in the bigger project sample. Three schools were randomly selected and the socio-economic status of the different areas of the schools in the Metro South was taken into consideration. Metro South has been chosen as they are geographically convenient for the researcher. The mean age of the sample was 17.3 years.

3.5 Research Instruments

The study used self-reported questionnaires to collect the data (Appendix C). The study used the Parental Style and Dimension Instrument (PSDQ) and the Aspiration Index (AI) with additional items to collect biographical data such as gender, age and race.

3.5.1 Parental Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ)

PSDQ is a 32-item questionnaire which is used to assess the perception of parents' style of parenting of both mothers and fathers which was developed by Robinson, Mandleco, Oslen & Hart (2001). The PSDQ is based on the 3 primary parenting styles typologies which are authoritarian, authoritative and permissive. The authoritarian parenting style is characterised by physical coercion, verbal hostility, and non-reasoning/punitive dimensions. Authoritative parenting style has connection, regulation, and autonomy-granting dimensions. The dimension of indulgence is found in the permissive parenting style. Each dimension has between 4 and 5 items. Participants responded on a 4-point Likert scale with 1 = Not at all like her/him and 4 = A lot like her/him. Items included "*My parent encouraged me to talk about my troubles*" and "*My parent found it difficult to discipline me*". The Cronbach Alphas which assessed the internal consistency reliability were found to be .91 for Authoritative, .86 for Authoritarian and .75 for Permissive parenting styles (Robinson et al., 2001).

3.5.2 Aspiration Index

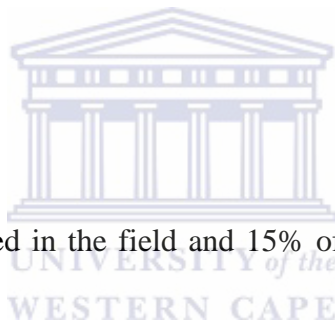
Aspiration Index is used to assess the learners' aspirations with 7 categories that include both intrinsic and extrinsic aspiration (Kasser & Ryan, 1996). It is quite flexible, allows assessment of various goals on various dimensions, and, most importantly, allows for the assessment of the relative centrality of particular goals within an individual's personal goal system (Kasser and Ryan, 1993). The Aspiration Index uses a 7-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 = not all to 7 = very, and has seven categories. The seven categories include: the extrinsic aspirations of wealth, fame and image; the intrinsic aspirations of meaningful relationships, personal growth and community contributions; and the aspiration of good health which turned out not to be clearly either extrinsic or intrinsic. The participants rated on three different levels namely (1) the importance to themselves of each aspiration, (2) their beliefs about the likelihood of attaining each, and (3) the degree to which they have already attained each. An example of items includes: **Life-goal:** *To be a very wealthy person. 1. How important is this to you?, 2 How likely is it that this will happen in your future? and 3. How much have you already attained this goal?* In this study the participants were asked to respond to only 1 and 2 on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = not very important/likely to 4 = very important/likely. Kasser and Ryan (1993) established Cronbach alpha values which ranged from 0.72 to 0.84, furthermore, Niemiec, Deci and Ryan (2009) established alphas that range from 0.64 to 0.92 on individual items which established the reliability of the instrument.

3.6 Research procedure

Permission was sought from the University of Western Cape higher degrees committee for ethical approval in order to carry out the research. Permission was granted from the Western

Cape Education Department to have research access to the schools that have been identified as part of the sample. The participating schools were contacted for firstly the pilot study and then the final data collection. Contact was made with the participating schools' principals, teachers and Grade 11 learners to establish a rapport. On the initial contact (face to face), the study was explained in detail, discussion took place on the confidentiality and anonymity of the study and rights of the participant (Appendix A), and the need for their parents and themselves to consent if they wanted to voluntarily participate in the pilot and final study. Once the learners' consent forms (Appendix B) had been signed, the questionnaires (Appendix C) were administered with each learner completing the parental styles and dimensions questionnaire, aspiration index and the PANAS scale.

3.7 Pilot Study and Results



Initially the instruments were tested in the field and 15% of the final sample was used for the pilot study.

3.7.1 Pilot Study

The purpose of the pilot study is to ensure that data collection tools are reliable, to test the language and explore the feasibility. If these are valid then actual data collection will take place. The pilot study is therefore done to justify the number of subjects required and is designed to answer the question "is a trial/experiment worth pursuing?" It should also provide details on how the decision of pursuing an experiment was made. It helps to determine the difficulties that would have been encountered in collecting the data and the time that is needed to do the questionnaires and the need to re-design. The pilot study was conducted with 15% of the

identified sample. The researcher also made provision for a test-retest method which measured the internal consistency of the questionnaires (Foxcroft & Roodt, 2008). To ensure reliability of the questionnaire, the instrument was administered to a second group of learners with the same characteristics of the sample. This guided the actual data collection.

3.7.2 Results of pilot

The raw data from the pilot study was coded, entered into the computer, cleaned (checking for missing responses and errors) and then analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Tables 3.1 and Table 3.2 show the Cronbach Alphas for the different variables measured. All the variables proved the reliability of the instruments used in the data collection that is importance, likelihood and achievement of intrinsic and extrinsic goals, care giving and overprotection of mother and father of the learner as shown below. In the pilot study the Parental Bonding Instrument was the initial instrument that was used.

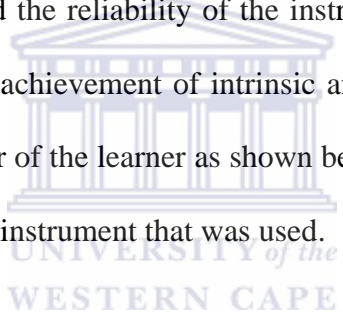


Table 3.1 Intrinsic and Extrinsic Goals alpha scores

	Extrinsic Cronbach Alpha	Intrinsic Alpha
Important	0.83	0.73
Likely	0.84	0.80
Attained	0.85	0.86

Table 3.2: Parenting alpha scores

	Mother (Cronbach alpha)	Father
Caregiving	0.70	0.59
Overprotection	0.56	0.65

3.7.3 Changes to the instrument

After the results of the pilot study, some changes were made to the instrument in order to improve the results for the actual study. The changes were made as follows:-

- (a) In the aspiration index the 3rd level within the aspirations section “*How much have you already attained the goal*” was removed. This was found not to be applicable to the participants or age group the study focused on because at the age group of the learners, most of these goals were unlikely to have been attained. Secondly, the wording and Likert scale was changed from 3 Likert “*Not at all*”, “*Moderately*”, “*Achieved*” to 4 Likert “*Not important*”, “*Somewhat important*”, “*Important*”, “*Very important*”. This was done to improve the relevance of the answers to the question and for easier understanding by participants.
- (b) The Parental Bonding Instrument was replaced by the Parental Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire due to the low alphas obtained in the pilot. In the parenting questionnaire, the parenting items were increased from 25 to 32 and certain parenting items were replaced using the Parental Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ) constructs

scoring key. The wording and Likert scale was also changed from 3 “*A lot like her/him*”, “*Somewhat like her/him*”, “*Not like her*” to 4 Likert “*Not at all like her/him*”, “*Not like her/him*”, “*Somewhat like her/him*”, “*A lot like her/him*”. This also allowed the participants to understand clearly.

3.7.4 Application of the instrument

Questionnaires were administered in a classroom setting during the times that were within their learning times defined by the principals. This allowed learners to be in a familiar setting and environment. The results of the pilot study are indicated in the reliability statistics in Table 3.1 and 3.2.

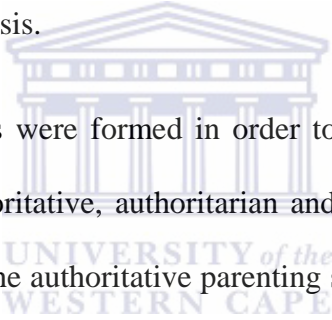
3.8 Data Collection Process

After the pilot study was completed and the researcher satisfied about its reliability then the actual data collection was done. The same procedure as in the pilot study was followed. Once the parental consent forms and learners’ consent forms had been signed the questionnaires were administered, with each learner completing the parental styles and dimensions instrument and the aspiration index. Openness was key to this discussion and also allowed for participants to ask questions and the researcher to clarify issues.

3.9 Data Analysis

Creswell (2003) specifies that the data analysis process takes into account the preparation of text, understanding data and the interpretation of the meaning of data. The data analysis for this study was therefore done in these different stages. From the instruments used to collect the data,

already the data has been coded (verbal responses converted to numbers) as a Likert Scale was used. The first step done was the preparation of the data by putting answers into data file and checking the missing responses. Raw data was then entered into the computer, and the created data was cleaned and checked to ensure that there are no illegitimate or impossible answers or responses. The computer program used in the data analysis of this study was the Statistical Program for Social Science (SPSS). A descriptive analysis was done to determine how responses to individual items are distributed, thus examining the frequency distribution for individual variables. The descriptive analysis was used to describe the sample characteristics. Inferential analysis was also done to determine the relationship and significance between the variables such as correlations and regression analysis.



The categories for parenting styles were formed in order to assist with the data analysis. The three parental styles, namely authoritative, authoritarian and permissive were used to compare goals and aspiration of learners. The authoritative parenting styles were formed using the 3 sub-factors of connection dimension (warmth and support), regulation dimension (reasoning/induction) and autonomy granting dimension (democratic participation). The authoritarian parenting styles were formed by sub-factors of physical coercion dimension, verbal hostility dimension and non-reasoning/ punitive dimension. The permissive parenting style was formed by the sub-factor of indulgent dimension. Table 3.3 in Appendix D shows the breakdown of items that were used to form the various sub-factors of the parenting styles.

In terms of the goals and aspirations, wealth, fame, image, personal growth, relationship, community and physical health form the life goals and aspirations that adolescents aspire to. From these, two categories were formed, namely the extrinsic and intrinsic goals. The category

of extrinsic goals was formed using the life goals of wealth, fame and image. The life goals of personal growth, community and relationship were used to form the intrinsic goals category. Physical health was not used in forming either intrinsic or extrinsic goals as it can be seen as being both intrinsic and extrinsic in nature, as such, it will not be discussed in the results.

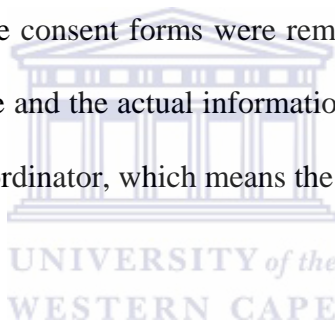
3.10 Validity and Reliability

In terms of the reliability of the study the instruments that were used in the study for collection provide consistency of measures. Both instruments, namely the Aspiration Index (AI) and the Parental Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ), have been found to have good reliability and validity based on several studies by Kasser and Ryan (1993; 1996) and Robinson et al., (2001) respectively. PSDQ possessed good internal consistency and re-test reliability. Further reassuring data have been derived by examining the test-retest reliability of the PSDQ over extended periods. The PSDQ has been shown to have satisfactory construct and convergent validity and to be independent of mood effects (Robinson et al., 2001). The pilot study determined the validity of the PSDQ and AI instruments using the Cronbach alpha and the re-test.

3.11 Ethical considerations

Permission was sought from the University of Western Cape higher degrees committee for ethical approval in order to carry out the research. Permission was also obtained from the Western Cape Education Department to have access to the schools that have been identified as part of the sample. Also permission was sought from the principals of the schools and the teachers of the participating Grade 11 learners. Clear explanations as to the aim and purpose of

the study were provided to all the participants, what was being asked of them, and the risks and benefits of participation were laid out (Nespor & Groenke, 2009). The participants (learners) were informed about their rights, confidentiality and anonymity and allowed full exercise in giving or refusing informed consent. The participants voluntarily participated in the study. Also the details of the researcher were provided for participants to contact if there was any need, and the opportunity for counselling was offered in case participants (learners) were affected during the research process. Personal identity was protected as the survey was coded and a number was assigned to each questionnaire for the purposes of identification during the process of analysis; therefore the participants remained anonymous. No names of schools were published or mentioned in any publications. The consent forms were removed from the questionnaire before the completion of the questionnaire and the actual information of the study was accessible to the student doing the study and the coordinator, which means the confidentiality, was upheld.



3.12 Conclusion

This chapter looked at the research design and methodology that was implemented within the study. The chapter also provided details on the instruments used for the collection of data. The reliability and validity tests results were also provided and the ethical considerations were discussed. Furthermore, it gave insight into the formation of various categories that were used in the data analysis procedure. The following chapter will look at the results that were obtained during the data analysis process.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses and presents the results of the current study. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for the analysis. The chapter therefore presents the frequencies, descriptive, inferential and regression analysis of the study. In this chapter the results are presented as (1) descriptive information about perceived parental styles and dimensions and goals and aspirations of Grade 11 learners, (2) the relationships between perceived parental styles and dimensions and goals and aspirations of the learners (3) the predictive characteristics of parenting styles on the identification of goals and aspirations of the learners. The list of variables is presented as a means of understanding the coding used in SPSS to conduct the analysis and Tables 4.1 and 4.2 (Appendix D) show the abbreviations used in the analysis of the data for parenting styles and practices and goals and aspirations respectively.

4.2 Analysis overview

The hypotheses for this study were created based on the aims and objectives of the study in Chapter 1. These are:

Hypothesis 1: The perceptions of parenting styles are positively related to goal identification of learners. This was tested by the correlations.

Hypothesis 2: The authoritative parenting style is positively related to the identification of intrinsic goals by learners. This was tested by a correlation.

Hypothesis 3: The authoritarian parenting style is positively related to extrinsic goals. This hypothesis was tested by a correlation.

Hypothesis 4: The permissive parenting style is positively related to the extrinsic goals. This hypothesis was tested by a correlation.

Hypothesis 5: Maternal and Paternal parenting styles are significant contributors to the variation in the pursuit of intrinsic and extrinsic goals by the learners. This was tested by the regression analysis.

4.3 Internal consistencies of instruments

Two instruments were used to measure the variables in this study, namely the Parental Styles and Dimensions Questionnaire (PSDQ), Robinson, Mandleco, Olsen & Hart (2001) and the Aspiration Index (AI), Kasser & Ryan (1996). The PSDQ measured the adolescents' perceptions of the parenting styles of both their mothers and fathers, whereas the AI measured the aspirations of the adolescents. The reliabilities of the two instruments were assessed using the Cronbach alphas. Table 4.3 indicates the Cronbach alphas of the instruments used in the adolescents' perceptions of the parenting styles of their fathers and mothers and their aspirations.

Table 4.3: Internal consistencies of the measures

Instrument	n (items)	Alpha
PARENTING STYLES AND DIMENSIONS QUESTIONNAIRE		
MAUTIVE	15	.81
FAUTIVE	15	.88
MAURIAN	12	.80
FAURIAN	12	.86
MPERM	5	.50
FPERM	5	.65
ASPIRATION INDEX		
INTGOALS	15	.86
EXTGOALS	15	.91

The Cronbach Alpha coefficients that are above .75 are said to be acceptable and above .60 as moderately acceptable (Anastasi, 1982). In this study, the Cronbach Alpha coefficients for the PSDQ were .81 and .88 for mother and father authoritative, .80 and .86 for mother and father authoritarian and .65 for father permissive parenting respectively. Cronbach Alpha coefficients of .86 and .91 were obtained for intrinsic goals and extrinsic goals respectively for the AI.

However, mother permissive alpha score is .5. A study by Neal (1996) indicated that there are no sacred acceptable or unacceptable levels of alpha, as in some cases measures with (conventional standards) low levels of alpha can still be useful. This score is deemed acceptable in this study though results will be interpreted with caution.

4.4 The demographics of the study sample

This section indicates an overview of the demographic characteristics of the learners (adolescents). The characteristics include gender, race, living arrangements, home language and marital status of the parents.

Table 4.4: Demographic descriptions of the participants

Variables	Total Sample n = 257
Gender	
Male	102 (39.7%)
Female	155 (60.3%)
Race	
Black African	110 (42.8%)
Coloured	74 (28.8%)
White	71 (27.6%)
Other	2 (0.80%)
Living arrangements	
Both parents	110 (42.8%)

Only Mother	94 (36.6%)
Only Father	13 (5.1%)
Guardian/Caregiver	40 (15.6%)
Home Language	
English	104 (40.5%)
Afrikaans	48 (18.7%)
IsiXhosa	101 (39.3%)
Other	4 (1.6%)
Marital status of Parent	
Married	124 (48.2%)
Live together but not married	8 (3.1%)
Single and do not live together because they have never been married	43 (16.7%)
Single because he/she is widowed	26 (10.1%)
Single because he/she is divorced	9 (3%)

The demographic results in Table 4.4 indicate that in terms of gender, more females (155 [60.3%]) than males (102 [39.7%]) participated in the study. The results show that the

participants identified themselves as Black African (110 [42.8%]) followed by Coloured (74 [28.8%]), White (71 [27.6%]) and Indian/Asian/Other (0.8%). The majority of participants (110 [42.8%]) live with both their parents. For those that do not live with both their parents, the majority (94 [36.6%]) lived with their mothers only, compared to only (13[5.1%]) that lived with their fathers only. The participants that lived with guardians or caregivers other than their parents constituted (40 [15.6%]). Although the majority of participants used English (104 [40.5%]) and IsiXhosa (101 [39.3%]) as their home language, some participants used Afrikaans (48 [18.7%]) and a few (4 [1.6%]) spoke other languages other than English, IsiXhosa and Afrikaans. Looking at the marital status of the parents, the majority of the learners' parents were married (124[48.2%]) while the least number lived with parents that live together but not married (8 [3.1%]).

4.5 Parental styles and practices

This section provides an overview of the perceptions of the participants of the parental styles and practices employed by their parents (mothers and fathers). Participants responded on a Likert scale of 1 to 4. The statistics are specific to study objective 1: To examine Grade 11 learners' perceptions regarding how they are parented. These include mean scores and standard deviation for the 3 parenting styles (Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive Styles) and their dimensions as presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Perceived parental styles and practices

Parenting Style and Practice	Mothers			Fathers	
	N	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Authoritative parenting style	257	3.11	.55	2.81	.72
Connection dimension	257	3.27	.65	2.87	.85
Regulation dimension	257	3.10	.64	2.89	.82
Autonomy dimension	257	2.97	.65	2.69	.75
Authoritarian parenting style	257	2.28	.62	2.12	.74
Physical Coercion dimension	257	2.00	.80	1.90	.88
Verbal hostility dimension	257	2.65	.72	2.37	.86
Punitive dimension	257	2.20	.70	2.10	.77
Permissive parenting style	257	2.47	.60	2.29	.70

The results indicate that participants perceived their both their mothers and fathers to be more authoritative ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 0.5$; $M = 2.81$, $SD = 0.72$) respectively. From Table 4.5, generally comparing mothers' to fathers' parenting styles, participants scored highly on all styles (Authoritative, Authoritarian and Permissive Styles) for mothers ($M = 3.11$, $SD = 0.55$; $M = 2.28$, $SD = 0.62$; $M = 2.47$, $SD = 0.60$) respectively as compared to fathers ($M = 2.81$, $SD = 0.72$; $M = 2.12$, $SD = 0.74$; $M = 2.29$, $SD = 0.70$) respectively. In terms of the dimensions, the majority of participants perceived their mothers' dimension to be much higher in connection ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 0.65$) and fathers' to be high in regulatory ($M = 2.89$, $SD = 0.82$). As an overview mothers are perceived to be more responsive, comforting, understanding, praising, and warm and so forth,

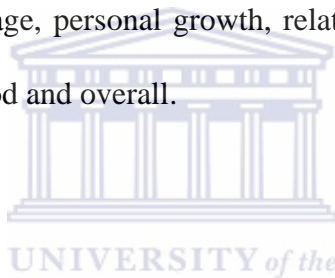
whereas fathers are perceived to be focused on rules and regulations. The least scores on the participants' perceptions of their parents were shown to be physical coercion for both parents; mothers ($M = 2.00$, $SD = 0.80$) and fathers ($M = 1.90$, $SD = 0.89$). Both parents are perceived to use less physical punishment such as spanking, grabbing and slapping as the mean scores are quite low in comparison to other dimensions.

4.6 Goals and aspirations of learners

The overview of the intrinsic and extrinsic goals and aspirations of the participants is provided in this section. This provides the results of the scores and standard deviation of the seven goal perspectives i.e. wealth, fame, image, personal growth, relationships, community and health in terms of their importance, likelihood and overall.

4.6.1 Extrinsic Life Goals

Extrinsic goals consist of wealth, fame and image. The mean scores and standard deviations for these three goals are presented in Tables 4.6 to 4.14. All tables were based on responses on a 4 Likert scale of 1 = not at all important, 2 = not important, 3 = important and 4 = very important for the importance of life goal, and 1 = not at all likely, 2 = not likely, 3 = likely and 4 = very likely for the likelihood of the life goal.



WEALTH

Table 4.6: Mean and Standard Deviation of wealth importance

Items	Total Sample		
	n	Mean	SD
<i>Wealth: Importance</i>			
To be a very wealthy person	257	3.18	.90
To have many expensive possessions	257	2.62	1.12
To be financially successful	257	3.53	.67
To be rich	257	2.83	1.04
To have enough money to buy everything I want	257	3.18	.91

Table 4.6 shows that participants scored to be financially successful ($M = 3.53$, $SD = .67$) as the most important. To have many possessions was scored the least, thus the importance attached to having many possessions is less compared to being wealthy, having expensive possessions, being rich and having enough money.

Table 4.7: Mean and Standard Deviation of wealth likelihood

Items	Total Sample		
	n	Mean	SD
<i>Wealth: Likelihood</i>			
To be a very wealthy person	257	3.00	.80
To have many expensive possessions	257	2.81	.87
To be financially successful	257	3.34	.97
To be rich	257	2.88	.91
To have enough money to buy everything I want	257	3.05	.86

Table 4.7 also indicated a higher value in how the participants view the likelihood of to be financially successful ($M = 3.34$, $SD = .97$) to happen in the future. The participants' scores indicated that to have many possessions ($M = 2.81$, $SD = .87$) was the least likely to happen in this category.

Table 4.8: Mean and Standard Deviation of wealth

Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
Wealth: Importance	257	3.07	.71
Wealth: Likelihood	257	3.02	.61
Wealth	257	3.04	.62

Table 4.8 indicates that in terms of wealth, participants scored higher on the importance ($M = 3.07$, $SD = .71$) as compared to wealth likelihood ($M = 3.02$, $SD = .61$), though not very different as the margin is small. Overall, the participants rated wealth highly as the mean score was between 3 and 4 ($M = 3.04$, $SD = .62$).

FAME

Table 4.9: Mean and Standard Deviation of fame importance

Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
<i>Fame: Importance</i>			
To have my name known by many people	257	2.90	.98
To be admired by many people	257	2.95	.92
To be famous	257	2.31	1.21
To have my name appear frequently in the media	257	2.26	1.10
To be admired by lots of different people	257	2.66	.96

As shown in Table 4.9, the participants indicated *to be admired by many people* ($M = 2.95$, $SD = 1.21$) as the most important under the life goal of fame. On the contrary, *to have my name appear frequently in the media* ($M = 2.26$, $SD = 1.10$) was rated the lowest as compared to the rest under the fame life goal.

Table 4.10: Mean and Standard Deviation of fame likelihood

Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
<i>Fame: Likelihood</i>			
To have my name known by many people	257	2.81	.90
To be admired by many people	257	2.94	.84
To be famous	257	2.41	1.12
To have my name appear frequently in the media	257	2.31	1.09
To be admired by lots of different people	257	2.64	.87

As indicated in Table 4.10, *to be admired by many people* ($M = 2.94$, $SD = .84$) was also rated highest as more likely to happen in the future of the participants than all items under fame. *To have my name appear frequently in the media* ($M = 2.26$, $SD = 1.10$) had the lowest mean score in this category; thus is seen as less likely to happen as compared to the other items under fame.

Table 4.11: Mean and Standard Deviation of fame

Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
Fame: Importance	257	2.61	.78
Fame: Likelihood	257	2.62	.71
Fame	257	2.62	.71

As indicated in Table 4.11, participants scored higher on the likelihood ($M = 2.62, SD = .71$) of fame as compared to the importance ($M = 2.61, SD = .78$). Overall, the participants also rated fame lower than wealth but average ($M = 2.62, SD = .71$).

IMAGE

Table 4.12: Mean and Standard Deviation of image importance

Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
<i>Image: Importance</i>			
To successfully hide the signs of aging	257	2.23	1.10
To have people comment often how attractive I look	257	2.30	1.05
To keep up with fashion in hair and clothing	257	2.39	1.09
To achieve the 'look' I've been after	257	2.73	1.01
To have an image others find appealing	257	2.73	.87

As indicated in Table 4.12, most of the participants rated *to have an image that others find appealing* ($M = 2.73, SD = .87$) and *to achieve the "look" I have been after* ($M = 2.73, SD = 1.01$) as being important under the image life goal. However, the least scores were found in the aspiration of *to successfully hide the signs of ageing* ($M = 2.23, SD = 1.10$).

Table 4.13: Mean and Standard Deviation of image likelihood

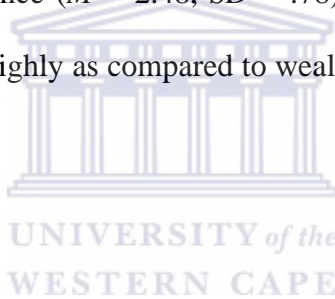
Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
<i>Image: Likelihood</i>			
To successfully hide the signs of aging	257	2.40	1.00
To have people comment often how attractive I look	257	2.55	.92
To keep up with fashion in hair and clothing	257	2.73	.97
To achieve the 'look' I've been after	257	2.79	.94
To have an image others find appealing	257	2.69	.82

To achieve the look I have been after ($M = 2.79, SD = .94$) was shown to be highly rated as the most important aspect of image, as indicated in table 4.13. On the contrary, *to successfully hide the signs of ageing* ($M = 2.40, SD = 1.00$) was rated by the participants as the least important in the image sub-scale.

Table 4.14: Mean and Standard Deviation of image

Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
Image: Importance	257	2.48	.78
Image: Likelihood	257	2.63	.61
Image	257	2.55	.63

As indicated in Table 4.14, participants scored higher on the likelihood ($M = 2.63$, $SD = .61$) of image as compared to the importance ($M = 2.48$, $SD = .78$). Overall, the participants also just above average and not rated very highly as compared to wealth with a mean score between 3 and 4 ($M = 2.55$, $SD = .63$).



4.6.2 Intrinsic life goals

The intrinsic goals consist of personal growth, community and relationships. The mean scores and standard deviations for these three goals are presented in tables 4.15 to 4.23. These tables are also based on responses on a 4 Likert scale 1 = not at all important/ likely, 2 = not important/ likely, 3 = important/ likely and 4 = very important/ likely for the importance and likelihood of life goals respectively.

PERSONAL GROWTH

Table 4.15: Mean and Standard Deviation of personal growth importance

Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
<i>Personal Growth: Importance</i>			
To grow and learn new things	257	3.63	.55
At the end of my life, to be able to look back on my life as meaningful and complete	257	3.61	.64
To choose what I do, instead of being pushed along by life	257	3.63	.64
To know and accept who I really am	257	3.77	.44
To gain insight into why I do the things I do	257	3.07	.77

From Table 4.15, it can be said that the majority of participants rate *to know and accept who I really am* ($M = 3.77, SD = .44$) as a very important aspect of their personal growth. The item that was indicated by the participants to be the least important under personal growth was *to gain insight into why I do things I do* ($M = 3.07, SD = .77$).

Table 4.16: Mean and Standard Deviation of personal growth likelihood

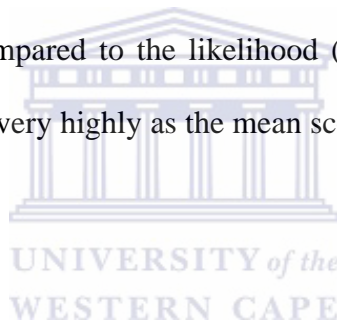
Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
<i>Personal Growth: likelihood</i>			
To grow and learn new things	257	3.44	.63
At the end of my life, to be able to look back on my life as meaningful and complete	257	3.39	.71
To choose what I do, instead of being pushed along by life	257	3.43	.73
To know and accept who I really am	257	3.63	.57
To gain insight into why I do the things I do	257	2.96	.83

According to Table 4.16, it has been shown that the majority of participants rated *to know and accept who I really am* ($M = 3.63$, $SD = .57$) as very likely to happen in their futures under the personal growth category. The item that was indicated by the participants to be the least likely to happen under personal growth was *to gain insight into why I do things I do* ($M = 2.96$, $SD = .83$).

Table 4:17 Mean and Standard Deviation of personal growth

Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
Personal growth: Importance	257	3.54	.37
Personal growth: Likelihood	257	3.37	.44
Personal growth	257	3.45	.37

As indicated in Table 4.17, participants scored higher on the importance of personal growth life goal ($M = 3.54$, $SD = .37$) as compared to the likelihood ($M = 3.37$, $SD = .44$). Overall, the participants rated personal growth very highly as the mean score was between 3 and 4 ($M = 3.45$, $SD = .37$).



RELATIONSHIPS

Table 4.18: Mean and Standard Deviation of relationship importance

Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
Relationships: Importance			
To have good friends that I can count on	257	3.65	.59
To share my life with someone I love	257	3.62	.67
To have committed, intimate relationships	257	3.00	.91

To feel that there are people who really love me, and whom I love	257	3.56	.67
To have deep enduring relationships	257	3.00	.88

From Table 4.18, it can be said that the majority of participants rated *to have good friends I can count on* ($M = 3.65, SD = .59$) as a very important aspect of relationships. Two items have been indicated by the participants to be the least important under relationships, thus *to have committed, intimate relationships* ($M = 3.00, SD = .91$) and *to have deep enduring relationships* ($M = 3.00, SD = .88$).

Table 4.19: Mean and Standard Deviation of relationship likelihood

Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
Relationships: Likelihood			
To have good friends that I can count on	257	3.33	.77
To share my life with someone I love	257	3.46	.74
To have committed, intimate relationships	257	3.00	.84
To feel that there are people who really love me, and whom I love	257	3.41	.74
To have deep enduring relationships	257	2.90	.84

Table 4.19 shows that for relationships the majority of participants rated *to share my life with someone I love* ($M = 3.46, SD = .74$) as very likely in comparison with the rest of the items. *To*

have deep enduring relationships ($M = 2.90, SD = .84$) has been rated as the least likely in comparison with the other items of relationships.

Table 4.20: Mean and Standard Deviation of relationships

Items	Total Sample		
	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Relationships: Importance	2.57	3.37	.49
Relationships: Likelihood	2.57	3.22	.52
Relationships	257	3.29	.46

As indicated in Table 4.20, participants scored higher on the importance ($M = 3.37, SD = .49$) of the relationship life goal as compared to the likelihood ($M = 3.22, SD = .52$). Overall, the participants rated relationships highly as the mean score was between 3 and 4 ($M = 3.29, SD = .46$).

COMMUNITY

Table 4.21: Mean and Standard Deviation of community importance

Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
<i>Community: Importance</i>			
To work for the betterment of society	257	3.12	.88
To assist people who need it, asking nothing in return	257	3.22	.81
To work to make the world a better place	257	3.40	.74
To help others improve their lives	257	3.33	.77
To help people in need	257	3.44	.70

The majority of participants rated *to help people in need* ($M = 3.44$, $SD = .70$) as very important for their community involvement life goal as indicated in Table 4.21. The item that was indicated by the participants to be the least important under community involvement life goal was *to work for the betterment of society* ($M = 3.12$, $SD = .88$) as compared to the rest of the items.

Table 4.22: Mean and Standard Deviation of community likelihood

Items	Total Sample		
	N	Mean	SD
<i>Community: Likelihood</i>			
To work for the betterment of society	257	2.84	.89
To assist people who need it, asking nothing in return	257	3.18	.79
To work to make the world a better place	257	3.17	.87
To help others improve their lives	257	3.09	.85
To help people in need	257	3.25	.78

In contrast, the majority of participants rated *to help people in need* ($M = 2.84$, $SD = .89$) as the least likely as their community involvement life goal as indicated in Table 4.22. *To work for the betterment of society* ($M = 3.12$, $SD = .88$) was scored as the most important of the community life goal as compared to the rest of the items.

Table 4.23: Mean and Standard Deviation of community

Items	Total Sample		
	n	Mean	SD
Community: Importance	257	3.30	.58
Community: Likelihood	257	3.11	.61
Community	257	3.20	.57

As indicated in Table 4.23, the participants rated the importance of community engagement ($M = 3.30$, $SD = .58$) higher as compared to the likelihood ($M = 3.11$, $SD = .61$). Overall, the majority of the participants rated the life goal of community high on both likelihood and importance as shown in Table 4.23 ($M = 3.20$, $SD = .57$).

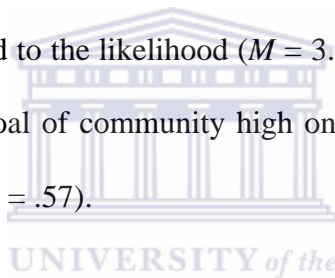


Table 4.24: Mean and Standard of importance and likelihood of intrinsic goals

Intrinsic: Importance	257	3.40	.36
Intrinsic: Likelihood	257	3.23	.40
Intrinsic Goals	257	3.32	.36

As shown in Table 4.24, the participants rated the importance of intrinsic goal perspective ($M = 3.40$, $SD = .36$) higher as compared to the likelihood ($M = 3.23$, $SD = .40$). Overall, the majority of the participants rated the total goal of intrinsic high on both likelihood and importance. Intrinsic goal perspective was therefore rated very high as it is between 3 and 4 as shown in Table 4.24 ($M = 3.32$, $SD = .36$).

Table 4.25: Mean and Standard of importance and likelihood of extrinsic goals

Extrinsic: Importance	257	2.72	.65
Extrinsic: Likelihood	257	2.76	.57
Extrinsic Goals	257	2.74	.58

As indicated in Table 4.25, the participants rated the likelihood of extrinsic goal perspective ($M = 2.70$, $SD = .65$) higher as compared to the likelihood ($M = 2.76$, $SD = .57$). Overall, the majority of the participants rated the total goal of extrinsic as average as the mean scores are above 2 but less than 3. As compared to the intrinsic goal perspective, the extrinsic goal perspective was scored lower as indicated in Table 4.25 ($M = 2.74$, $SD = .58$).

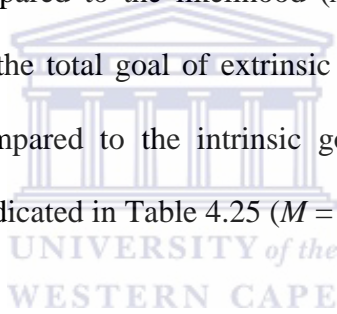


Table 4.26: Mean and Standard Deviation of extrinsic and intrinsic goal content

Goals and Aspirations	N	Mean	SD
Wealth	257	3.04	.62
Fame	257	2.62	.71
Image	257	2.55	.63
Personal growth	257	3.45	0.37
Relationships	257	3.29	.52
Community	257	3.20	.57
Intrinsic Goals	257	3.32	.36
Extrinsic Goals	257	2.74	.58

As indicated in table 4.26, the total scores for the goal perspective were highest in personal growth ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 0.37$), followed by relationships ($M = 3.29$, $SD = 0.52$), community engagement ($M = 3.20$, $SD = 0.57$) and wealth ($M = 3.04$, $SD = 0.62$). The participants aspired to personal growth, relationships, community involvement as well as to be wealthy. In comparison, the results have shown that the participants were less keen in terms of fame ($M = 2.62$, $SD = 0.71$) and image ($M = 2.55$, $SD = 0.63$). These scores were not that high in the goals and aspirations of the participants as shown by the lower scores as compared to the other 4 goal perspectives mentioned above.

Finally, as shown by the results in Table 4.26, the overall score of participants has shown that they are more intrinsically motivated ($M = 3.32$, $SD = 0.36$) as compared to being extrinsically motivated ($M = 2.74$, $SD = 0.58$). The results indicate that overall participants are more inclined towards community, personal growth and relationships goals rather than wealth, fame and image goals.

4.7 Determining associational aspects of the variables of the study

This section provides the inferential statistics relating to the association between parenting styles and goals of the participants, the significance and the prediction of intrinsic and extrinsic goals by maternal and paternal parenting. It shows the correlations and regression analysis results of the study. For the purpose of this study, this section will only present on parenting styles.

4.7.1 Correlations between parenting styles and goals of the participants

This section shows the correlations between the perceived parenting styles and practices and goals and aspirations of the participants using Pearson's Correlation. The results in this section are specific to objective 3 which intended to address the question "Do parenting styles and practices influence the identification of goals and aspirations of the Grade 11 learners?"

Table 4.27: Correlation between parenting styles and goals

	INTGOALS	EXTGOALS
MAURITIVE	.16*	.13*
FAURITIVE	.16**	.18**
MAURIAN	.16**	.34**
MPERM	.04	.16**
FPERM	.92	.23**

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

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

The results from table 4.27 indicated that for perceived mother parenting by the participants, authoritative and authoritarian parenting styles were significantly positively related to intrinsic goals ($r = .16, p < .05$), ($r = .16, p < .01$) respectively. These results suggest that higher authoritative and authoritarian parenting by mothers is associated with more identification of intrinsic goals by the participants. As for extrinsic goals, results indicated that mother authoritative, authoritarian and permissive also indicate a significantly positive relationship, ($r = .13, p < .05$), ($r = .34, p < .01$), ($r = .16, p < .01$), also suggesting a positive linear relationship. The results suggest that maternal authoritative results in higher association to intrinsic as compared to extrinsic whereas maternal authoritarian has a higher association with extrinsic goals than intrinsic goals. Maternal permissive parenting was therefore shown to be associated with the pursuit of extrinsic goals.

In terms of the father parenting styles, Table 4.27 indicated only father authoritative parenting style was found to be significantly positively related to intrinsic goals ($r = .16, p < .01$). from Table 4.27, father authoritative and father permissive parenting styles only authoritative were

established to be significantly positively related to extrinsic goals ($r = .18, p < .01$), ($r = .23, p < .01$) respectively. The results suggest that paternal authoritarian has a higher association with extrinsic goals than intrinsic goals and paternal permissive parenting was therefore shown to be associated with the pursuit of extrinsic goals.

4.7.2 Regression analysis

A linear regression analysis was done to examine the prediction of the independent variables (mother and father parenting styles) on the dependent variable (goals). This section therefore presents the regression coefficients which indicate how mother and father parenting predicted the identification of goals and aspirations by the participants. A hierarchical regression was also done to assess the improvement of the model at each stage. Initially step 1 was done with mother parenting, and then father parenting was added in step 2 for both intrinsic and extrinsic goals. Tables 4.28 to 4.30 indicate results ran with intrinsic and extrinsic goals as dependent and mother permissive, mother authoritative, mother authoritarian and father permissive, father authoritative, father authoritarian as predictors.

Table 4.28: Maternal and paternal parenting styles prediction of intrinsic goals

Parenting style	<i>F</i>	<i>F sig</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>t-sig</i>
Constant			2.00				
Maternal parenting	10.95	.000		.19		10.63	.000
Mautive			.39	.05	.17	2.76	.006
Maurian			.21	.05	.30	4.49	.000
Mperm			.00	.05	.01	0.07	.945
Constant			2.48				
Paternal parenting	4.14	0.07				17.44	.000
Fautive			.09	.14	.17	1.91	.06
Faurian			.01	.05	.30	-1.16	.288
Fperm			.08	.05	.01	1.50	.14

Note $\Delta R^2 = .11, p < .001$. [Maternal parenting]

Note $\Delta R^2 = .04, p < .001$. [Paternal parenting]

Results in Table 4.28 indicated that mother parenting predicts 11% ($\Delta R^2 = .11$) of the variance in intrinsic goals of the participants whereas father parenting only predicts for 4% ($\Delta R^2 = 0.04$). Results suggest a higher size of the relationship between mother parenting and intrinsic relationship as compared to father parenting. Both mother parenting and father parenting have

been shown to be significant positive predictors of intrinsic goals ($F = 10.15$; $p < 0.01$; $F = 4.14$, $p < 0.01$) respectively. The results from Table 4.28 indicated that in maternal parenting, authoritative ($t = 2.74$; $\beta = .17$; $p < .01$) and authoritarian parenting ($t = 4.49$; $\beta = .30$; $p < .01$) make significant positive contributions to the pursuit of intrinsic goals by the participants as compared to paternal parenting.

Table 4.29: Maternal and paternal parenting styles prediction of extrinsic goals

Parenting style	<i>F</i>	<i>F sig</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>t-sig</i>
Constant			2.71				
Maternal parenting	7.23	.000		.16		17.41	.000
Mautive			1.11	.04	.17	2.71	.007
Maurian			.16	.04	.27	4.04	.000
Mperm			-.73	.04	-.12	-1.71	.088
Constant			3.03				
Paternal parenting	2.08	.104		.12		25.36	.00
Fautive			.06	.04	.12	1.50	.14
Faurian			-.04	.04	-.07	-.92	.36
Fperm			.05	.05	.08	.98	.33

Note $\Delta R^2 = .07$, $p < .001$. [Maternal parenting]

Note $\Delta R^2 = .02$, $p < .001$. [Paternal parenting]

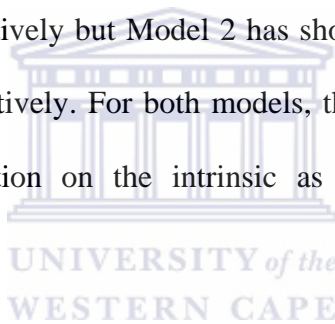
In terms of extrinsic goals, results from Table 4.29 showed that mother parenting accounted for 7% ($\Delta R^2 = .07$) of the variance in extrinsic goals and father parenting accounted for 2% ($\Delta R^2=0.02$). Similarly for intrinsic, the results also suggested a higher percentage of the relationship between mother parenting and extrinsic goals compared to father parenting. Only mother parenting showed to be a significant positive predictor of extrinsic goals ($F = 7.23, p < .001$). In comparison to paternal parenting, Table 4.30 results indicated that maternal authoritative ($t = 2.71; \beta = .17; p < .01$) and maternal authoritarian parenting ($t = 4.04; \beta = .27; p < .01$) made significant positive contributions to the pursuit of extrinsic goals as well.

Table 4.30: Regression analysis: Predicting intrinsic and extrinsic goals

INTRINSIC		
	<i>F</i>	<i>F sig</i>
<i>Step 1</i>	10.97	.000
<i>Step 2</i>	7.49	.000
EXTRINSIC		
	<i>F</i>	<i>F sig</i>
<i>Step 1</i>	6.31	.000
<i>Step 2</i>	5.36	.000

Note $\Delta R^2 = .12, p < .001$. [Maternal parenting – intrinsic]
 Note $\Delta R^2 = .15, p < .001$. [Maternal & Paternal parenting – intrinsic]
 Note $\Delta R^2 = .07, p < .001$. [Maternal parenting – extrinsic]
 Note $\Delta R^2 = .11, p < .001$. [Maternal & Paternal parenting – extrinsic]

Separate hierarchical regression conducted showed results in Table 4.30. The results have shown that mother parenting accounted for 12% ($\Delta R^2 = 0.12$) variation in intrinsic goals. When the second predictor i.e. father parenting was added, the value increased to 15% ($\Delta R^2 = 0.15$). Also as shown in Table 4.33, for extrinsic goals an increase has been shown with the addition of the father parenting, resulting in 11% ($\Delta R^2 = 0.11$) in Model 2 from 7% ($\Delta R^2 = 0.07$) in Model 1. The results indicated that when both mother and father parenting were combined, a higher variation was predicted in both intrinsic and extrinsic goals. The influence on the identification is therefore shown to be stronger with combined parenting in model 2 for intrinsic and extrinsic goals. Model 1 significantly improved our ability to predict the intrinsic and extrinsic goals ($F = 10.97, p < .001$); ($F = 6.31, p < .001$) respectively but Model 2 has shown to be even better ($F = 7.4, p < .001$); ($F = 5.36, p < .001$) respectively. For both models, the results have shown that parental styles indicated a higher prediction on the intrinsic as compared to extrinsic goals and aspirations.



4.8 Summary

Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to present the results of this study. The frequencies mean scores and standard deviations, and correlations of goals and aspirations and perceived parenting styles and practices were presented. The variation of intrinsic and extrinsic goals as predicted by both maternal and paternal parenting was also presented. Results of the combined parenting prediction on both intrinsic and extrinsic goals were also presented. The following chapter provides the discussion of results in relation to past research, a summary and conclusions of the study.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the discussion of the results in relation to aims and hypotheses of the study integrating the conceptual framework in Chapter 2. It also provides the summary and conclusion, limitations of the study and finally policy recommendations and recommendations for further study.

5.2 Parental style and practices

According to the Self-Determination Theory, the environment can either enhance or hinder the process of motivation and wellbeing of the children (Chirkov et al., 2003). So when the environment is enhancing it is supportive, but when it is hindering a controlling environment is created. Work within SDT has focused on autonomy supportive and controlling parenting. Conger et al, (1977, p.114) state that parents have been viewed as the primary force influencing the identity formation process as a child moves from the first to the second decade of life. Erickson (1968) also stated this significance in development of oneself. Parenting and associated variables have been well documented as a developmental process and socialization tool especially in early phases of development that is early childhood, middle childhood and adolescence (Baumrind, 1966). In other words, the role parenting plays during the process of development and socialization of the child is paramount. One of the objectives of this study was

to determine the perceived parenting styles and practices of Grade 11 learners. This objective has been achieved.

This study showed that maternal parenting styles were perceived to be more prevalent than paternal parenting styles. These results propose that mothers are perceived to have a more prevalent influence in the lives of adolescents than fathers. This could be due to the nature of parent child relationships that children may have with their mothers. Research has indicated that in terms of parenting, child development requires a certain minimum level of responsible care (Neisser, 1996) and mothers are normally seen as the primary functions in the lives of children. Supporting literature indicates mothers are more involved and know the picture of the everyday activities of the child Hiramura et al., (2010). This could be the reason why maternal parenting has been found in this study to be prevalent.

Mother authoritative parenting styles were the most dominant. Authoritative parental style is characterized by warmth, supportive and nurturing aspects (Baumrind, 1966). Research has shown that authoritative parenting type is associated with fostering personal and social responsibility and enhances self-development (Glasglow et al., 1997; Baumrind; 1991). Authoritative parenting has also been shown to be associated with positive self-worth and self-discovery (Laible & Carlo, 2004; Vieno et al, 2009). This is supported by past research, which states that autonomy and independence are critical in adolescence (Developmental Psychology Newsletter, 2011; Laible and Carlo; 2004; Russell & Russell, 1987) Furthermore research indicates that parents who are warm (accepting), firm and democratic, will have an adolescent who enjoys psychological and behavioural advantages over their peers who did not have this. They are also found to do better in school, are more self-reliant, report less psychological distress

and engage in less delinquent activities (Steinberg, et al., 1991). Research within the framework of the SDT has indicated a clear link between perceptions of parental autonomy support and psychosocial functioning amongst adolescents (Joussemet et al., 2008).

In terms of paternal parenting, the study indicated that fathers were also more authoritative though they were scored lower than maternal parenting. In the South African context this could be true, that mothers are more involved than fathers. There could be remnants of the patriarchal ideologies of apartheid as most likely fathers are absent in parts of the child's development, as they are likely to be the key economic providers for the family. This could lead to less time and contact with children, hence less rated in comparison to mothers who may always be present. This does not give fathers enough grounds for the parenting role all the time. These are similar to the findings by Overbeek et al. (2007) which indicated that fathers are not primary supportive figures for children in comparison to the role of mothers. However, research suggests that although in many nuclear families they may not function as primary supportive figures, the impact of their behaviours is dependent on the individual's cognition of "*what fathers are*" instead of comparing with maternal (Overbeek et al., 2007). This may not necessarily lead to bad outcomes in children even if the contact with the fathers may be less.

5.3 Goals and aspirations of learners

Self-Determination Theory posits that when the 3 basic psychological needs are satisfied (autonomy, competence and relatedness), individuals are motivated to develop towards their fullest potential, therefore developing towards a unified sense of self. In relation to life goals or aspirations, work within SDT has focused on long term goals which fall into intrinsic and extrinsic aspirations (Deci & Ryan, 2008a; 2008b; 2008c). Individuals are likely to aspire

towards certain things in life and these aspirations could either be intrinsic or extrinsic in nature. The second objective of this study was to determine the nature of goals and aspirations of the learners, and this goal has been achieved. There are 7 aspirations that individuals can aspire towards, namely wealth, fame, image, community, personal growth relationships and health. This study focused on the 6 aspirations that make up the intrinsic and extrinsic goals.

This study has shown that the learners highly see personal growth, relationships and community involvement as their main aspirations. This is true in the South African context as it is a country where “*Ubuntu*” (I am because you are) is highly valued, and research on parenting in Africa has shown that there is collective parenting where aunties and uncles play a major role also in parenting (Garcia, Pence & Evans, 2008). This makes relationships valued in the African society. In other words, adolescents could value relationship and community as they understand the concept of ubuntu, that they cannot do it alone through their experience of how they were raised.

On the contrary to the attachment of high value to the three intrinsic goals of personal growth, relationships and community involvement, the aspiration of wealth was also rated quite high indicating that it is highly valued by the adolescents. The study showed the adolescents want to be “*financially successful*”. Having grown up in the South African context where the socio-economic status is low, it is possible for adolescents to aspire for financial prosperity. These are similar to the findings by Kasser et al. (1995) which showed that that teens that grew up in less advantageous socio-economic circumstances and raised by mothers who valued their financial success were materially oriented.

The results of this research have suggested that the learners pursued goals which were collectively intrinsic. Intrinsic goals comprise of personal growth, relationships and community

involvement. The learners particularly emphasized the importance of personal growth, followed by relationships and community. Research within the framework the SDT has shown that there is more positive growth and wellbeing in adolescents or children that adopt particularly the intrinsic goals and aspirations (Laible & Carlo, 2004; Williams et al., 2000). This study has shown similar results to western research as it has indicated the pursuit intrinsic goals over extrinsic goals.

In contrast the participants have shown that on specific identification of individual goals, a strong incline towards wealth which is an extrinsic goal content, therefore does it mean that in the South African context this would be detrimental to their wellbeing? Research by Ingrid et al., (2009) showed that the extrinsic aspirations are not necessarily detrimental, but may well contribute to wellbeing, as these research posits could be the case in less rich countries like Croatia. In South Africa, people live in low socio-economic environments and learners would naturally be inclined towards aspirations of wealth as a desire to bringing success or financial security/resources where none existed before, and thereby promoting their wellbeing. Although the research suggests that extrinsic goals and aspirations eventually result in ill-being, Sheldon and Kasser (2008) also found that when people were under psychological ‘threat’, such as unemployment or the possibility of dying, they were more likely to pursue extrinsic goals and aspirations rather than intrinsic goals. Thus Grade 11 learners could naturally desire to be wealthy based on their circumstances in order to acquire a better life.

Also, the participants showed ‘normal’ adolescent development, where one desires financial security, need to achieve something in life and looking good which could be a possible influence of media and family circumstances in goal setting (Bray et al., 2010).

5.4 The association between parental styles on goals and aspirations of the learners

Self-Determination Theory highlights the role of the social context, which can either facilitate or undermine children's intrinsic motivation and internalization (Williams et al., 2004). Parental styles and practices could be important in the motivation for certain goals and aspirations. Deci and Ryan (2008a) state that intrinsic motivation and internalization are likely to function optimally when children's needs for autonomy are supported by parents and teachers. Objective three of this study was to determine the association between parenting styles and practices and the goals and aspirations of the Grade 11 learners. This objective has been achieved.

The study therefore established the association and importance of parenting in the pursuit of goals and aspirations. The study indicated overall maternal parenting is positively significantly related with the pursuit of both intrinsic and extrinsic goals and aspirations. Maternal authoritative and authoritarian parenting has shown to be significantly positively related to the pursuit of both intrinsic and extrinsic goals and aspirations and mother permissive to extrinsic goals and aspirations. Paternal authoritative and authoritarian were significantly positively related to both intrinsic and extrinsic goals and aspirations, whereas father permissive was significantly positively related to only extrinsic. These results propose that a more positive parenting style such as authoritative parenting results in the pursuit of intrinsic goals and aspirations whereas negative parenting such as permissive parenting results in the pursuit of extrinsic goals.

Previous studies within the framework of SDT have shown a strong relationship between parenting and socio-emotional outcomes of children in terms of self-esteem and self-worth, pro-social behaviour, performance in school, sympathy, social competence and behaviour (Aunola &

Nurmi, 2004; Conger et al., 1977; Criss et al., 2002; Dumas et al., 2009; Endicott & Liossis, 2005; Grusec & Goodnow, 1994; Laible & Carlo, 2004; Vieno et al., 2009;). As such, in relation to the Western studies, one could expect identification of intrinsic goals as this study portrayed prevalent maternal authoritative parenting.

This study identified two aspects of similarity and difference to the past parenting research in relation to life domains such as goals and aspirations of the adolescents. It is imperative to note that this is the first study to examine the association of parenting styles and practices on goals and aspirations both nationally and internationally.

This study is similar to Western research as it is expected that the learners would be inclined towards intrinsic goals, as the parental style significantly dominating is mother authoritative parenting. This is expected as limited SDT research suggests that autonomy-supportive, involved parenting is associated with the development of stronger intrinsic aspirations whereas controlling, uninvolved parenting is associated with the development of strong relative extrinsic aspiration, (Kasser et al., 1995; Williams et al., 2000). Baumrind (1991) also suggests that in authoritative parenting, the disciplinary methods are supportive and they want children to be assertive as well as socially responsible, and self-regulated as well as cooperative. Literature therefore supports the results of this study; thus the desires of the participants to pursue intrinsic goals such as community involvement.

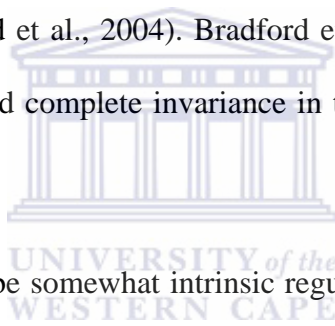
Furthermore, Deci and Ryan (2000), Deci and Ryan (2008b), Joussemet, et al. (2008) indicated in their findings that environments which provide autonomy support lead to qualitatively superior forms of motivation characterized by high levels of self-determination; that is intrinsic motivation and identified regulation that in turn are conducive to more adaptive cognitive,

affective and behavioural outcomes. Comparing with the research by Deci and Ryan (2000; 200b) and Joussement et al. (2008), the results of this study are therefore supported by literature in the sense that personal growth has been shown to be highly valued. In other words, authoritative parenting would lead to be motivated to pursue intrinsic goals.

This study has indicated that perceived maternal and paternal authoritative parenting was significant in the influence of intrinsic goals and aspirations. This study has also indicated that participants valued wealth highly which is an extrinsic component. These findings suggest perhaps that various other factors influence the relationship between aspirations and parenting styles among Grade 11 learners in South Africa, one of them being cultural, specific to context and orientation as stated by Ingrid et al., (2009). The pursuit of more materialistic goals does not decrease or lower an individual's wellbeing, if it helps them to become more financially stable. 18 year olds who aspire to financial success more than other intrinsic goals, have mothers who are less nurturant and possibly grow up in less advantageous socio-economic circumstances (Kasser et al., 1995). However, the fact that they grew up in low socio-economic circumstances could be true. Financial independence could also be emphasized and encouraged by parents who use a more positive parenting style.

These varied results can also be explained by the diversity in population in South Africa in terms of race, socio-economic status, culture and language. The other studies have focused only on the links without taking the cultural/ racial perspective into consideration (Karavasilis, Doyle & Markiewicz, 2003; Laskey & Cartwright-Hatton, 2009). Lau, Litrownik, Newton, Black & Everson (2006) study showed that while warm parental attitudes protected against later problems among White children, these attitudes exacerbated early problems in Black children. These

findings suggested racial variability and generalizability in the effects of parenting in the adjustment of the children. Also as mentioned before, cultural differences result in different practices; therefore outcomes of children may be different in different settings. An international study was done to assess the associations between inter-parental conflict (IPC), parenting and individual functioning among data gathered from school-going adolescents in Bangladesh, China, India, Bosnia, Germany, Palestine, Colombia, United States and three ethnic groups within South Africa (Bradford, Barber, Olsen, Maughan, Erickson, Lance, Ward & Stolz, 2004). Specifically, they tested the validity of the spillover dynamic found in much research whereby marital conflict spills over into parenting and into the psychological and social functioning of children and adolescents (Bradford et al., 2004). Bradford et al., (2004) highlight that previous analysis of these same data showed complete invariance in the linkages between parenting and adolescent functioning.



Furthermore, perhaps there could be somewhat intrinsic regulation of an individual even if they are highly value a component of wealth that is portrayed to be extrinsically motivated. This can be explained by the continuum of motivation where motivation could be extrinsic (wealth) even if the regulation and basis are intrinsic (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Levesque-Britol & Stanek, 2009). The possible explanation would be that even if adolescents could be extrinsically driven (wealth), they could still be adopting personal importance, conscious and valuing (regulatory) and still do activities that link with other aspects of one's life, for example, high awareness and synthesis with self (integrated) which are not detrimental (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Research also shows that maternal parenting, particularly authoritative and authoritarian, was a significant positive predictor of intrinsic and extrinsic goals and aspirations. There was a high

variation in goals and aspirations due to maternal in comparison to father parenting, which indicates in terms of the identification of goals and aspirations, the adolescents are more responsive to mothers than fathers. Combined parental styles for mothers and fathers indicated a stronger association in the pursuit of both intrinsic and extrinsic goals and aspirations. The results indicate that with both parents, the relation on the identification of goals and aspirations is stronger. This study proposed a stronger association on the pursuit of extrinsic goals and aspirations than intrinsic goals and aspirations. The study supports that positive parenting in the South African context leads to the pursuit of intrinsic goals in the adolescents.

These varying results could also be due to the changes in parenting through the developmental stages of the children. Though maternal authoritative parenting reflected to be dominant and significant predictors, the other styles also indicated the association and predictions. As also mentioned, culture could explain these different results. The other studies have focused only on the links without taking the cultural/ racial perspective into consideration (Karavasilis et al., 2003; Laskey & Cartwright-Hatton, 2009). Lau et al (2006) study showed that while warm parental attitudes protected against later problems among White children, these attitudes exacerbated early problems in Black children. These findings suggested racial variability and generalizability in the effects of parenting in the adjustment of the children.

Also as mentioned before, cultural differences results in different practices; therefore outcomes of children may be different in different settings. An international study was done to assess the associations between inter-parental conflict (IPC), parenting and individual functioning among data gathered from school-going adolescents in Bangladesh, China, India, Bosnia, Germany,

Palestine, Colombia, United States and three ethnic groups within South Africa (Bradford et al., 2004).

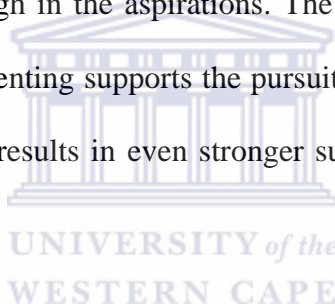
5.6 Limitations of the study

In this study, data was collected only in the Metro South district of the Western Cape which might not be truly representative of the population (urban and rural) of South Africa. The results may only apply to this study population and not to a generalization across the country. The proportion of Black Africans was high compared to the other races which may have limitations and bias to the cultural context of this study. This suggests that culture could be a possible confounding variable. Initially, it was very difficult to get consent from the parents of the learners of the study. The data collection process became longer than expected and also some of the schools were not open for research to be done in their schools. Another possibility of a limitation could be that some respondents may not have answered correctly on their parenting experiences, particularly if there were participants who experienced abuse, as parenting is a sensitive issue. Maybe some participants tend to give some information that they feel the researcher wants to hear, and some participants also do not want to disclose certain issues for fear that this can be used against them, or that they may benefit directly. Explaining in detail to the participants that the information will be confidential, and clarification of the main purpose, was done to try and minimize this. Another possible source of error could be in the way the participants understood the questions and their interpretation of the questions. This was minimized by clarification and availability of the researcher for questions. Another issue was the fact that there was too much data to deal with and careful selection and more time was dedicated to deal with this in order to achieve good and accurate results for the research. Despite these

possible sources of error in the data collected, the researcher has confidence that the results produced in this study will be almost a true reflection of the real situation. It is also hoped that it serves to recommend further research and advanced study on this particular issue.

5.6 Conclusion

Current study results have shown the evidence that parenting styles and practices are significant contributors to the pursuit of goals and aspirations of the adolescents. Work within the SDT postulates the identification of intrinsic as the desired and extrinsic as negative to wellbeing, the results of this study suggest that adolescents are inclined towards intrinsic goal pursuit even though wealth was also ranked high in the aspirations. The study has shown that in the South African context, more positive parenting supports the pursuit of intrinsic goals in comparison to extrinsic and combined parenting results in even stronger support for the adolescents and their wellbeing.



5.7 Recommendations

This research has presented key information particularly for the future development of the youth in a South African context. It presented new findings on the influence of parenting styles and practices on goals and aspirations both nationally and internationally. This presented new information particularly on the effects of variables in a non-Western and a culturally diverse country such as South Africa. Furthermore, these particular findings can provide key information and insight to all stakeholders working with children and youth on what and why learners set certain goals and how they can be supported and encouraged in their development.

The evidence has also shown that combining parenting of both maternal and paternal resulted in stronger influence of the identification of goals and aspirations. This indicates the importance of the need for the involvement of both parents in the growth and development of the child particularly during adolescence. At present the law stipulates the involvement of significant others in the life of the child, particularly parents; however, rolling out of legislation should be done in a way that the ordinary person can be reached and understand. The study raises the need for comprehensive parenting and communication programs by the government and social service sector. Parenting programs should be designed to strategically strengthen the mobilization of fathers to engage on a higher level of engagement with their children and the active participation of children in the programs as well.

This study also revealed the pursuit of intrinsic goals which reinforce positive wellbeing as supported by the SDT and stronger desire for wealth which may not be detrimental to the wellbeing of the adolescents. It therefore recommends the pursuit of either intrinsic or extrinsic goals or aspirations if they best meet their growth and development.

The study recommends further research to determine the differences in the influence of the parental styles and practices on the pursuit of goals and aspirations in populations practising different cultures (religions), and also a comparison between rich and poor families. It would be interesting to see substantial research which incorporates more factors that relate to the pursuit of goals and aspirations of the adolescents, including peer influence. It also recommends advanced study that would incorporate the continuum of motivation and factors that relate to that. As the results may only apply to this study population and not to a generalization across the country, it

is recommended that a much bigger sample which includes the different geographical provinces be included.

Last but not least, it would be interesting to have a longitudinal study which also establishes comparison with changing times and conditions in South Africa.



References

Anastasi, A. (1982). *Psychological testing*. (5th ed.). New York, NY: Macmillan.

Aunola, K., & Nurmi, J. E. (2004). Maternal affection moderates the impact of psychological control on a child's mathematical performance. *Development Psychology*, *40*(6), 965-978.

Baumrind, D. (1966). Effects of authoritative parental control on child behaviour. *Journal of Child Development*, *37*(4), 887-907.

Baumrind, D. (1967). Child care practices interceding three patterns of preschool behaviour. *Genetic psychology Monographs*, *75*(1), 43-88.

Baumrind, D. (1991). The influence of parenting styles on adolescent competence and substances. *Journal of Early adolescence*, *11*(1), 58-95.

Baumrind, D. (2005). Patterns of parental authority and adolescent autonomy. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, *108*, 2005+.

Babbie, E., & Mouton, J. (2001). *The practice of social research*. Cape Town: Oxford Press.

Bless, C., Higson-Smith, C., & Higgins, C. (2000). *Fundamentals of social research methods: African perspectives*. Cape Town: Juta company Ltd.

Bradford, K., Barber, B. K., Olsen, J. A., Maughan, S. L., Erickson, L. D., Ward, D., & Stolz, H. E. (2004). A multi-national study of interparental conflict, parenting, and adolescent functioning: South Africa, Bangladesh, China, India, Bosnia, Germany, Palestine, Colombia, and the United States. *Marriage & Family Review*, *35*(3-4), 107-137.

Bray, R., Gooskens, I., Moses, S., Kahn, L., & Seekings J. (2010). *Growing up in the new South Africa: Childhood and adolescence in post-apartheid Cape Town*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Breakwell, G. M., Hammond, S., & Fife-Shaw. (1995). *Research methods in psychology*. London: Sage publications.

Chirkov, V., Ryan, R.M., Youngmee, K., & Kaplan, U. (2003). Differentiating autonomy from individualism and independence: A Self-Determination Theory perspective on internalization of cultural orientations and wellbeing. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84(1), 97-110.

Conger, K.J., Conger, R.D., & Scaramella, L.V. (1977). Parents, siblings, psychological control and adolescent adjustment. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 12, 113-138.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). *Research Design: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. SAGE: Thousand Oaks.

Criss, M.M., Pettit, G.S., Bates, J.E., Dodge, K.A., & Lapp, A.L. (2002). *Family adversity, positive peer relationships and children externalizing behaviour: A longitudinal perspective on risk and resilience*, 73(4) 1220 – 1237.

Darling, N. (1999). *Parenting Style and Its Correlates*. Eric Digest: ERIC Clearinghouse on Elementary and Early Childhood Education Champaign IL.

Darling, N., & Steinberg, L. (1993). Parenting style as context: An integrative model. *Psychological Bulletin*, 113, 487 – 496.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination of human behavior*. New York: Plenum.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). Self-Determination Theory and the facilitation of intrinsic motivation. *American Psychology Association*, 55(1), 68-78.

Deci, E.L., & Ryan, R.M. (2004). *Handbook of self-determination research*. New York: University of Rochester Press.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008a). Self-Determination Theory: A macrotheory of human motivation, development and health. *Canadian Psychology*, 49(3), 182-185.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008b). A self-determination approach to psychotherapy: The motivational basis for effective change. *Canadian Psychology*, 49, 186-193.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2008c). Self-Determination Theory and the role of basic psychological needs in personality and the organization of behaviour. In O.P. John, R. W. Robbins & L. A. Pervin (Eds.), *Handbook of personality theory and research* (pp 654 – 618). New York: The Guilford Press.

Deroma, V. M., Lassiter, K.S., & Davis, V. A. (2004). Adolescence involvement in discipline decision-making. *Behaviour modification*, 28(3), 420-437.

Developmental Psychology Newsletter . (2011). Sage Publications

Dornbusch S. M., Ritter, P. M., & Steinberg, L. (1991). Community influences on the relation of family statuses to adolescent school performance: Differences between African-American and non-Hispanic whites. *American Journal of Education*, 99, 543-567.

Dresner, R., & Grolnick, W. S. (1996). Constructions of early parenting, intimacy and autonomy in young women. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 13(1), 25 -39.

Dumas, T.M., Lawford, H., Tieu, T., & Pratt, M.W. (2009). Positive parenting in adolescence and its relation to low point narration and identity status in emerging adulthood: A longitudinal analysis. *Development Psychology*, 45(6), 1531-1544.

Endicott, R., & Liossis, P. (2005). Australian adolescent's perceptions of their parents: an analysis of parenting styles, communication and feelings towards parents. *Youth Studies Australia*, 24(2), 24-31.



Erikson, E.H. (1968). *Identity: youth and crisis*. New York: Norton.

Foxcroft, C., & Roodt, G. (2008). *Introduction to psychological assessment in the in the South African context*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Garcia, M., Pence, A., & Evans, J. L. (2008). *Africa's future, Africa's challenge: early childhood care and development in Sub-Saharan Africa*. The International Bank of Reconstruction and Development, USA: The World Bank.

Glasgow, K. L., Dornbusch, S. M., Troyer, L., Steinberg, L., & Ritter, P. L. (1997). Parenting styles, adolescents' attributions and educational outcomes in nine heterogenous high schools. *Child development*, 68(3), 507 – 29.

Gray, M.R., & Steinberg, L. (1999). Unpacking authoritative parenting: Reassessing a multidimensional construct. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 61, 574-587.

Grolnick, W. (2003). *The psychology of parental control: How well-meant parenting backfires*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Grusec, J.E., & Goodnow, J.J. (1994). Impact of parental discipline methods on the child's internalization of values: A re-conceptualisation of current points of view. *Developmental Psychology*, 30(1), 4-19.

Hiramura, H., Uji, M., Shikai, N., Chen, Z., Matsuoka, N., & Kitamura, T. (2010). Understanding the externalizing behaviour from children's personality and parenting characteristics. *Psychiatry Research*, 175, 142-147.

Human, A. (2010). *An examination of the relationship between psychologically controlling parenting and antisocial behaviour of emerging adults in the Faculty of Community and Health Science (CHS)*. Unpublished masters thesis, University of the Western Cape, Cape Town, South Africa.

Ingrid, B., Majda, R., & Dubravka, M. (2009). Life goals and wellbeing: are extrinsic aspirations always detrimental to wellbeing? *Psychological topics*, 18 (2), 317 – 334.

Jodl, K. M., Michael, A., Malanchuk, J., Eccles, J. S., & Sameroff, A. (2001). Parents' roles in shaping early adolescents' occupational aspirations. *Child Development*, 72(4), 1247–1265.

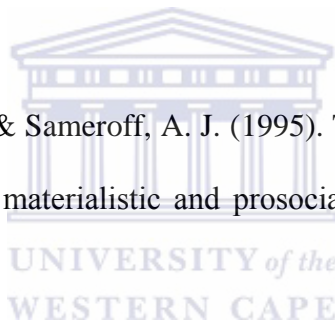
Joussemet, M., Laundry, R., & Koestner, R. (2008). A Self-Determination Theory perspective on parenting. *Canadian Psychological Association*, 49(3), 194-200.

Karavasilis, L., Doyle, A.B., & Markiewicz, D. (2003). Associations between parenting style and attachment to mother in middle childhood and adolescence. *International Journal of Behavioural Development, 27* (2), 153–164.

Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (1993). A dark side of the American dream: Correlates of financial success as a central life aspiration. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 65*(2), 410-422.

Kasser, T., & Ryan, R. M. (1996). Further examining the American dream: Differential correlates of intrinsic and extrinsic goals. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 22*(3), 280-287.

Kasser, T., Ryan, R. M., Zax, M., & Sameroff, A. J. (1995). The relations of maternal and social environments to late adolescents' materialistic and prosocial values. *Development Psychology 31*(6), 907 – 914.



Knutson, J. F., De Garmo, D. S., & Reid, J. B. (2004). Social disadvantage and neglectful parenting as precursors to the development of antisocial and aggressive child behaviour: Testing a theoretical model. *Aggressive Behaviour, 30*, 187-205.

Kritzas, N., & Grobler, A. A. (2005). The relationship between perceived parenting styles and resilience during adolescence. *Journal of Child and Adolescent Mental Health, 17*(1), 1-12.

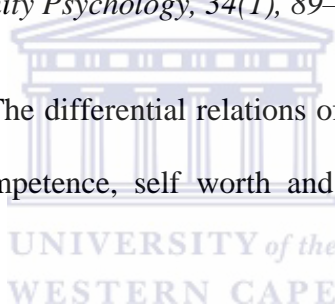
La Guardia, J. G., & Patrick, H. (2008). Self-Determination Theory as a fundamental theory of close relationships. *Canadian Psychology, 49*, 2001-2009.

Laskey, B. J. & Cartwright-Hatton, S. (2009). Parental discipline behaviours and beliefs about their child: associations with child internalizing and mediation relationships. *Child: care, health and development*. Department of Clinical Psychology, Salford, Manchester, UK: Royal Manchester Children's Hospital.

Latouf, N. C. (2008). *Parenting styles affecting the behavior of five-year olds*. Unpublished masters thesis, University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.

Lau, A. S., Litrownik, A. J., Newton, R. R., Black, M. M., & Everson, M. D. (2006). Factors affecting the link between physical discipline and child externalizing problems in black and white families. *Journal of Community Psychology*, 34(1), 89–103.

Laible, D.J., & Carlo, G. (2004). The differential relations of maternal and paternal support and control to adolescence social competence, self worth and sympathy. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 19(6), 759-785.



Louw, D. A., Van Ede, D. M., & Louw, A. E (Eds.). *Human Development (2nd Edition)*. Kagiso Tertiary, Cape Town, South Africa.

Levesque-Bristol, C., & Stanek, L. R. (2009). Examining Self-Determination of service learning course. *Teaching of Psychology*, 36; 262-266.

Maccoby, E., & Martin, J. (1983). Socialization in the context of the family: Parent-child interaction. E. Hetherington & P. Mussen (eds.), *Handbook of Child Psychology, Vol 4 Socialization, Personality, and Social Development (pp. 1-101)*. New York: Wiley.

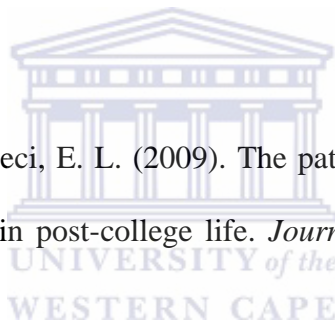
Makwakwa, T. (2011). *Emerging adulthood: Examining the relationship between parenting styles and decision-making of university resident students*. Unpublished masters thesis, University of the Western Cape, Cape Town, South Africa.

Miller, R. L., & Brewster, J. D. (2003). *The A-Z of social research*. London: Sage.

Moremi, D.M. (2002). *Parenting styles and the adjustment of black South African Grade 1 children in single parent households*. Unpublished masters thesis. University of South Africa, Pretoria, South Africa.

Neil, S. (1996). Uses and abuses of coefficient alpha. *American Psychological assessment*, 8(4), 350-353.

Niemiec, C. P., Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2009). The path taken: Consequences of attaining intrinsic and extrinsic aspirations in post-college life. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 43, 291-306.



Neisser, U. (1996). Intelligence: Knowns and unknowns. *American Psychologist*, 51(2), 77-101.

Nespor, J., & Groenke, S. (2009). Ethics, problem framing, and training in qualitative inquiry. *Qualitative Inquiry*, 15(6), 996-1012.

Overbeek, G., ten Have, M., Vollebergh, W., & de Graaf, R. (2007). Parental lack of care and overprotection: Longitudinal associations with DSM III R disorders. *Soc Psychiatry Epidemiol*, 42, 27 -93.

Parker, G. (1983) *Parental Overprotection: A risk factor in psychosocial development*. New York: Grune & Stratton.

Parker, G., Tupling, H., & Brown. (1979). A parental bonding instrument. *British Journal of Medical Psychology*, 52, 1-10.

Robinson, C. C., Mandleco, B., Oslen, S. F. & Hart, C. H. (2001). The parenting styles and dimensions Questionnaires (PSDQ). In B. F. Perlmutter & G. W. Holden (Eds.), *Handbook of family measurement techniques* (pp. 319 -321). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Russell, G., & Russell, A. (1987). Mother-child and father-child relationships in middle childhood. *Child Development*, 58(6), 1573 - 1585.

Sheldon, K. M., Kennon, M., & Kaser, T. (1998). Pursuing personal goals: skills enable progress, but not all progress is beneficial. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 24(12), 1319+.

Steinberg, L. (2001). We know some things: Parent-adolescent relationships in retrospect and prospect. *Journal of research in adolescence*, 11(1), 1- 19.

Steinberg, L., Mounts, N. S., Lamborn, S. D., & Dornbusch, S.M. (1991). Authoritative parenting and adolescent adjustment across varied ecological niches. *Journal of research in adolescence*, 1(1), 19-36.

Steinberg, L., Lamborn, S. D., & Darling, N. (1994). Over-time changes in adjustment and competence among adolescents from authoritative, authoritarian, indulgent, and neglectful families. *Child Development*, 65(3), 754-770.

Suchman, N. E., Rounsaville, B., de Coste, C. & Luthar, S. (2007). Parental control, parental warmth, and psychosocial adjustment in a sample of substance-abusing mothers and their school-aged and adolescent children. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treat*, 32(1), 1-10.

Terre Blanche, M., Durrheim, K., & Painter, D. (eds). (2006). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences* (2nd ed.). Cape Town: UCT Press.

Vallerand, R.J., Pelletier, L.G., & Koestner, R. (2008). Reflections on Self-Determination Theory. *Canadian Psychological Association*, 49(3), 257–262.

Vansteenkiste, M. & Lens, W. (2006). Intrinsic versus extrinsic goal contents in Self Determination Theory: Another look at the quality of academic motivation. *Educational Psychologist*, 41 (1), 19-31.

Vieno, A., Nation, M., Pastore, M., & Santinello, M. (2009). Parenting and antisocial behaviour: A model of the relationship between adolescent self-disclosure, parental closeness, parental control and adolescent antisocial behaviour. *Developmental Psychology*, 45(6), 1509-1519.

Watson, J. (2004). *Literature review: child neglect*. Centre for Parenting and Research, Department of Community Services: Ashfield.

Wakefield, L. (2011). *Lecture 1: International, regional and constitutional Law* (Power point slides). Unpublished manuscript. Community Law Centre, University of Western Cape, Cape Town, South Africa.

Williams, C. G., Cox, E. M., Hedberg, V. A., & Deci, E.L. (2000). Extrinsic life goals and health-risk behaviours in adolescence. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 30(8), 1756-1771.



UNIVERSITY *of the*
WESTERN CAPE

Appendix A:

INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title: The influence of parenting styles and practices in the identification of goals and aspirations of learners in secondary schools

What is this study about?

This is a research project being conducted by Alice R. Moyo a Masters Student at the University of the Western Cape. We are inviting you to voluntarily participate in this research project because you are Grade 11 learners at a secondary school. The purpose of this research project is to determine and examine the association of parenting styles and practices on the identification of goals and aspirations of Grade 11 learners.

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

You will be asked to complete a questionnaire. This questionnaire will ask you questions about:

- You, and the goals and aspirations you have for your future.
- Your parents, specifically, the relationship they have with you.

This questionnaire will be completed at school, with permission of your parents, principal and teachers at a time which is not disruptive to your learning. Completion of the questionnaire will be less than 30 minutes.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?

We will do our best to keep your personal information confidential. To help protect your confidentiality, the information you provide will be totally private; no names will be used so there is no way that you can be identified as a participant in this study. The information will be treated with anonymity and confidentiality. Your name will not be reflected on the questionnaire. The information obtained from the survey will be collated with the information from other completed surveys. Therefore there will be no way to connect you to the survey questionnaire.

What are the risks of this research?

There are no known risks in participating in the study.

What are the benefits of this research?

Information about this topic is limited. This research is not designed to help you personally, but the results may help the investigator learn more about the goals and aspirations of learners in secondary schools. Since information about this particular research in South Africa is relatively limited, this study will increase the knowledge for (1) parents, (2) teachers/school, (3) practitioners and (4) the broader society. Furthermore, this study will highlight the pivot role parenting plays in the goals and aspirations we have for our future.

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 take part in the study. If you decide to participate in this research study, you may stop participating at any

time. If you decide not to participate in this study or if you stop participating at any time, you will not be penalised or lose any benefits to which you otherwise qualify.

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

Every effort has been taken to protect you from any harm in this study. If however, you may feel affected you can be referred to your nearest community resource for assistance.

What if I have questions?

This research is being conducted by R. Moyo, a Masters Student in the Social Work Department at the University of the Western Cape. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Alice R. Moyo at: 0213702500/6 or email: 3112674@uwc.ac.za. Should you have any questions regarding this study and your rights as a research participant or if you wish to report any problems you have experienced related to the study, please contact my supervisor: Dr. Roman (Supervisor – Chairperson – Social Work Department) 0219592277/2970 or email: nroman@uwc.ac.za.

Appendix B: CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

Title of Research Project:

The influence of parenting styles and practices in the identification of goals and aspirations of learners in secondary schools

The study has been described to me in a language that I understand and I freely and voluntarily agree to participate. 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.....

Witness.....

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:

Student's Name: Alice R. Moyo

University of the Western Cape

Private Bag X17, Belville 7535

Telephone: 021 370 2500/6; Email: 3112674@uwc.ac.za

Appendix C: Questionnaire

PLEASE COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS BY TICKING YOUR RESPONSE					
GENDER	MALE		FEMALE		
AGE					
GRADE					
NAME OF SCHOOL					
RACE	COLOURED	BLACK AFRICAN	WHITE	INDIAN/ASIAN	
I live with	Both my parents	Only mother	Only father	Guardian/Caregiver	
Home Language	English	Afrikaans	IsiXhosa	Other	
My parents are:	Married	Live together but not married	Single and do not live together	Single because he/she is	Single because he/she is

			because they have never been married	widowed	divorced
--	--	--	--------------------------------------------	---------	----------

ASPIRATIONS

Everyone has long-term Goals or Aspirations. These are the things that individuals hope to accomplish over the course of their lives. In this section, you will find a number of life goals, presented one at a time, and we ask you three questions about each goal. (a) How important is this goal to you? (b) How likely is it that you will attain this goal in your future? and (c) How much have you already achieved this goal thus far? Please **CHOOSE FROM THE FOLLOWING (NOT AT ALL, MODERATELY OR ACHIEVED)** in answering each of the three questions about each **LIFE GOAL**.

To be a very wealthy person

How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely

To grow and learn new things

How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely

To have my name known by many people

How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely

To successfully hide the signs of aging

How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To work for the betterment of society				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To be physically healthy				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To have many expensive possessions				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
At the end of my life, to be able to look back on my life as meaningful and complete				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To be admired by many people				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen	Not likely	Somewhat	Likely	Very likely

in your future?	at all	likely		
To share my life with someone I love				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To have people comment often about how attractive I look				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To assist people who need it, asking nothing in return				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To feel good about my level of physical fitness				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To be financially successful				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To choose what I do, instead of being pushed along by life				

How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To be famous				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To have committed, intimate relationships				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To keep up with fashions in hair and clothing				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To work to make the world a better place				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To keep myself healthy and well				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely

To be rich				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To know and accept who I really am				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To have my name appear frequently in the media				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To feel that there are people who really love me, and whom I love				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To achieve the "look" I've been after				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To help others improve their lives				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important

How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To be relatively free from sickness				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To have enough money to buy everything I want				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To gain increasing insight into why I do the things I do				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To be admired by lots of different people				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To have deep enduring relationships				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To have an image that others find appealing				

How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To help people in need				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To have good friends that I can count on				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely
To have a physically healthy life style				
How important is this to you?	Not important	Somewhat important	Important	Very important
How likely is it that this will happen in your future?	Not likely at all	Somewhat likely	Likely	Very likely

MOTHER FORM				
<i>This questionnaire lists various attitudes and behaviours of parents. As you remember your MOTHER would you place a tick in the most appropriate box next to each question.</i>				
Was responsive to my feelings or needs	Not at all like her	Not like her	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Used physical punishment as a way of disciplining me.	Not at all like her	Not like her	Somewhat like her	A lot like her

Took my desires into account before asking me to do something.	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
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.	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Explained to me how she/he felt about my good and bad behaviour.	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Spanked me when I was disobedient.	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Encouraged me to talk about my troubles.	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Found it difficult to discipline me.	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Encouraged me to freely express myself even when I disagreed with them.	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Punished me by taking privileges away from me with little if any explanations.	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Emphasized the reasons for rules.	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Gave comfort and understanding when I was upset	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Yelled or shouted when I misbehaved.	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Gave praise when I was good.	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Gave into me when I caused a commotion about something.	Not at all like her	Not her like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her

Exploded in anger towards me.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Threatened me with punishment more often than actually giving it.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Took into account my preferences in making plans for the family.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Grabbed me when I was being disobedient.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Stated punishments to me and did not actually do them.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Showed respect for my opinions by encouraging me to express them.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Allowed me to give input into family rules.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Scolded and criticized me to make me improve.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Spoiled me.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Gave me reasons why rules should be obeyed.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Uses threats as punishment with little or no justification.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Had warm and intimate times together with me.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Punished me by putting me off somewhere alone with little if any explanations.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her

Helped me to understand the impact of my behaviour by encouraging me to talk about the consequences of my own actions.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Scolded and criticized me when my behaviour didn't meet their expectations.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Explained the consequences of my behaviour.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her
Slapped me when I misbehaved.	Not at all like her	Not her	like	Somewhat like her	A lot like her

FATHER FORM

This questionnaire lists various attitudes and behaviours of parents. As you remember your FATHER would you place a tick in the most appropriate box next to each question

Was responsive to my feelings or needs	Not at all like him	Not him	like	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Used physical punishment as a way of disciplining me.	Not at all like him	Not him	like	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Took my desires into account before asking me to do something.	Not at all like him	Not him	like	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
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.	Not at all like him	Not him	like	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Explained to me how she/he felt about my good and bad behaviour.	Not at all like him	Not him	like	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Spanked me when I was disobedient.	Not at all like him	Not him	like	Somewhat like him	A lot like him

Encouraged me to talk about my troubles.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Found it difficult to discipline me.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Encouraged me to freely express myself even when I disagreed with them.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Punished me by taking privileges away from me with little if any explanations.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Emphasized the reasons for rules	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Gave comfort and understanding when I was upset	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Yelled or shouted when I misbehaved.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Gave praise when I was good.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Gave into me when I caused a commotion about something.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Exploded in anger towards me.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Threatened me with punishment more often than actually giving it.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Took into account my preferences in making plans for the family.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Grabbed me when I was being disobedient.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him

Stated punishments to me and did not actually do them.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Showed respect for my opinions by encouraging me to express them.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Allowed me to give input into family rules.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Scolded and criticized me to make me improve	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Spoiled me.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Gave me reasons why rules should be obeyed.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Uses threats as punishment with little or no justification.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Had warm and intimate times together with me.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Punished me by putting me off somewhere alone with little if any explanations.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Helped me to understand the impact of my behaviour by encouraging me to talk about the consequences of my own actions.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Scolded and criticized me when my behaviour didn't meet their expectations.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Explained the consequences of my behaviour.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him
Slapped me when I misbehaved.	Not at all like him	Not like him	Somewhat like him	A lot like him

THE PANAS

This scale consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions.

Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you experienced these feelings and emotions over the PAST FEW WEEKS.

Use the following scale to record your answers.

1

VERY SLIGHTLY OR NOT
AT ALL

2

A
LITTLE

3

MODERATELY

4

QUITE A BIT

5

EXTREMELY

	Very slightly or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
Interested					
Distressed					
Excited					
Upset					
Strong					
Guilty					
Scared					
Hostile					
Enthusiastic					

Proud					
Irritable					
Alert					
Ashamed					
Inspired					
Nervous					
Determined					
Attentive					
Jittery					
Active					
Afraid					



Appendix D: Parental styles and dimensions constructs

Table 3.3: Parenting styles and sub-factors

Parenting style	Sub-category	Questions from PDSQ
Authoritative parenting style	Connection dimension (warmth and support)	<p>7. Encouraged me to talk about my troubles</p> <p>1. Responsive to my feelings or needs</p> <p>12. Gave comfort and understanding when I was upset</p> <p>14. Gave praise when I was good.</p> <p>27. Had warm and intimate times together with me.</p>
	Regulation dimension (reasoning/ induction)	<p>25. Gave me reasons why rules should be obeyed</p> <p>29. Helped me to understand the impact of my behaviour by encouraging me to talk about the consequences of my own actions</p> <p>31. Explained the consequences of my behaviour</p> <p>11. Emphasized the reasons for rules</p> <p>5. Explained to me how she/he felt about my good and bad behaviour</p>
	Autonomy dimension (granting democratic participation)	<p>21. Showed respect for my opinions by encouraging me to express them.</p> <p>9. Encouraged me to freely express myself even when I disagreed with her/him.</p> <p>22. Allowed me to give input into family rules.</p> <p>3. Considered my desires before asking me to do</p>

			something.
			18. Took into account my preference in making plans for the family.

Authoritarian parenting style	Physical dimension	coercion	<p>2. My mother/father used physical punishment as a way of disciplining me.</p> <p>6. My mother/father spanked me when I was disobedient.</p> <p>19. My mother/father grabbed me when I was being disobedient.</p> <p>32. My mother/father slapped me when I misbehaved.</p>
	Verbal hostility dimension		<p>16. My mother/father exploded in anger towards me.</p> <p>13. My mother/father yelled or shouted when I misbehaved.</p> <p>23. My mother/father scolded or criticised me to make me improve.</p> <p>30. My mother/father scolded or criticized me when my behaviour didn't meet her expectations.</p>
	Non-Reasoning / Punitive dimension		<p>10. My mother/father punished me by taking privileges away from me with little if any explanation.</p> <p>26. My mother/father used threats as punishment with little or no justification.</p> <p>28. My mother/father punished me by putting me off somewhere alone with little if any explanation</p> <p>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."</p>

Permissive
parenting style

Indulgent dimension

20. Stated punishments to me and did not actually do them

17. Threatened me with punishment more often than actually giving it.

15. Gave in to me when I caused a commotion about something

8. Found it difficult to discipline me.

24. Spoiled me



Table 4.1: Parenting styles and practices abbreviations

Abbreviation	Variable
MAUTIVE	Mother Authoritative Parenting Style
MCONNECT	Mother Connection Dimension
MREG	Mother Regulation Dimension
MAUT	Mother Autonomy Dimension
MAURIAN	Mother Authoritarian Parenting Style
MPHYS	Mother Physical Coercion
MVERBH	Mother Verbal Hostility
MPUNIT	Mother Punitive (Non-Reasoning) Dimension
MPERM	Mother Permissive Parenting Style
FAUTIVE	Father Authoritative Parenting Style
FCONNECT	Father Connection Dimension
FREG	Father Regulation Dimension
FAUT	Father Autonomy Dimension
FAURIAN	Father Authoritarian Parenting Style
FPHYS	Father Physical Coercion
FVERBH	Father Verbal Hostility
FPUNIT	Father Punitive (Non reasoning) Dimension
FPERM	Father Permissive Parenting Style

Table 4.2: Goals and aspirations abbreviations

Abbreviation	Variable
WEALTHImp	Wealth Importance
WEALTHLikeli	Wealth Likelihood
FAMEImp	Fame Importance
FAMELikeli	Fame likelihood
IMAGEImp	Image Importance
IMAGELikeli	Image Likelihood
PGImp	Personal Growth Importance
PGLikeli	Personal Growth Likelihood
COMTYImp	Community Importance
COMTYLikeli	Community Likelihood
HEALTHImp	Health Importance
HEALTHLikeli	Health likelihood
INTGOALS	Intrinsic goals
EXTGOALS	Extrinsic goals