THE EFFECT OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT ON THE IDENTITY STYLES OF ADOLESCENTS

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ABSTRACT

Adolescence is a phase when youth engage in risk-taking behaviour, which could result in poor physical and psychological adjustment. Risk behaviour is a result of poor decision-making. Decision-making is associated with exploration and commitment, also referred to as identity styles. During the phase of developing an identity style, parenting is challenging; however, research reveals that parental involvement, as well as a more positive approaches to parenting, have been observed to influence child behaviour and outcomes.

For parenting and identity styles, this is not very clear. Therefore, the aim of this current study was to assess the effect of parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents. The study employed a quantitative, cross-sectional, correlational research design. The respondents were conveniently sampled. The final sample was Grade 10 learners in the Metro East Education District, with a mean age of 16.01 (*SD*=1.04). Data were collected through a self-reported questionnaire, which comprised three parts: demographic details of participants, Parent Involvement Mechanisms Measure, and Identity Styles Scale. Data were analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

The results revealed that informational identity style was the most prevalent identity style, which was significantly and positively predicted, with 18% of variance. For mothers, maternal modelling and maternal instruction significantly predicted the informational style. For fathers, paternal reinforcement significantly and positively predicted commitment style, with 14% of variance. Recommendations are provided based on the findings of this current study.

KEYWORDS

Identity Styles

Informational Identity style

Normative Identity Style

Diffuse-Avoidant Identity Style

Commitment

Parent Involvement

Adolescence

DECLARATION

I declare that *The effect of parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents* is my own work, has not been submitted for any degree, or examination at any other University, and all the sources I have used or quoted, have been referenced and acknowledged by complete references.

Full names: Marsha Harker-van Heerden

Date: December 2018

Signed:  .....

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my extended family siblings, who experienced some kind of emotional void in their lives through adolescence.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background and rationale

Adolescence is a phase in the cycle of life, when youth experiment with risk behaviour (Moffit, 1993), which, consequently, could result in poor physical and psychological adjustment (Willoughby *et al.,* 2007). In adolescence, negative and depressive symptoms are experienced regularly (Hankin *et al.,*1998; Wickrama, Conger &Abraham, 2008),which often result in risk behaviour, because of choices or decisions made. These decisions, according to Marcia's (1996) model, are associated with exploration and commitment, also known as identity styles. Identity development in adolescence is a process, during which individuals create a stable sense of self, dealing with various personal goals, values and beliefs (Schwartz, Cote & Arnett, 2005). Since this process occurs in adolescence, it is crucial to have a clear set of identity related goals, values and beliefs, which facilitate identity styles. The positivity of this process is that adolescents would be influenced less by their peers, and be able to refrain from making the wrong choices (Dumas, Ellis,& Wolfe, 2012).In contrast, failure in identity development (identity diffusion), the absence of identity-related goals, values and beliefs, may cause interference and confusion in the decision-making process. The individual, therefore, could become confused and reluctant, when important life choices have to be made (Bosch &Card, 2011), and most likely be subject to increased risk for several personal and behavioural problems, including academic difficulty and poor peer relations (Berzonsky&Kuk, 2000). When adolescents experience such confusion and uncertainty, it is important for the parents to intervene and maintain a good parent-child relationship with the adolescents, who would need that parental support and control, through positive parenting (Achard, Neumark-Sztainer, Story, Perry, 2006; Ungar, 2004). Once identity styles are established, individuals have succeeded in the identity development process.

Parenting during the adolescent phase becomes challenging, with children experiencing mood changes, as well as the development of identity styles (Klimstra, Hale, Raaijmakers, Branje, &Meeus, 2010). Research indicates that positive parenting directs a child to experience positive behaviour outcomes, while negative parenting equates to negative, or risk-taking behaviour outcomes (Wang *et al.,* 2013). Parents are often referred to as 'good' or 'bad'

parents (Baumrind, 1978). Parenting can be defined in many ways, but the customary understanding of parenting is to nurture, care, guide, show love and support to children (Kerby, Laris&Rolleri, 2007). A parent's goal is to act as caregiver, and raise well-adjusted children, who are competent and responsible adults (Kerby *et al.*, 2007). As caregiver, a positive aspect of this role is to be an involved parent, implying that parental monitoring, parental encouragement and parental instruction form part of effective parental involvement (Lui, Black, Algina, Cavanaugh, Dawson, 2010). Parental involvement implies showing interest in the children's actions on a daily basis, showing support, spending more time with the children and providing guidance on certain structures and boundaries (Brookes, 2011). The goal of parental involvement in a child's life is to create an understanding of certain actions, to communicate consequences of certain actions, to be consistent in discipline, and to ensure that they understand the reasons (Roman, 2014). Developmentally, therefore, parenting encourages a shift from dependence to independence, which, ultimately, results in providing choices for which decisions need to be made (Aquilino, 2006; Allen&Daly, 2002). The same applies to identity styles.

It has been determined that parenting plays an important role in the development of the identity styles of adolescents (Koeke&Denissen, 2012; Smits, Soenens, Luyckx, Duriez, Berzonsky, &Goossens, 2008). According to Berzonsky (1990), an informational style is a typical process experienced by adolescents, when they engage in exploration before making committed decisions. For example, the authoritative parenting style is related with informational styles, because of the visible communication, responsiveness and reasonable demands, in a warm and loveable environment (Berzonsky, 2004). It has been determined that the various parenting styles, namely; authoritative [warm, supportive and encouraging]; authoritarian [strict with high standards and low love]; and permissive [high on love and low on limits]; influence identity styles (Deci& Ryan, 1985; Deci&Ryan, 2000; VanSteenkiste, Simons, Lens, Soenens,& Matos,2005), such as: informational [seeking self-relevant information before committing]; normative style [form commitments by internalising and adopting existing expectations of others]; and diffuse-avoidant [is hesitant to deal with identity conflicts and personal problems, for as long as possible] (Imtiaz&Naqvi, 2012).

Since parenting plays an important role in the development of adolescent identity, it has been determined that parents, who continuously encourage their children, promote high-quality exploration and successive commitment (Sartor&Youniss, 2002). Therefore, this type of

parenting encourages prosocial behaviour, which is referred to as voluntary and socially acceptable behaviour that results in benefits for others, for example peers and friends (Eisenberg, 1982; Ma, Shek, Cheung, & Lee, 1996). Adolescents, living in the contemporary society are more exposed to peer relationships, which become more important in the adolescent phase, and increase, because adolescents spend more time out of the direct supervision of adults (Hill &Holmbeck, 1986).

Minimal research has been conducted on parental involvement and identity styles which could illustrate concrete evidence of this specific research title (Smits *et al*., 2008).Berzonsky (2004) followed a typological approach, focusing on individual parenting, as well as the relation it has with identity styles. This typological approach is presented as parenting dimensions aggregated to form a parenting styles index. This approach builds on the assumption that it is vital to consider the interactive effects on the various dimensions of parental behaviour (Maccoby& Martin, 1983). Therefore, Smits *et al*. (2008) examines the three parenting dimensions, which form part of the growth process of parenting (Barber, Stolz, & Olsen, 2005). Although it has been determined that parenting has an influence on the development of adolescent identity (Seiffge-Krenke, 2006), it has not, however, been studied in relation to identity styles. Therefore, the purpose of this current study is to examine the effects of perceived parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents.

1.2. Theoretical Framework

Throughout life, different identity situations and experiences occur that result into identity development (Evans, Forney, Guido, Patton, &Renn, 2010). According to identity theories, the process of identity development is associated with establishing a sense of self, creating a comfortable environment for self-confidence (Kim, 2012). Erikson (1950, 1968) identifies eight stages of development, across the lifespan, comprising challenges and goals for resolution. The most significant stage examined in this current study, is the fifth stage, namely, *identity versus role confusion*, with the outcomes of fidelity/trust (Sacco, 2013). When a lack of identity development is evident during adolescence, it could lead to failure in resolving personal and behavioural developmental challenges (Berzonsky&Kuk, 2000), low self-esteem and depression (Nurmi, Berzonsky, Tammi, & Kinney, 1997), as well as drug and alcohol problems (Jones & Hartmann, 1992). In the phase of adolescence, adolescents are expected to engage in decision-making, as well as the implementation of norms and values,

which were taught by their parents; therefore, the identity style is important (Sebangane, 2015).Additionally, Erikson (1968) highlights the importance of the role of people, surrounding adolescents, to support and display empathy for the identity process, specifically parents. Although Erikson (1968) does not clarify the role of parents, throughout his theory, he highlights that parents need to be present, as well as consistent in their approach, when interacting with their children. This suggests that parents should be involved in the development of their children.

1.3. Problem Statement

In adolescence, self-exploration and commitment (decision-making) are significant factors of identity development (Dumas *et al.*, 2012). Commitment relates to decision-making in identity-relevant situations. In situations like these, decisions made could result in risk-taking behaviour, as part of exploring (Ryan, Roman, &Okwany, 2015), as well as problem behaviour (Berzonsky& Ferrari, 2009). Risk-taking behaviour, or problem behaviour, are challenges among adolescents, and have negative consequences (Ryan *et al.*, 2015). In a South African study, it was observed that parents, who are less likely to provide emotional support, affection, or supervision, are unaware of how their children spend their time (Holborn & Eddy, 2011). The findings of their study indicated that 24% of young offenders' parents had not spent any time with their children on a daily basis, whereas 37% of non-offenders' parents spent at least four supervised hours or more (Holborn & Eddy, 2011).The type of home environment or social context that parents provides for adolescents in the home, depends on the parenting approaches they employ (Wolff & Crockett, 2011). For example, positive parenting approaches are associated with pro-social behaviour outcomes for children and adolescents (Davids & Roman, 2014), and authoritative parenting displays warmth, support, encouragement, together with structured rules (Yang, Kim, Laroche, & Lee, 2014). In addition, certain parenting approaches are linked to decision-making (Koepke&Denissen, 2012), but research on the relationship between parental involvement and identity styles is scant. The impact of positive parental involvement on adolescents has been hypothesized by previous research to demonstrate immediate protective effects on adolescent risk-behaviour (DeVore& Ginsburg, 2005). Additionally, positive parental involvement has been associated with many positive student academic outcomes (Anderson &Minke, 2007).However, the roles of men and women have changed over time in Western culture. The widespread trend of women entering the labour market, challenges the assumption that women's primary role is

that of caregiver, responsible for the home and family (McLaughlin & Muldoon, 2014). In addition, societal expectations of father involvement in the home have also changed (Ranson, 2012). According to the researcher, since father involvement has become more westernised, research for academics, practitioners and policymakers, appear to focus more on this phenomenon. It is not only in the interest of academia, but also for father involvement and the quality of the father-child relationship, which is a most important predictor for both adolescents' and fathers 'health (Janzen & Kelly, 2012). However, this current study aims to determine the effect of parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents.

1.4. Research Questions

1. What is the identity style identified among adolescents?
2. What is the perceived parental involvement of adolescents?
3. What is the effect of parental involvement on identity styles of adolescents?

1.5. Aims, Objectives and Hypotheses

1.5.1. Aim

This current study aims to assess the effect of parental involvement on identity styles of adolescents.

1.5.2. Objectives

The objectives of the study are:

1. To determine the identity styles of adolescents;
2. To determine the perceptions of adolescents, regarding parental involvement;
3. To assess the effect of perceived parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents.

1.5.3. Hypothesis

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

1. There will be a significant effect of perceived parental involvement on the three identity styles Commitment Identity Style, Diffuse-Avoidant Identity Style, Normative Identity

Style and Informational Identity Style, of adolescents, with analysis of hierarchical multiple regression.

1.6. Research Methodology

This current study used a quantitative research methodological approach. A quantitative research design is defined as an inquiry into a social problem, based on a theory being tested, made up of variables measured with numbers, and analysed through a statistical process, to determine whether a projected overview of the theory is real (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

1.7. Significance of the study

The researcher anticipates that the results of this current research study will assist various role players in the lives of adolescents:

(i) Parents and primary caregivers would be enlightened about their type of parenting, as well as the effect parent involvement on their adolescents.

(ii) Social workers would be able to establish a target group for conducting group work sessions in their area of delivery, as an intervention strategy.

(iii) Welfare organisations would be able to include the data of this current study to target their clientele, and be informed about the needs of the communities.

This information could be included in the operational plans of the organisation, while focussing on the specific criteria. This current study could serve the purpose of informing those concerned, about the effects of parental involvement on adolescent identity styles, in all socio-economic spheres.

1.8. Definitions of key terms

- **Parental Involvement** can be defined in three ways: to be available to adolescents, but not be involved in an interactive way; to have interaction/discussions with adolescents; or, to be the responsible parent to supervise (Day & Lamb, 2004; Pleck&Masciadrelli, 2004).
- **Identity** is the stage where commitment and exploration are tested, especially in the adolescent phase. It involves personal searching for goals and values, by an individual, as well as experimenting with various principles (Berzonsky& Adams,

1999; Kroger & Marcia, 2011).

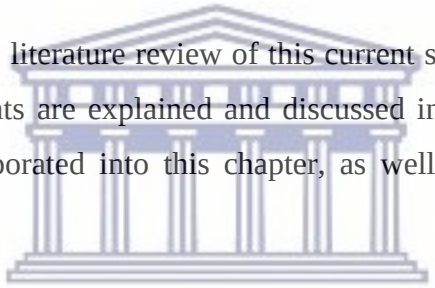
- **Informational identity style** is associated with a stronger orientation to explore, and involves actively seeking out, processing and evaluating self-relevant information (Berzonsky, 1989; 1990).
- **Normative identity style** is associated with a less powerful orientation to explore, and is characterized by a conforming to the standards and expectations of significant others, such as parents (Berzonsky, 1989, 1990)
- **Diffuse-avoidant identity style** is associated with individuals, who typically pay little attention to their futures, or the long-term consequences of their actions, make emotion-based decisions, and tend to procrastinate, until consequences determine a course of action (Berzonsky, 1990)
- **Identity Commitment** provides an individual with a sense of purpose and direction in the personal functioning of well-being (Marcia, 1996)
- **Identity Style** refers to reported preferences in the social-cognitive developments installed, when individuals deal with, or attempt to avoid, identity conflicts and decisions (Berzonsky, 2011).
- **Identity Formation** is described as the main developmental task of adolescence (Erikson, 1968).
- **Adolescence** is transition stage in the child's development from childhood to adulthood. In this stage, an adolescent is challenged by resisting parenting (Christie & Viner, 2005).
- **Psychosocial Theory of Development** is a study by Erikson (1950, 1968), which identifies the eight stages of development across the lifespan.
- **Autonomy** refers to the parents' psychological control method of rearing a child in a strict manner, with children being coerced and controlled to act, think and feel as the parents instruct (Vansteenkiste *et al.*, 2005).
- **Parent-child Relationship** signifies the initial micro-social frameworks of identity development, which would remain a lifelong connection (Ochberg & Comeau, 2001).
- **Attachment** is an intense, emotional bond between two people (Bowlby, 1969).

1.9. Structure of thesis

Chapter One is an introduction to this current study and comprises an overview of the background and rationale for the study. The researcher provides brief discussions of the theoretical framework and methodology, and outlines the problem statement and the significance of the study, as well as the research questions, aims, objectives, hypotheses and the definitions of key terms.

Chapter Two is a discussion of the detailed theoretical framework for this current study, which links the study to the conceptual framework of identity formation, introduced by Erikson. An overview of the psychosocial developmental stages that form part of the life cycle for identity resolution is provided. The researcher outlines how the concept of identity has been conceptualized over time, and introduces the various theorists, who also focused on the concept of identity.

Chapter Three comprises the literature review of this current study. The variables, identity, parent involvement, adolescents are explained and discussed in more detail, including how previous literature was incorporated into this chapter, as well as the links to this current study.



Chapter Four consists of a more detailed discussion of the quantitative methodology that was used to conduct this current study. The research design, used to answer the research questions, and achieve the aim and objectives is outlined. This researcher also explains and discussed the population of study, sampling, the procedures followed, and instruments used, for data collection. Lastly, the data-analysis, issues of reliability and validity, and the ethics, taken into consideration when study was conducted, are outlined.

Chapter Five contains an analysis of the data of this study. The data are analysed, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The statistical presentation stipulates the descriptive and the inferential statistics.

Chapter Six encompasses a discussion on the relationship between parent involvement and the identity styles of adolescence. The researcher explains the results of this current study, explaining the limitations, suggesting recommendations, and summarising the chapter in a conclusion.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the researcher introduces the theoretical framework used to conceptualise the current study. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a theoretical understanding of the effects of parent-involvement on the identity styles of adolescents. Additionally, the researcher explains the psychosocial development theory of Erikson (1968), and the relevance of the identity of adolescents, as well as the prevalence of identity development. A detailed explanation of Erikson's (1968) theory in adolescence is presented, together with the eight different developmental stages. The researcher also discusses Marcia's theory of the Identity Status Paradigm that is extended to the concept of identity, which forms the basis of identity related research. Berzonsky's (2008) identity formation also forms of part of this chapter, since identity is the main concept of this current study.

2.2. Psychosocial Development Theory according to Erikson

Erikson's (1950) Theory of Psychosocial Development is applied as the theoretical framework for this current, study in order to understand the concept of identity formation during adolescence. The Psychosocial Development Theory was introduced by Erik Erikson, who displayed great interest in the development of adolescents and identity crisis, due to his passion for field work, specifically in research (Erikson, 1968). Adolescence is a period of human development associated with important changes in the behavioural, cognitive, emotional and ideological realms (Erikson, 1950).His research was focused on the young person's inner psychological well-being in human societies, and revealed that each person experiences the psychosocial development phase, in which this development is divided into eight stages, which are relevant in daily life. Erikson (1950) conceptualized the life cycle as a series of stages (critical periods of development), which involve bipolar conflict that must be addressed and resolved, before onset. The perspectives included in this theory, explains the development of personality, as well as how to understand the behaviour of an individual.

According to Svetina (2014), the eight stages of Erikson, are defined as psychosocial crises, driven by internal conflict, affecting each person's personality development, especially the *identity vs role confusion* crisis, which occurs in adolescence. Erikson (1968) asserts that, with each stage, an individual is confronted with a development crisis, which has to be resolved, to facilitate the move into the following developmental period. The word *crisis*, generally, conjures up a negative connotation (Loughran, 2011; King, Cathers, Brown, & MacKinnon, 2003; Sternberg, 2006); however, Erikson (1968) begs to differ. His theory is effective for teaching, parenting, and self-awareness and coaching, as well as dealing with conflict. Throughout life, different identity circumstances and experiences occur, which relates to identity development (Evans *et al.,* 2010). According to identity theory, the process of identity development is associated with establishing a sense of self, creating a comfortable environment for self-confidence (Kim, 2012). Each individual has to work through the crisis stages, one by one, and has to complete each stage, successfully, before the next one materialises. Erikson (1968) theorises each of the eight stages in the following sections, including the positive and negative poles of the crisis.

2.2.1. Basis trust and mistrust (synthesis: hope)

During this stage, the first year of life, a child must experience a feeling of *basic trust*. In addition to experiencing *basic trust*, a child must overcome a feeling of *mistrust*. When a child is born, the world cold and threatening, and the parents and society are already prepared to care and protect the child. Erikson (1968) highlights that a child's first significant contact, is through the mouth, which he refers to as *incorporation* (consumption of food). As the child develops, s/he will express various imitations, through senses (Mayer, 1997). Therefore, a child's relationship is vital for the development of trust (Erikson, 1968).

As children grow and develop, they become more aware of their surroundings and environment. A healthy blend between *basic trust* and *mistrust* equips the child to deal with new situations, carefully. In literature reconceptualising Erikson's theory, Logan (1986) argues that Erikson's eight stages of developmental theory could be viewed as a cycle that repeats itself. Specifically, he mentions that stages one, five and eight, continually appear to be repetitive and the core stages for repetition appear to be *trust, identity*, *ego* and *integrity*. These themes are characterised as continuity and wholeness.

According to Sneed, Krauss-Whitbourne, and Culang (2008), stage one (basic trust vs. mistrust) represents the theme of continuity and wholeness in the self and others.

2.2.2. Autonomy versus shame and doubt (synthesis: will-power)

In this stage, a child is in his/her second year of life and has become independent (autonomy), while, simultaneously, overcoming the feeling of *shame and doubt*. At this stage of a child's life, s/he is able to take control of his/her greater, but immediate surroundings, by being more active, walking and having more self-control (Erikson, 1968; Kroger, 1989). In addition, this is the stage where society has a greater demand on children, especially with their motor and physical development. Greater autonomy to follow their own will is part of their physical maturation in this stage. It would not be advisable, according to the theory, for children to be left without parental supervision, or care, at this stage, as it could result in failure with the child, ultimately, experiencing shame and doubt about his/her own abilities (Kroger, 1989). Freedom and discipline need to be exercised, which are crucial for children's moral integrity. It is important that parents allow independence (autonomy); however, they also need to be available to support, when failures occur (Cummins & McMaster, 2006). The manner, in which parents deal with failure, should encourage self-confidence, so that children will be able to achieve the synthesis, which Erikson refers to as *will-power*.

2.2.3. Initiative versus guilt (synthesis: purpose)

During this phase children are between the ages of three and six years approximately, when they experience learning to show initiative, while simultaneously, they need to overcome feelings of guilt (McLeod, Wood, &Weisz, 2007). As mentioned in the previous stage, children at this age become more independent, and their independence lead them to explore the world more (Erikson, 1968). In addition, they come into contact with others more often, and seem to manipulate more often. In this phase, they also explore their gender roles. Mayer (1997) asserts that a clearer role between the social behaviour of boys and girls becomes apparent. A boy's role appears to be more fascinated with society and the worlds of other people. They are more interested in material things, whereas girls are more interested in affection; they desire to be liked by people (Erikson, 1968). The development of a girl's social relationship is characterised by the development of her charm. On various occasions, children are exposed to society, and within society, they tend to be involved in circumstances, where they act

against the norm. These circumstances result in feelings of guilt, which children must overcome. Too much guilt could cause the child limit interaction with others, and may hinder their creativity (McLeod *et al.,* 2007). However, some guilt is necessary for the child to learn self-control and develop a conscience (McLeod *et al.,* 2007).Ultimately, this stage is vital in a child's life that continuously experiences change. A balanced development leads to the synthesis that Erikson refers to as *purpose,* which therefore, allows children to adhere to certain goals, without experiencing guilt, or taking initiatives that would offend others (McLeod *et al.,* 2007).

2.2.4. Industry versus inferiority (synthesis: competence)

This stage extends from the age of six until the start of puberty, when children are experiencing primary school and going into the first year of high school. At this stage children need to be equipped with certain skills, as success becomes important to them (James, Jenks & Proud, 2005). This prepares them for adult life, and society assists them, by providing schooling to them. According to Erikson (1968), it is important for children at this stage to be successful in education, since it assists them to combat feelings of inferiority. The child becomes aware of being competitive with others, and also to play along with others, preferably with the same gender group. When the child is successful in the mastering the required skills, it implies that the child has gained competence.

2.2.5. Identity versus role confusion (synthesis: reliability)

This is the phase that Erikson elaborated on, and became famous for, which is his extensive work on the adolescent identity crisis (Erikson, 1968; Mayer, 1997). Adolescents experience feelings of identity/belonging, which in this phase, comprises three components, namely: characteristics of *Who am I?;* certainty about social identity, *To which group do I belong?*; and certainty about his/her own values and ideals, *What do I wish to achieve*? (Erikson, 1968).The cause of this crisis emanates from within the self, especially with physical and psychological changes in puberty (Louw & Louw, 2007).

Puberty is a phase where individuals' minds and body undergo many changes. According to Erikson (1968), examples of this identity crisis occur at times when some individuals would take a step back from new identifications, while others would rebel

against known norms of society. In this stage, individuals tend to go out into the world seeking identity (McLeod *et al.*, 2007). Society causes individuals in identity crisis, to explore different situations, where adolescents are labelled, *that's what young people are like*. However, Erikson (1968) views societal tolerance of adolescents as a psychosocial moratorium. He mentions that, for some individuals, this phase is extended into adulthood. Erikson refers to the solution of the identity crisis, as the synthesis of two poles, *identity and/or role confusion*, called reliability.

2.2.6. Intimacy versus isolation (synthesis: love)

This phase occurs during adulthood, when the individual develops feelings of intimacy, and, simultaneously, tries to overcome isolation (McLeod *et al.*, 2007). Intimacy is expected to occur when entering a love relationship, or marriage relationship. Erikson (1950) emphasises that this is the time when intimacy is tested, to determine how firm the identity has been established with the self, to engage in a commitment with another individual. This is a task that develops when one has a completed healthy identity, which allows the individual to have an identity with a partner. If an individual fails this, it derives into *isolation* (McLeod *et al.*, 2007). Isolation occurs when an individual protects him/herself from getting hurt, and only thinks of him/herself.

2.2.7. Generativity versus stagnation (synthesis: care)

The essence of generativity is the concern for establishing and guiding the next generation (Erikson, 1950). This phase is dominant in adulthood. When success of the previous phase occurs, the next task is to obtain *generativity*, and to avoid *stagnation*. *Generativity* is defined by Erikson (1968) as a wide concept, which includes productivity, creativity and continuing a certain culture. He mentions in his theory that people, who obtain generativity, are more concerned about others, than being overly concerned about themselves. Generativity simply explores the significance of life in the value of people. Generativity implies a capacity to give, without the expectation of a return (Stevens, 1983). Erikson refers to this phase as being caring; the concern for what has been generated by love, necessity, or accident, and corrects the notion of adherence of unrelated compulsion (Erikson, 1964). Additionally, Erikson mentions that identity development does not terminate with formation (Hoare, 2002), but is viewed it as an ongoing process, which takes stock of overall investments throughout the years of adulthood. Therefore, identity development is both a normative period of

adolescence, as well as an on-going process in adulthood. In contrast, Sokol (2009) conveys a contradiction to Erikson's concept of identity, as a development beyond adolescence. According to Erikson (1968), identity-defining issues of adolescence, do not remain permanent, but retain flexibility, for adjustment throughout the years of adulthood, due to new life experiences. However, identity development beyond adolescence appears to be continuous progress (Kroger, 2007). In every psychosocial phase, which occurs after late adolescence, an identity is bound to change, adapting to the resolution of the new lifespan issue (Marcia, 2002).

2.2.8. Integrity versus despair (synthesis: wisdom)

This is the final phase, the third broad phase of adult life, embracing qualities such as, the quiet certainty of the ego's strength, not engaging in correcting former characteristics, and accepting the last stages of life (Stevens, 1983). When people have lived their lives, and are at the point where they are aged, it is important that they should have coped well with these previous phases, which would indicate that they are satisfied with the life they have lived. This brings them into a phase of their lives, where they experience peace of mind (McLeod *et al.*, 2007). Erikson (1980) refers to this as achievement of wisdom, during old-age ego-integrity. Integrity can balance the perception of a person, who is in the last phase of life, which takes cognisance in the possibility of becoming frail (Erikson, 1964). Additionally, he mentions that individuals, who have not been able to achieve ego-integrity, are unhappy with their life, and fears death. He refers to this state as *despair*.

Erikson's Psychosocial Theory

The fifth stage of Erikson's, *Identity vs Role confusion*, is a stage of transition between childhood and adulthood. The onset of puberty, during adolescence, moves in the direction of newfound cognitive skills and physical abilities (Kroger, 2004). This is when individuals transition and relinquish their childhood life, in order to establish an identity, and experience a whole new set of challenges in their new process. During this crucial phase of adolescence, individuals experience extreme doubt, regarding the meaning and purpose of their existence, which leads to a sense of confusion (Bosma, Graafsma, Grotevant, & De Levita, 1994). Establishing self-consistency and a stable identity is important for a positive outcome of identity; therefore, identity development is both psychological and social. Due to the physical changes, as well as cognitive and social factors, adolescents experience role confusion

(Kroger, 2004). The type of crisis, Erikson explains in his theory, refers to the challenges individuals experience while developing and growing during adolescence.

Erikson (1950; 1968) identifies eight stages of development across the lifespan, entailing challenges and goals for resolution. The most significant stage examined in this current study, is the fifth stage, namely, *identity versus role confusion*, with the outcomes of fidelity/trust (Sacco, 2013). Identity can be perceived as the way each individual sees him/herself in relation to the world and in the context of life and future. Therefore, *role confusion* is the negative perspective of the absence of identity. This occurs when a person is unable to identify with who they are, and how they can relate to their environment, positively. Erikson mentions that this is a crucial phase that occurs mostly in the adolescent phase. When a lack of identity development is evident during adolescence, it could lead to failure in resolving personal and behavioural developmental challenges (Berzonsky & Kuk, 2005), low self-esteem and depression (Nurmi, Berzonsky, Tammi, & Kinney, 1997), as well as drug and alcohol problems (Jones & Hartmann, 1992).

Research suggests that risk-taking behaviour could be defined as negative consequences outweighed by positive consequences (Ryan, Roman, & Okwany, 2015). Risk-taking behaviour can be very broad, but could include alcohol and drug abuse, as well as teenage pregnancy and others. In addition, researchers perceive the aspect of *adolescent behaviour* to be influenced by family, peers, school, neighbourhood and the broader socio-cultural context (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Jackson, Henderson, Frank, & Haw, 2012).Parents are perceived to control parent-adolescent communication and parental monitoring. It appears that problematic parent-adolescent communication has been associated with an increase in risk behaviour (Wang *et al.*, 2013). Alternatively, healthy parent-adolescent communication creates an environment in which adolescents feel comfortable to share information of their activities with parents (Kopko&Dunifon, 2010). These authors assert that, during adolescence, confusion is high, with no sense of belonging, as well as a longing to be accepted. Additionally, Erikson (1968) avers that identity development is almost a universal requirement, since the nature of the task differs from culture to culture. Erikson's perspective also highlights negative identity, when there is an unclear sense of values, and low-self-esteem (being unable to reach goals), for example, taking on the values of parents, and not being willing to create a personal value system. Dumitrescu (2015) mentions that there are various external factors influencing self-esteem, especially with changes happening in other

developmental areas. Many adolescents are very vulnerable to parental, as well as peers' influences, taking into cognisance the acceptance of their own feelings and identity. One of the important aspects in life is that, in this phase of adolescence, the individual is expected to engage in decision making, as well as the implementation of norms and values, taught by parents (Kapadia, 2017).

Additionally, Erikson (1968) highlights the importance of people, especially parents, surrounding adolescents, being supporting and having sympathy for the identity process. Although Erikson (1968) does not clarify the role of the parent throughout his theory, he highlights the fact that parents need to be present and consistent in their approach to interacting with children. This suggests that parents should be involved in the development of their children.

The findings of a study that focused on adolescent identity formation, in relation to psychological well-being and parental attitudes (acceptance, concentration and avoidance), revealed that psychological well-being correlated positively with identity achievement, while the opposite emerged for diffusion. Avoidant and concentrated parental attitudes have significant positive relationships with lower identity statuses (moratorium, foreclosure and diffusion). Girls in lower identity statuses experienced more avoidant and concentrated parenting (Sandhu, Singh, Tung, & Kundra, 2012). In addition, to expand on identity formation and parental attitude, literature suggests that in identity formation, the type of relationship between adolescents and parents is significant. The findings of a study revealed that, for boys, as well as girls, parental involvement positively influenced identity formation, specifically in the areas of support, social monitoring and school monitoring (Morgan & Korobov, 2011).These findings contrast Marcia's (1966) conceptualization that individuals begin adolescence with a set of commitments, and ideological, as well as interpersonal identity domains (Meeus, 2011; Meeus, Van de Schoot, Keijsers, Schwartz, & Branje, 2010). In domains, such as educational and relational identity, individuals approach adolescence with some commitments, which are usually internalised from the parents, or other authority figures, and have the opportunity to decide whether to maintain or revise. Therefore, this model is based on the interplay of a dual cycle process (Luyckx, Goossens, & Soenens, 2006). Identity style refers to reported preferences in the social-cognitive strategies, used to engage, or avoid the tasks of constructing and maintaining a sense of identity (Berzonsky, 2008).

2.3. Identity formation, according to Berzonsky

Erikson (1968), In Helder and Piaget (1958), and others assume that cognitive processes play a role in identity formation. Identity formation is perceived to be a dynamic and life-long process in a person's life, which develops in adolescence. It is a process of exploration and development of an individual's identity (Erikson, 1968; Marcia, 1966).Erikson (1968) refers to identity development during the adolescent phase, as the person-context process. Identity formation is the successful resolution of the so-called identity crisis presented in Erikson (1982), identity development in social environment and individual growth. The positive or negative outcomes of identity formation depend on whether the individual is able to resolve conflict and make wise decisions.

Berzonsky (1990) explains that self-identity is fundamentally a self-theory. According to Berzonsky (1990), self-theory is a summary of the assumptions and experiences of the relevant self. Self-theories function as explanatory and problem-solving frameworks. According to Berzonsky (1997), in order to maintain an effective identity, individuals experience the monitoring and revising of self-constructs differently. Previous research reveal that individuals could employ three identity styles; however, they would be attracted to a preferred style. Marcia (1976) explains that there are four statuses of identity, namely, *identity achievement, identity moratorium*, *identity foreclosure*, and *identity diffusion*. These are also called paths of identity, relating to the fifth crisis stage of Erikson (1950), *identity vs role confusion*, which is relevant to this current study, together with *identity diffusion* of Marcia (1976). Upreti (2017) asserts that, in this stage, an individual has not as yet resolved his/her identity crisis, failed to commit to any goals and values, or established future plans. He adds that, among adolescents, this stage is characterised by avoiding issues and action, confusion and delay. *Identity diffused* adolescents seem to procrastinate, and are free from responsibility. Although various literatures on *identity diffusion* exist, they all have a lack of commitment, as well as meaningful exploration, in common (Marcia&Josselson, 2013). More specifically, the type of identity diffusion Erikson describes is perceived as an aspect of *borderline personality*, relating to *role confusion*, and may be similar to internalization and personality failures, which seem less

disruptive (Marcia, 2006). In contrast, according expanded literature, identity theorists suggest that individuals, who subside from foreclosure and diffusion, toward moratorium and achievement, build a well-structured identity that integrates various domains (Upreti, 2017).Many research studies support the conclusion that identity achievement and moratorium are psychologically healthy routes to a mature, self-definition, whereas long term foreclosure and diffusion are maladaptive(Beyers&Goosens, 2008; Smits *et al.,* 2008; Karimi, 2010). Although adolescents in the moratorium phase are often anxious about the challenges they face, they bear a resemblance to identity-achieved individuals, by using an active, information-gathering cognitive style, to make personal decisions and solve problems. Basically, they seek out relevant information, evaluate it, and thereafter, reflect and revise their views (Berzonsky, Cieciuch, Duriez, & Soenens, 2011).

2.4. Identity status paradigm according to Marcia

Marcia's (1966) identity status paradigm has been the most dominant model in identity research. She defined individual differences in identity formation, along with the dimensions of exploration and commitment. Exploration refers to the re-evaluation of several alternatives, or other possibilities of self. Commitment, on the other hand, refers to decision-making in identity relevant domains. Most researchers classified identity statuses as personality outcomes, but they could also be understood to be process models.

Marcia (1966) proposed four identity statuses: achieved, moratorium, foreclosed and diffused avoidant, with a link to adolescent identity exploration and commitment. Elaborating on this, Berzonsky (1990) focused on a process-oriented and dynamic model of identity formation. He focused on the exploration process, specifically, and identified differences in how individuals seek, process and use identity-relevant information. The model is divided into three, namely, information-oriented (informational style), normative (normative style) and diffuse-avoidant style. The informational style is commonly found in adolescents, experiencing identity formation, through making committed decisions. Adolescents with this identity style are open to new information, empathic, and display high-levels of cognitive complexity. However, this seems to result in adolescents, who would maintain a positive status, in terms of

their identity, and would revise, when confronted with disagreement (Berzonsky, 1990b; Soenens, Duriez, & Goosens, 2005). The normative style, experienced in adolescence, is most likely to be more dependent on norms and the expectations of others, for example, their parents and family. Adolescents with this identity tend to imitate the same value system that they have been reared with, refusing to create their own values. They seem to have a lack of self-control, but a high need for closure. Their value system does not make provision for change, since new information would threaten their current values (Berzonsky, 1990, Soenens *et al.,* 2005). The diffuse-avoidant identity style is typical of adolescents, who avoid personal issues, delay decision-making, and would respond on the occasion of situational demands (Berzonsky & Ferrari, 2009). Adolescents with this identity style display low levels of active identity formation, problem solving, and tend to sell themselves short. Diffuse-avoidant adolescents tend to define themselves as popular (Berzonsky, 2003). Identity achievers and foreclosures are both committed, whereas moratoriums and diffusions are not committed (Vleioras & Bosma, 2005).

2.5. Commitment in identity formation

Berzonsky (2003) suggests that commitment can be described as providing individuals with a sense of purpose. Commitment involves making a relatively firm choice about an identity domain, and being part of significant activities geared toward the implementation of that choice (Crocetti, Jahromi, & Meeus, 2012). Marcia's (1966) conceptions of *exploration* and *commitment* represent *exploration* in the range of different alternatives, and commitment as the actual making of choices, respectively (Luyckx, Goossens & Soenens, 2006; Hatano, Sugimura & Klimstra, 2017). Continuing the exploration of Marcia's (1966) work, regarding commitment, she proposed four identity statuses based on combinations of two dimensions: achievement (commitment following exploration), foreclosure (commitment with no exploration), moratorium (ongoing exploration, weak commitment), and diffusion (no commitment and exploration). Adolescents classified with high commitment statuses (achievement and foreclosure) are characterised by high levels of psychological adjustment, whereas adolescents with low commitment identity statuses (moratorium and diffusion) tend to show high level of psychosocial problems, for example, anxiety, depression and delinquent behaviour (Hatano *et al.,* 2017; Kroger & Marcia, 2011). Identity achievement occurs, when

individuals have resolved the identity issues, by making commitments towards goals, beliefs and values, after exploration of different areas (Uprethi, 2017).

2.6. Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher discussed the theoretical framework of this current study and linked it to Erikson's Psychosocial Development Theory, as well as Identity Formation. In these theories the underwritings are clear that adolescence is known to be a crucial phase, which occurs in the teenage years of an individual's life. Erikson's fifth phase of the Psychosocial Development Theory was discussed, and the relevance of identity and adolescence explained, as the focus of this current study. Marcia's (1966) Identity Status Paradigm, which emanated from Erikson's theory, was relevantly discussed, in terms of commitment and exploration, as well as the significance in identity styles of Berzonsky (1989), which forms part of the main focus of this current study.

The next chapter comprises the literature review, which will explore previous literature on the current research study topic.

CHAPTERTHREE

LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1. Introduction

The researcher provides a detailed description of previous research conducted, with similar concept relations, such as identity, adolescence and parent involvement, as in this current study. In addition, the literature relating to identity, identity styles, parent involvement and adolescence are discussed. Identity formation is an important aspect that forms part of the psychosocial development, theorised by Erikson, which has a great link to this study. The three identity styles examined in this current study, which forms part of identity formation, as well as adolescence, the most crucial developmental stage of an individual's life. The researcher explains how these variables link to each other and what their relation are to this current study. The relational effect of parents, being involved in the identity styles of adolescents, are identified, as well as how previous studies are incorporated into this current study.

3.2. Identity

Identity has been described in various ways, throughout the time that it has been studied. Marcia (1980: p. 161) referred to identity as a "sense", an "attitude", or a "resolution". In addition, identity was proposed to be an internal, self-constructed, dynamic organization of drives, abilities, beliefs and individual history (Marcia, 1980). The more developed the identity structure is, the more aware individuals are of their own strengths and weaknesses, for survival in the world. The less developed this identity structure is, the more confused individuals may be about their own individuality, and the more they may depend on external sources to evaluate themselves (Marcia, 1980). Identity is a creation that occurs over time, not all at once. It is likely to occur during adolescence, known to be a period of crisis, during which physical development, cognitive skills and social expectations are in progress, to reach identity formation. The identity process does not escalate, or terminate in adolescence, but rather in old age (Marcia, 1980). Berzonsky (2004) defines identity as a resource of individual framework, which is used by humans to interpret personal experiences.

3.3. Identity formation

Identity achievement is a communal effort, and not an individual task to be performed in isolation (McAdams, Josselson, &Lieblich, 2001). Consequently, the individual and the social world, together, construct identity, in a process of person-context transactions, where the emphasis is on the important role of people, who surround adolescents, in recognizing, supporting and helping them to form their own identities (Adams & Marshall, 1996; Bosma&Kunnen, 2001; Kroger, 2000, 2004). Over the last decade, various extensions of Marcia's identity status paradigm have been proposed (Meeus, 2011). Laura Berk (2006) addresses the importance of identity in the decision-making process, and highlights Marcia's theory of identity development, based on self-exploration and commitment. Marcia's (1980) model defines identity as a dynamic structure, and not an inactive one, whose formation depends on various factors, such as the decisions taken during life (Pellerone, 2015).Research studies assert that the start of identity statuses, represent the styles acquired through being confronted with identity problems, outlining two prevalent components: the commitment, through which adolescents make choices on material issues; and the exploration of alternatives, in terms of objectives, beliefs and convictions (Pellerone, 2015; Pellerone, In press; Schimmenti, Pellerone, Pace,& Nigito, 2011; Wigfield&Wagner, 2005).

3.4. Identity Styles

Berzonsky (2004) introduced a theory, namely, the social-cognitive model of identity, and identified three identity styles to study similarities and differences of individuals, during the identity development process. These styles were referred to as the informational, normative and diffuse-avoidant identity styles, as they were associated with the ways people utilised them for decision-making purposes. Individuals who display an informational identity style possess problem-centric strategies, have proactive decision-making tendencies, are committed to their goals, and have a sense of integrity. They have clear educational goals and a high performance standard (Berzonsky, Nurmi & Tammi, 1999; Hejazi, Shahraray, Farsinejad, & Asgary, 2009). Individuals with a normative identity style, internalise other people's norms, and are not flexible. They pay considerable attention to the opinions of others in their decision-making (Berzonsky, 2003). Individuals with a diffuse-avoidant identity style, depend, mostly, on their emotions, have low self-esteems, variable efficacy, and are unaware of their future (Berzonsky&Kuk, 2000). Adolescents adopt different identity

styles, as a way of constructing a sense of identity. Smits, Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Luyckx, and Goossens (2010) articulate that adolescents have different reasons for using a particular identity style. Individuals, with an informational and normative identity style, hold stronger personal commitments and convictions, than those with a diffuse-avoidant style (Berzonsky, 1990).

Berzonsky (1990; 2011) propose that identity processing orientations operate on different levels. Social-cognitive identity processing strategies entail organized sets of basic cognitive and behavioural insights, which individuals utilise to cope with identity-relevant information and conflicts. However, an identity style refers to stable differences in the social-cognitive strategies that individuals prefer, to overcome identity conflicts. Although research suggests that adolescents have the ability to utilize all three social-cognitive strategies, they might experience individual differences in the efficiency and consistency, when each is accessed and utilized (Berzonsky, 2011). The identity styles are discussed in the following sub-sections

3.4.1. Informational Identity Style

Individuals who adopt an *informational identity style* are self-disciplined, with a clear sense of commitment and direction. They tend to be self-reflective, sceptical, and are interested in learning new things. They, intentionally, seek out, evaluate and make use of self-relevant information and are willing to receive critical feedback. This style is associated with cognitive complexity, problem-focused coping, vigilant decision-making, open-mindedness, and achieves a moratorium identity status (Berzonsky, 2011). Individuals with this specific identity style seem to display high levels of identity commitment, cognitive complexity and self-reflection (Berzonsky&Ferrari, 2009). Berzonsky's theory (1990; 2007) generally assumes that adopting an informational identity style is beneficial for identity formation and psycho-social functioning. An informational identity style was also observed to relate to identity consolidation (Berman, Schwartz, Kurtines, & Berman, 2001), agency (Berzonsky&Kuk, 2000), adaptive coping, and good self-esteem (Reischl & Hirsch, 1989; Smith, Wethington, & Zhan, 1996). Therefore, an informational identity style can be perceived as a preferable course for identity consolidation (Schwartz, Mullis, Waterman, & Dunham, 2000).

3.4.2. Normative Identity Style

Individuals with a normative identity style seem to be more reliable, self-disciplined and have a stronger sense of commitment and purpose. They tend to adhere to the existing goals and standards, which were already disseminated or adhered to. They have a foreclosed identity status, limited tolerance for uncertainty, and a strong need for structure. Their primary goal is to maintain existing self-views and identity structures (Berzonsky, 2011). Berzonsky and Ferrari (2009) state that individuals with a normative identity style, automatically adopt the notion to internalize, and strive to maintain the goals and commitments of others. These individuals have a high need for structure and identity formation, which is associated with a high need of adherence to traditional opinions and trends, collective expectation, and a high need for closure, inflexible values and beliefs (Berman *et al.*, 2001; Berzonsky, 1990a; 2004; Berzonsky& Niemeyer, 1994; Duriez&Soenens, 2006; Soenens *et al.*, 2005). In addition, these individuals are not open to information that may threaten their hard-core values and beliefs, and attach enormous importance to preserving their existing organized and committed identity.

3.4.3. Diffuse-Avoidant Identity Style

Individuals with a diffuse-avoidant identity style seem to defer and avoid dealing with identity conflicts or decisions, for as long as possible. When these individuals have to make decisions, their behaviour is determined by their current circumstances and, to a large extent, they act on influence (Berman *et al.*, 2001; Berzonsky, 1990a; 2004; Berzonsky & Niemeyer, 1994; Duriez & Soenens, 2006; Soenens *et al.*, 2005).According to literature, people with high scored diffuse-avoidant identity styles, offer commitments, but are likely to be unstable, and are bound to be influenced by situational demands (Berzonsky, 2011; Berzonsky & Ferrari, 2009). This identity style is associated with an exterior locus of control, limited self-control, weak commitments, procrastinating behaviours, problem behaviours, and a diffusion identity status (Berzonsky, 2011; Berzonsky & Ferrari, 2009; Berzonsky, Soenens, Luyckx, Smits, & Papini , 2013). Previous literature revealed that individuals with a diffuse avoidant identity style, are negatively associated with conscientiousness, openness to experience,

need for cognition, as well as conservation values, and are not significantly disposed to need for closure (Duriez & Soenens, 2006; Soenens *et al.*, 2005).

Regarding the interpersonal domain of individuals with diffuse avoidant identity, they tend to perceive the behaviour of their caretakers as distant, or rejecting, with low levels of attachment, and are likely to isolate, in their styles of intimacy with others (Sharma &Mittal, 2017).Diffuse-avoidant individuals are called the core element of the "borderline personality organization" (Kernberg, 1985: p. 41). Consequently, they are perceived to be mal-adaptive and dysfunctional in their behaviour (Marcia, 2006).Should these individuals remain diffused beyond early, or middle adolescence, they are prone to be at risk for drug use and risky sexual behaviour, as well as academic failure (Jones & Hartmann, 1992).

3.5. Adolescence

The WHO (2015: pp. 2-3) defines adolescence as the period "that occurs after childhood and before adulthood, from ages 10 to 19", with puberty being the main focus of change. A few researchers referred to a period of "middle adolescence", which occurs around the age of 16 years (Humensky, 2010; James, Jenks & Prout, 2005). Davids, Ryan, Yassin, Hendricks, & Roman (2016) assert that adolescence is a developmental stage, which is marked by self-discovery, decision-making and the formation of important life aspirations. Additionally, from a developmental perspective, the adolescent phase is important, as individuals are confronted with making life decisions (Davids *et al.*, 2016). According to Deci and Ryan (2008), as well as Ryan and Deci (2008), it is also a stage in which unique psychological identity needs develop, as adolescents experience increased self-awareness. For adolescents, a stable sense of identity is often accompanied by high levels of self-esteem and a clear purpose in life. Research in South Africa, and elsewhere, suggest a strong connection between success and education, which derives from the influence of stable families, where both parents are present (Holborn & Eddy, 2011).

A study conducted in South Africa, and published in the Journal of Adolescence (Marteleto, Lam,&Ranchhod, 2009),revealed that pupils living with their fathers scored higher than average educational achievements, than pupils with fathers, who were absent. An American research study also revealed that the absence of fathers as a factor that contribute to poor educational outcomes, anti-social behaviour and delinquency, as well as disrupted

employment, later in life (McLanahan, 2011). According to a London-based Social Policy Justice Group, 80% of children, who were not raised by both parents in the UK, appeared more likely to experience educational failure, with 40% of them more likely to end up unemployed (Families in Britain Report, 2007). Therefore, it appears that children with more parental support, develop and achieve more, since they are emotionally and practically stable (Maccoby& Martin, 1983).Research suggests that, of one million grade 10 learners, who were enrolled in 2007, only 51% made it to matric in 2009, and only 31% passed matric in 2009, while only 10% gained their senior certificate with university exemption (Republic of South Africa [RSA];Department of Basic Education, 2014).Additionally, according to Holborn and Eddy (2011), 9% of 16 year olds, 15% of 17 year olds, and 28% of 18 year olds, were not in school in 2006.

3.5.1. Adolescent identity development

Identity development, during adolescence, is defined as a process of person-context interactions (Kroger, 2004). In the psychosocial approach to identity, Erikson (1968) emphasised the importance of people in the immediate surroundings of adolescents, supporting, recognizing and assisting in the creation of an adolescent identity. Identity strives for consistency, coherence and harmony between norms and standards, as well as commitment, which creates the opportunity for future alternative choices (Soenens&Vansteenkiste, 2011).Unique and guaranteed formations of identity, bring about a sense of psychological well-being, as well as a sense of awareness of individual goals (Erikson, 1968). Experimental research indicate that identity achievement in adolescence, reflects the core of adolescent mental health, adjustment and self-esteem, as a positive predictor of positive social and psychological outcomes, such as positive psychological well-being (Waterman, 2004), emotional adjustment (Dumas, Lawford, Tieu,& Pratt, 2009), and satisfactory intimate relationships in adulthood (Beyers&Seiffge-Krenke, 2010).

3.6. Parent Involvement

3.6.1. Parent-adolescent relationships and parent involvement

In the adolescent phase, it is common that parents and children would experience some conflict. Given that adolescents experience physical, emotional and cognitive changes, simultaneously, they ought to be more difficult. Parents, though, do not always

understand, or are not trained in how to deal with these changes (United States of America, Department of Education Office of Communications and Outreach, 2005).Research suggests that parent-child relationships are important in managing the adolescent (Moretti&Peled, 2004).According to Ryan, Roman, and Okwany (2015), the child seeks love and support from the parent. In addition, Sandhu, Singh, Tung, &Kundra (2012) suggest that parenting and family socialization experiences may have positive or negative effects on a person's ability to work through the developmental issues of adolescence, effectively. The family environment is significant to the child's well-being, as suggested by previous research that children living in supportive and organized families, are more likely to have increased self-confidence, social competence, are more self-sufficient, with decreased anxiety (Moos & Moos, 2002). The child-parent relationship within the family environment is regarded as a protective entity that provides protection for the vulnerability of children, especially those at risk, residing in high-risk environments (Chipman, Frost Olsen, Klein, Hart, & Robinson, 2000; El Sheikh &Buckhalt, 2003). Hill (1995) concurs that parenting plays a huge role in the family environment, as well as the lives of adolescents. Parenting determines the major characteristics of a child's life, namely, self-esteem, emotional development and behaviour habits, as well as others, which assists with societal survival. For the overall development of adolescents, parents must be adequately present to support them, as this support affects their confidence and growth (Chatterjee&Mohanraj, 2017).

In previous research, it was observed that parents, especially mothers, who spend significantly more time with their children, tend to influence to their self-esteem hugely, as well as their self-confidence. In contrast, children whose mothers display limited affection, ultimately, experience low self-esteem (Roman, 2008). However, according to Chatterjee and Mohanraj (2017), the influence of mothers is greater than the combined parent's behaviour. Young people need support, as well as structure from their parents, although they may be insensitive, and challenge the supportive measures of their parents (Molepo, 2014).

In addition, previous research studies have revealed that parent involvement in school, directly influenced student access (Harris &Goodall, 2008; Jeynes, 2007; Sirvani, 2007; Whitmore & Norton-Meier, 2008).The relationship between perceived parental involvement and adolescent psychological well-being, has been divided into two

realities, namely, home environment and social arena, which indicates that adolescents are under the influence and supervision of their parents, predominantly (Cripps&Zyromski, 2009). Personal experiences that evolved from parent-adolescent relationships are often regarded as catalysts to duplicate similar relationships with peers, and others (Gibson& Jefferson, 2006).

According to Erikson (1950), parents and siblings influence the development of trust, autonomy and initiative, while society (schools, teachers, and technology) contributes to the development of industry. Erikson's fifth stage, *identity formation*, is dependent largely on the successful resolution of earlier stages; therefore, it appears that identity is more dependent on parents, siblings and society (Jones, Vaterlaus, Jackson, & Morrill, 2014). When Erikson (1950) recorded his observations, six decades ago, families, schools, youth employment, adolescent mobility, and quality/quantity of friend and peer relations, were different from the present. In the 1950's, most children resided with both their biological parents (Cherlin, 2010), and the most prevalent family system, during this time, was the nuclear family. Currently, children from most family configurations, including traditional families, spend less time with their parents and siblings, than previous generations (Fox, Han, Rhum, &Waldfogel, 2012). According to Laughlin (2010), approximately 14% of children, between the ages 4 and 14 years, spend their time in multiple child-care arrangements, namely, day care, before-and-after school programmes, extended families and non-relative care. Taking into consideration Erikson's perspective about the essential role that parents and siblings contribute to identity formation, research on identity development and social influence have focused mostly on parental marital status, parenting, and parent-child relations (Ratner, 2014). Researchers have investigated relations between parent-child attachment (Faber, Edwards, Bauer &Wechsler, 2003), parent support (Sartor&Youniss, 2002), and parental monitoring of adolescent behaviours, with adolescent identity formation (Jones *et al.*, 2014).

The term *autonomy* is an umbrella term. Its definition is reflected in the existence of various concepts that describe the phenomenology of individual autonomy, and its development in adolescence (Karabanova, 2010).The authors of some theories (primarily psychoanalysis) consider the relationship with parents as the source of personal autonomy, which implements the functions of acceptance, recognition,

protection, emotional support and respect (Ainsworth &Bowlby, 1991; Bowlby, 1988;Bronfenbrenner, 1979;Crittenden, 1983; Erikson, 1950;Freud, 1961;Klein, 1932; Winnicott, 1965).The authors of other concepts focus on internal sources of the development of adolescent autonomy (Bandura, 1986;Deci&Ryan, 2000).

The parent-child relationship offers the opportunity for the balance of individuation and cooperation with parents, as the foundation for the development of personal autonomy (Karabanova&Poskrebysheva, 2013).Adolescents, who enjoy warm emotional relationships, in which they receive care and support, appear to be more independent in their decision-making and self-expression; show more psychological maturity, school competence and subjective well-being; and tend to be more confident, as well as being less depressive (Karabanova&Poskrebysheva, 2013).Developmental changes in parent-adolescent interactions involve mutual adjustments to new expectations for autonomous behaviour in parent-child dyads. Restructuring of power and mutual expectations are described as part of the normative change in parent-adolescent relationships (Branje, 2008). Adolescents perceive their parents as part of change (Cumsille, Darling & Loreto Martínez, 2010; Smetana, Campione-Barr,&Daddis, 2005) added to various contributions, perceptions, and expectations, regarding the type of issues parents should regulate, as well as at what age adolescents should be capable of autonomous decision-making. Previous studies have revealed that parents and adolescents disagree in their report of family conflicts (Dekovic, Noom, &Meeus, 1997; Laursen, Coy, & Collins, 1998), beliefs about the authenticity of parental authority (Rote & Smetana, 2016; Smetana, 2011), and parental monitoring (Keijsers, Branje, Van der Valk, &Meeus, 2010).

Although differences among parents and adolescents are developmentally normative (Steinberg, 2001), it is possible that these differences may affect adolescent adjustment, when they reflect interactional patterns of increased conflict and decreased unity in the family (Ohanessian, Lerner, Lerner,& Von Eye, 1999).Although extensive research has been conducted, related to the effects of parental involvement and adolescents' well-being, further exploration is necessary, to discover the relation between adolescents' psychological well-being and perceived parental involvement. For the purpose of this current study, the effect of parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents was explored, which in previous research could only be added on the specific explored

variables. Previous research emphasise that the physical effort offered to children, in not only the method, but also the emotional context, has a great impact on their adolescents (Steinberg, 2001).

3.7. Identity and gender

Society and culture fosters diverse experiences for both males and females (Benson & Furstenberg, 2007).Research suggests that culture shapes women's identity (Matteson, 1993), and that it is more difficult for females to attain their identity. A lack of societal support constrains females from exploring adolescence. Due to cultural expectations and traditional agreements, identity formation is observed to be more challenging for girls, than for boys (Boislard, Poulin, Kiesner, &Dishion, 2009). Brady (2002) asserts that adolescence is a time when boys get to experience more in society than girls, which becomes strictly prominent. Additionally, studies reveal that boys have more scope to enjoy privileges reserved for men, while girls have to tolerate newer restrictions for women (Brady, Assaad, Ibrahim, Salem, Salem,&Zibani, 2007).

Beyers and Goosens (2008) explored gender differences in parenting and identity formation, and revealed that the majority of these differences referred to attachment constructs. Schultheiss and Blustein (1994) observed that, for females, the secure attachment in parents, related to identity foreclosure and achievement. Samoulis, Layburn, and Schiaffino (2001), revealed that this positive parental influence is due to associations of secure attachment to parents, with identity commitment in females, and not with identity exploration. Sartor&Youniss (2002) observed that positive associations between parenting variables and identity achievement were stronger for females, than for males. However, some other studies (Samoulis *et al.,* 2001) revealed that secure attachment to the mother, predicts stronger identity achievement in females. The influence of mothers' and fathers 'parenting differs, when addressing the aspect of identity formation, as mothers tend to discourage broad exploration by their maturing adolescents, while fathers tend to discourage commitment and making definitive choices (Sesito&Sica, 2014).

3.8. Conclusion

In this literature review chapter, a detailed discussion of previous literature was conducted, forming a link to the current study, addressing concepts of identity, identity formation, parent

involvement and adolescence. Identity formation was defined as a process through time, in which the self has to be established, as the individual develops. This process is hypothesised to be an identity formation process, which occurs mostly in adolescence, known to be a stage of crucial crisis. Various changes occur in the individual, who needs the ability to make decisions in this crucial period. Individuals tend to create an identity all on their own, and three identity styles could be adopted. These identity styles were explained and the characteristics of each style were specified. This identity formation stage could be influenced by parents, since adolescents are still in need of parental support and guidance. The parent-adolescent relationship was discussed as part of parent-involvement, and its association with identity development. Identity and gender was also included in the discussion, since it contributes to the outcome of the identity formation process of the adolescent, who experiences identity formation as male, or female. Finally, all aspects were reviewed from previous studies and findings.

The next chapter comprises the methodology of this current study.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

4.1. Introduction

A quantitative research methodological approach, with a cross-sectional correlational research design was employed in this current study. Its aims and objectives are restated, followed by a discussion of the research methodology, research design, research setting, population and sample, and the data collection instrument. The execution of the pilot study, to test the measuring instrument, ensues, including the changes made to the instrument for the main study. Subsequently, the data collection procedure, and the data analysis process are described. Detailed information on how the reliability and validity of the different variables had been met, as well as a description of the instruments used, is provided. To conclude this chapter, the researcher presents the ethical considerations and procedures that were followed, while conducting this current study.

4.2. Aim and Objectives

4.2.1. Aim of the study

This current study aims to assess the effect of parental involvement on identity styles of adolescents.

4.2.2. The objectives of the study

4. To determine the identity styles of adolescents;
5. To determine the perceptions of adolescents, regarding parental involvement;
6. To assess the effect of perceived parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents.

4.3. Research methodology

Bless, Higson-Smith, andKagee (2006) assert that the quantitative research methodological approach produces statistical outcomes, and attempts to prove, or contradict, hypotheses for the resulting relationships between the variables of the study. In quantitative research,

researchers depend on numerical data to test relationships between variables. Quantitative researchers test theories on daily life, root, cause and effect and use quantitative measures to gather data to test hypotheses. Quantitative studies are either descriptive or experimental (Onwuegbuzie & Daniel, 2003). The variables under investigation for this current study are, the effect of parental involvement (predictor), and the identity styles of adolescents (dependent). A predictor variable is the part of the study that is manipulated to assess whether it affects the dependent variable. In this current study, the researchers ought to assess whether there was a correlation/relationship between parental involvement (predictor variable) and the identity styles of adolescents (dependent variable). Therefore, the researcher considered the quantitative methodology, most appropriate, to determine the effects of parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents

4.4. Research design

A research design is explained as a strategic framework for action, which serves as a link between research questions and the actual implementation of the research study (Terre Blanche, Durrheim, & Painter, 2006). Monette, Sullivan, & De Jong (2008) explain that a research design is a plan that reveals how the researcher will implement the research study, as well as how observations will be made. A quantitative research design is defined as an inquiry into a social problem, based on a theory being tested, made up of variables, measured with numbers, and analysed through a statistical process, to determine whether a projected overview of the theory is real (Ivankova, Creswell,& Stick, 2006; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

The research design for this current study was, firstly, cross-sectional implying that it examines specific time measurements, *as a snapshot*, and observations are based on *one point in time* of a current situation (Babbie, 2007; Babbie & Mouton, 2008). Data about parent involvement, identity styles, and adolescents are gathered at a snapshot, and the results represent what occurred at that specific point in time. Secondly, in quantitative research, a design could be, either experimental, or non-experimental. In this current study, a non-experimental design is used. Non-experimental designs use units that have been selected to measure the relevant variables (predictor and dependent) at a *snapshot* (specific time). In non-experimental research, the researcher cannot control or manipulate the predictor variable (in this current study, parental involvement), but depends on observations and interpretation,

to arrive at a conclusion (Johnson & Christensen, 2000). The most common non-experimental data collection tool to obtain the quantitative information, is surveys (with questionnaires), usually conducted to describe certain research topics (Maree, 2007). McMillan and Schumacher (2001) define a survey as an assessment of the current status, opinions, beliefs and attitudes, of a known population, through questionnaires, or interviews. In addition, Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2001) emphasize that surveys describe and interpret *what is*. In this current study, self-reported questionnaires were distributed to the respondents to gather data.

Consequently, the gathered data from the survey represent the observations that needed to be interpreted or described. Therefore, the researcher also applied a descriptive research component to the design. Descriptive studies aim to describe phenomena, whereas exploratory studies generate speculative insights, new questions and hypotheses. Descriptive studies aim to describe phenomena, accurately, though narrative-type descriptions (interviews with people about their experiences), or measuring relationships (Terre Blanche, Durrheim& Painter, 2006).Descriptive studies facilitate the association between variables (Charles &Mertler, 2002),while the goal of researchers, conducting quantitative research, is to describe and explain relationships between variables (Maree&Pietersen, 2007b).

Subsequently, in order to arrive at a conclusion, the researcher added a correlational research component, which is a non-experimental research method that allows the researcher to measure two variables, in order to understand, as well as assess the statistical relationship between them. Creswell (2012) confirms that quantitative researchers use correlational statistics to measure the association of two or more variables, or sets of scores. Ultimately, the aim of correlational research is to assess whether one variable can predict another. The researcher, therefore, used a cross-sectional, non-experimental, descriptive and correlational research design to address the aims and objectives of this current study.

4.5. Population and sampling

The term *sample* implies the immediate reality of a population, or universe, of which the sample is a smaller section, or a set of individuals from a population (Gravetter&Forzano, 2003). A population is defined as a term that sets boundaries on the study components. It refers to individuals who possess specific characteristics (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche, Delport,

2011). McBurney (2001) refers to population as the sampling frame. A population is the total of persons, events, organisation units or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned. The population for this study was adolescents in the Metro East Education District, which is situated in the northern suburbs of Cape Town, and responsible for schools in the areas of Kuilsriver and Eersteriver. The Metro East Education district is an under-studied grouping, as very few studies have been conducted in this district, about the effect of parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents. The researcher knows this specific district, having rendered social work intervention services in the area. Schools in the area were conveniently accessible for the study to be conducted; therefore, convenient sampling was most appropriate for this study, since it was an accessible sample. According to literature, sampling is defined as a group of elements (or people) that are readily available and accessible to the researcher (Adler & Clark, 2011).According to the Centralised Educational Management Information System (CEMIS) database of the Metro East Education district, the six schools, targeted by the researcher had 1120 learners in Grade 10. The target sample of 613 learners to participate was established from the CEMIS, before any contact was made with the different schools. Possible target schools were identified by the researcher, who was familiar with the Metro East area.

At the end of the data collection process only 487 learners were respondents. The sample for this study was secondary schools in low and middle socio-economic areas in the Metro East Education District. Grade 10 learners were the focus group at these targeted schools, indicating a sample size of 613. The specific population was targeted based on adolescent risk behaviour that seems to escalate in this life phase. In addition, Erikson (1968) asserts in his psychosocial developmental theory, individuals experience an identity crisis in their adolescent phase, which occurs in the teenage years. During this period, adolescents have to make wise decisions, based on future plans. In Grade 10, students have to make important decisions concerning their subjects for career choices. This is also a time in an adolescent's life, when risky behaviour could become common. Previously, the Western Cape Provincial Government (PGWC), the United Nations Office on Drug Abuse, and the South African Medical Research Council, conducted a survey on drug and alcohol use, as well as risk behaviour and mental health problems among adolescents. This study's sample was grade 8, 9 and 10 learners, across the eight districts of the Western Cape Province, which included the Metro East district. In this study, it was observed that sexual risk behaviour among grade 8-10 learners in the Province was most prevalent, as almost a third of the learners were already

sexually active. Another finding was that crime among adolescent learners in the Metro East district seemed to be most prevalent (Morojele *et al.*, 2013).

4.6. Data Collection Instrument

A self-reported questionnaire (Appendix D, E & F) was used to collect data. The self-reported questionnaire consisted of three parts, namely: Demographic details of the participant, Parental Involvement Mechanisms Measure, and Identity Styles Scale.

4.6.1. Parental Involvement Mechanisms Measure

The Parent Involvement Mechanism Measure instrument assesses parental involvement, using the following sub-scales on a 51 item questionnaire: parental encouragement, parental modelling, parental reinforcement, and parental instruction. Parental encouragement refers to the affective support from parents to a child in any school or learning activities (Hoover-Dempsey *et al.*, 2005). In addition, it maintains that when a child fails to encourage him/herself to do school activities, it is most likely that the encouragement of parents would be significant, and child would succeed because of these attempts from the parent (Martinez-Pons, 1996).The Cronbach Alpha coefficient (α) for parental encouragement scored 0.85 for mothers and 0.98 for fathers. Parental modelling is the basic observation of children, learning from their parent's behaviour, which contributes to their own interests and capabilities. If it is evident to a child that parents show interest in their educational and interactive activities, it influences student achievement (Gonzalez-DeHass, Willems, &Doan Holbein, 2005).

The Cronbach Alpha coefficient (α) for parental modelling scored 0.756 for mothers and 0.975 for fathers. The parental reinforcement scale focuses on the reinforcement of behaviours to develop and maintain positive learning outcomes, as well as the basic notion of being aware of the importance of consequences, after certain behaviour. Reinforcement theories suggest that positive learned behaviour have positive outcomes (Hoover-Dempsey *et al.*, 2005).Parental reinforcement scored a Cronbach Alpha of 0.910 for mothers and 0.981 for fathers in the study. Parental instruction focuses on the relation of social interaction between the parent and child, around shared thinking, related to learning strategies and processes. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient (α) for parent instruction was 0.910 for mothers and 0.978 for fathers. The items included in

the questionnaire to measure parent involvement were, for example, 'my mother/father encourages me when I don't feel like doing homework', 'my mother/father shows me that s/he likes to learn new things'. The respondents responded on a 6-point Likert scale with 1=not at all true, to 6=completely true to the questions.

4.6.2. Identity Style Inventory (Berzonsky *et al.,* 2013)

This Identity Style Inventory instrument is the most common instrument to assess identity styles (informational, normative and diffuse-avoidant). Bezonsky and Sullivan (1992) developed the Identity Style Inventory (ISI) to assess the extent to which individuals use these styles. The ISI includes a subscale designed to assess strength of identity commitment. The ISI consists of 40 items that include four scales; informational identity style (11items), normative identity style (9 items), and diffuse-avoidant style (10 items), as well as identity related commitment (10 items).

The adolescent respondents, who were part of the pilot study, completed questions from the Identity Style Inventory-Version 5. After the pilot study was conducted, the Alpha scores were low. Therefore, based on the low Alpha scores, the ISI-4 was most suitable to be used for the main study. It includes 48 items in total, and is scored on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 to 5 with the following options: *not at all like me* to *very much like me*, in response to the items in the questionnaire, for example, 'I know basically what I believe and don't believe', 'I am not sure what I want to do in the future'. The estimates of internal reliability for the three scales were found to be higher than 0.70 (Berzonsky *et al.,* 2011). For this version of the ISI-4, the Cronbach Alpha for the three identity style scales was 0.76 (informational style), 0.75 (normative style), and 0.71 (diffuse-avoidant style).

4.7. Pilot Study

The purpose of a pilot study is to pre-test and measure the reliability of the measuring instrument, through all aspects of the data-collection process on a small scale (Grinnell &Unrau, 2008). Barker (2003) defines a pilot study as a procedure to pre-experiment instruments with a smaller group of participants from the actual population of study. Telephonic contact and personal meetings were setup at the specific school, to explain the research study. The principal accommodated the researcher, and delegated the responsibility

to assist the researcher to do data collection at the school. The number of Grade 10 learners at the school was 204, and the target was 50 learners to participate in the pilot study. The information sheet (Appendix A) and consent form (Appendix B and Appendix C) were distributed to the Grade 10 learners at the school, for their parents to sign consent forms, as well as assent forms for respondents. For those respondents, who returned the forms to the school, arrangements were made for them to complete the questionnaire. The researcher was able to recruit 50 respondents to complete the questionnaire for the pilot study. The researcher arranged a convenient time with the teacher, to administer the questionnaire to the respondents, which lasted approximately 15-30 minutes. Once the data collection of the pilot was complete, the data were collated, fed into SPSS, and were coded and cleared. The results of the pilot study indicated that the scores were good for the identity styles, as follows: .190 for commitment scale, .624 for normative scale, .671 for diffuse-avoidant scale, and .654 for informational scale; therefore, the main study could proceed. The results on the parental involvement instrument in the pilot study suggested the following: for parental encouragement, .849 for mothers, and .976 for fathers; for parental modelling, .756 for mothers, and .975 for fathers; for parental reinforcement,.910 for mothers, and .981 for fathers, for parental instruction, .910 for mothers, and .978 for fathers. The pilot study was to test the feasibility of the questionnaire, to determine whether it is appropriate to proceed with gathering data. During the pilot study procedure, it was determined that minor faults were identified, which the researcher needed to amend on the questionnaire. The changes included, rearranging of numbering, and one or two questions that were duplicated on the parent involvement form.

4.7.1. Challenges identified during the pilot study

The teacher, with whom the researcher liaised at the school, distributed the information sheets, consent forms and assent forms to the children, to be completed by themselves and their parents. The researcher allocated reasonable time for the forms to be returned. However, the allocated time was not enough, as the children took longer than expected to return the paperwork, and the researcher could only continue with the pilot study when all forms were returned.

4.7.2. Changes made to the instrument

The items were amended on the questionnaire, in the parent involvement section, under the *father* option. How changes were made, is illustrated below:

- Section C: under the questions on the father form, the question was amended from ‘When I have trouble organizing school work” to “To be aware of how I am doing with schoolwork”.
- When the pilot study was completed, it was established that there was an error with two questions, one that was numbered incorrectly, and the other was a duplicate of the same question. It was highlighted by a respondent, who completed the questionnaire.

4.8. Data Collection Procedure

The research was conducted after permission was granted by the University of the Western Cape (Appendix G). In addition, permission was obtained from the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) for data to be collected at the schools. Contact was made with the 6selected schools, to arrange access with the principals for the study to be conducted. The school personnel were willing to assist the researcher with data collection for this current research study.

The main study was conducted in six different schools in the Metro East district and only grade 10 learners were part of the study. A sample of 487 respondents participated in the research study. Initially the researcher explained the purpose, aims and objectives of the study to the respondents, and the information sheets, consent and assent forms were sent home to their parents to agree, and provide consent. Times and dates were scheduled with the principal, or designated professional, who assisted the researcher to arrange times when the questionnaire could be administered at the schools. The researcher explained the procedure of the questionnaire, and remained available for questions throughout the process, until the last of respondent had completed the questionnaire. This data collection exercise was conducted at the various schools in the Metro East area, and the number of grade 10’s varied every time.

Certain schools were very structured, but at others the researcher had to go from class to class to administer the questionnaires. At two schools the respondents took the questionnaires home, completed them, and returned them to the principal. An overall amount of 1320 information sheets was distributed to children at the various schools. The consent and assent forms that were returned amounted to 539. The researcher had to consider timeframes, class periods, and the availability of children in the schools. The questionnaires were collected and

kept in a safe location, while the confidentiality and anonymity of the respondents were assured.

4.9. Data analysis

Quantitative data analysis, according to Rubin and Babbie (2005), is the technique researchers use to convert data to numbers, and subsequently, subject numbers to statistical analysis. Statistical analysis is a procedure that assembles, classifies and tabulates numerical data, to create meaning from the data (Monette *et al.,* 2008). The purpose of analysis is to convert statistics to a more understandable form for interpretations to clearly indicate the various relationships of research problems. The data collected were entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) Version X. The data were coded, cleaned and checked for mistakes. Coding involves identifying variables to be used in statistical analysis, and assigning code values to each variable (Wolman, Kruger, & Mitchell, 2005).

Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse the data. Descriptive statistics is frequencies and standard deviations used to describe the data. Descriptive statistics is a collective term used to explain the various statistical methods used to organize and summarize data in a meaningful way. This serves to enhance the understanding of the properties of the data (Maree, 2007). Descriptive statistics are divided into two ways of representing, or describing data, namely, graphical ways, or numerical ways. In addition, different data types (quantitative and qualitative) require different ways of describing their properties (Maree&Pietersen, 2007a, b). The descriptive statistics analysis of this current study's data provided a summary of information, regarding the demographics, parental involvement and identity styles. Descriptive statistics are concerned with the description and/or summary of the data obtained for a group, or individual, of analysis (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell, 2005). Descriptive analysis for variables in this current study included, describing the results through the mean and standard deviations. Mean is the sum of values of a variable, divided by the number of observations, while standard deviation is the positive square root of variance (Gaur & Gaur, 2009). Standard deviation was computed to measure the spread of scores about the mean.

The analysis of data also included the use of inferential statistics that aim to examine the relationships and comparisons between variables. Pearson's correlation was used to explore

the relationship between independent variables, and the dependent variables. Regarding this current study, Pearson's Correlation was used to determine the relationship between parental involvement and the identity styles of adolescents. This correlation is a measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two quantitative variables (Maree&Pietersen, 2007b).

Regression is a statistical technique to determine the linear relationship between two or more variables. Regression is primarily used for the prediction and causal inference (Campbell, 2009).It is important to recognize that regression analysis is fundamentally different from guaranteeing the correlations among different variables. Correlation determines the strength of the relationship between variables, while regression attempts to describe that relationship between these variables, in more detail (Campbell, 2009).Part of the results from a regression analysis is a *p*-value that is calculated for each of these two statistics, indicating that some underlying hypotheses are being tested (Maree&Pietersen, 2007b).

4.10. Validity and Reliability

The reliability occurs when an instrument is tested more than once, and the same outcome is obtained (Babbie, 2007). In addition, Salkind (2006) refers to reliability as an instrument measuring the same item, more than once, with the same outcomes. The reliability of a measurement procedure is the stability/consistency of the measurement. This current study used internal reliability (internal consistency), as a number of items had to be formulated, more than once, to measure a certain construct that was stable. Therefore, internal reliability was measured for the four parental mechanisms: parental encouragement, parental modelling, parental reinforcement and parental instruction. The alpha reliability of the parent involvement mechanisms measure scale was 0.96 (Hoover-Dempsey *et al.*, 2005). In addition, the three identity styles, informational style, normative style and diffuse avoidant style, were also measured. The most common reliability measure is the Cronbach coefficient, with alphas of 0.73 for the informational style, 0.66 for normative style and 0.76 for diffuse-avoidant style (Smits, Brouwer, Ter Riet,& Van Weert, 2009).

Validity is defined as the process of testing the measure for accuracy and genuineness, measuring what is supposed to be measured (reflecting the real meaning of the concept) (Leedy&Omrod, 2005). The validity of the current instruments was reflected in previous

research (Hoover-Dempsey *et al.*, 2005) indicating good validity. Validity however has four different subsections namely; face validity, content validity, construct validity and criterion validity. Validity used for this study is criterion validity since it measured what it was supposed to measure.

4.11. Ethical considerations

The ethical process was adhered to, which ensured permission to conduct the study. Ethics approval (registration number 15/7/85) was provided by the University of the Western Cape Higher Degree Committee and Senate, respectively (Appendix G). Permission was obtained from the Western Cape Department of Education (reference: 20160128-7120) to access the schools. Information sheets (Appendix A) and consent forms for parents (Appendix B) were provided, as well as assent forms for learners (Appendix C) to provide consent. The respondents voluntarily participated in this current study, and confidentiality of information was assured, by explaining the consent and assent forms. Codes, instead of the names of the respondents were indicated on the questionnaires. The respondents were informed of their right not to participate in the study, or to withdraw at any point during the research process, without any penalties (Henning, Van Rensburg, &Smit, 2004). The respondents and their parents were guaranteed of confidentiality. Debriefing and counselling services were available in case any discomfort occurred during the data collection process. However, no one required such services.

The researcher accomplished the role of implementing beneficence, by being responsible and respectful, while ensuring truthfulness towards the respondents, and this was maintained throughout (Cozby& Bates, 2012). The information gathered at the schools was kept in storage boxes, in a safe and secure place, where it was locked away. There were no cases of known risk instances, while gathering the data. Feedback will be given to the school regarding the outcomes of the data collected, once the study has been successfully completed.

4.12. Conclusion

In this chapter, the researcher discussed the methodology used in this current study. Clear understanding of the data collection process was provided, ensuring proper ethical procedures

throughout. A detailed description of the population, data collection tools, research design and methodological approaches implemented in this study, were presented. The researcher explained the pilot study that was implemented, and identified how the process was amended for the benefit of the main study. The data analysis process was clarified through descriptive, inferential and regression analysis that was used to analyse the data in this current study. The researcher adhered to the ethical considerations in research, and followed the necessary procedures to ensure legitimacy. Information on the results follows in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the data analysis of this study, which examined the effect of parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents, are presented. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) V23 was used to analyse the data. In addition, the chapter contains the results, and the tables below illustrate what have been uncovered in the study. The results are presented with the use descriptive and inferential statistics. The researcher further analyses the demographics of respondents, identity styles (informational, normative, diffuse-avoidant and commitment) and parenting practices (parental encouragement, parental modelling, parental reintegration and parental instruction).

5.2 Demographic profile

The sample of this current study comprised 487 secondary school learners in Grade 10, from the Metro East Educational District, Western Cape, South Africa. The respondents had a mean age of 16.01 (SD=1.04). The result for a more detail description of the demographic information is presented in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Demographic information

VARIABLE		N	%
Mean Age (SD)		16.01 (1.04)	
Gender	Male	200	41.7
	Female	280	58.3
Race	Coloured	345	79.5
	Black/African	81	18.7
	White	2	.5
	Indian/Asian	6	1.4
Living arrangements	Both parents	289	60.3
	My mother	154	32.2
	My father	12	2.5
	Caregiver/guardian	24	5.0

Home Language	English	227	49.0
	Afrikaans	150	32.4
	isiXhosa	74	16.0
	Other	12	2.6
Marital status	Married	302	67.3
	Living together but not married	19	4.2
	Single-do not live together and not married	81	18.0
	Single because widowed	45	10.0
	Single because divorced	2	.4

The results in Table 5.1 suggest that there were more female [280(58.3%)] than male [200(41.7%)] respondents in the study. When considering the respondents' race, 79.5 percent identified as being Coloured [n = 345 (79.5 %)], followed by Black African [n=81 (18.7%)], Indian [n=6 (1.4%)], and White [n=2 (.5%)]. More respondents stayed with both their parents [n=289 (60.3%)], while the least prevalent was respondents living with their fathers only [n= 12 (2.5%)].The majority were fluent in English, as their home language [227(49.0%)], which was followed by Afrikaans [150(32.4%)], and isiXhosa [74(16.0%)]. More respondents came from families where both their parents were married and living together [n=19 (71.5%)], while the least were from families with single parents, due to being widowed, or divorce [n=47 (199%)]. The respondents identified their different living arrangements, with most of their parents being married, or living together with a partner [321(71.5%)], and the rest being single [128(32%)], due to being widowed and divorced. The respondents' ages ranged from 15-20 years old (*M*=16.01; *SD*=1.042).

5.3. Identity Styles

This section comprises the results of the identity styles determined, using the Identity Style Inventory (ISI-4).The identity styles examined were, informational identity style, normative identity style, diffuse-avoidant identity style and commitment. The respondents rated these identity styles on a 4-point Likert scale, where 1 = *not at all like me* and 4 =*very much like me*. Table 5.2, below, presents the data for the informational identity style sub-scale. Table 5.3 illustrates information about the analysis of the normative identity style. The analysis of diffuse-avoidant identity style is illustrated in Table 5.4, and Table 5.5 has information on the commitment subscale, as well as items scored by the respondents.

Table 5.2: Analysis of Informational Identity Style

ITEMS RELATED TO SUB-SCALE	n	M	SD
I intentionally think about what I want to do with my life.	480	3.64	.60
Talking to others helps me explore my personal beliefs.	480	3.06	.98
When facing a life decision, I take into account different points of view before making a choice.	480	3.47	.63
I spend a lot of time reading or talking to others trying to develop a set of values that makes sense to me.	483	2.90	1.00
When facing a life decision, I try to analyse the situation in order to understand it.	482	3.41	.71
I find that personal problems often turn out to be interesting challenges.	476	3.12	.93
When making important decisions, I like to spend time thinking about my options.	477	3.41	.75
I handle problems in my life by actively reflecting on them.	474	2.99	.89
When making important decisions, I like to have as much information as possible.	476	3.57	.64
I periodically think about and examine the logical consistency between my values and life goals.	462	2.97	.81
When others say something that challenges my values or beliefs, I try to understand their point of view.	476	3.04	.91
Uncertainty about my values or life goals indicates that I need to actively seek out and evaluate relevant information.	469	2.77	.97
It is important for me to obtain and evaluate information from a variety of sources before I make important life decisions.	476	3.17	.87

Responses : 1 = Not at all like me, to 4 = Very much like me

The results in Table 5.2 reveal the Informational Identity Style Sub-scale, and the associated items. The results in Table 5.2 suggest that the respondents selected the item *"I intentionally think about what I want to do with my life"* (*M*=3.64, *SD*=.60) as being *a lot like him/her*, while the item *"uncertainty about my values or life goals indicates that I need to actively seek out and evaluate relevant information"* (*M* = 2.77, *SD* = .97) as being *not at all like him/her*.

Table 5.3: Analysis of Normative Identity Style

ITEMS RELATED TO SUB-SCALE	n	M	SD
I automatically adopt and follow the values I was brought up with.	478	3.28	.78
I strive to achieve the goals that my family and friends hold for me	482	2.84	1.00
I have always known what I believe and don't believe; I never really have doubts about my beliefs.	484	3.37	.75
I never question what I want to do with my life because I tend to follow what important people expect me to do.	480	2.38	1.09
I think it is better to adopt a firm set of beliefs than to be open-minded.	479	2.66	.97
I think it's better not to question the advice of established professionals (e.g., clergy, doctors, lawyers) when making a personal decision.	474	2.55	1.03

I think it's better to hold on to fixed values rather than to consider alternative value systems.	470	2.83	.89
I prefer to deal with situations in which I can rely on social norms and standards.	470	2.76	.90
When I make a decision about my future, I automatically follow what close friends or relatives expect from me.	478	2.22	1.13
When others say something that challenges my personal values or beliefs, I automatically disregard what they have to say.	472	2.94	.98
Uncertainty about my values or life goals makes me anxious and nervous.	472	2.75	1.03
I rarely need to spend a lot of time reasoning about major life decisions; the choice I should make is quickly obvious to me.	474	2.62	.96
When personal problems arise, I automatically know what I should do.	477	2.78	1.00

Responses = 1 = Not at all like me to 4 = Very much like me

The results in Table 5.3 reveal that the respondents selected the item *"I have always known what I believe and don't believe; I never really have doubts about my beliefs"* (*M* = 3.37, *SD*= .75) as being *a lot like him/her,* while the item *"when I make a decision about my future, I automatically follow what close friends or relatives expect from me"* (*M* = 2.22, *SD* = 1.13) as being *not at all like him/her.*

Table 5.4: Analysis of Diffuse-Avoidant Identity Style

ITEMS RELATED TO SUB-SCALE	n	M	SD
I'm not sure where I'm heading in my life; I guess things will work themselves out.	484	2.13	1.04
It doesn't pay to worry about values in advance; I decide things as they happen.	478	2.41	1.02
Many times, by not concerning myself with personal problems, they work themselves out.	476	2.53	.98
I am not really thinking about my future now it is still a long way off.	481	1.80	.95
When I have to make a decision, I try to wait as long as possible in order to see what will happen.	482	2.73	1.03
It's best for me not to take life too seriously: I just try to enjoy it.	478	2.98	.94
I try not to think about or deal with problems as long as I can.	474	2.60	1.04
I try to avoid personal situations that require me to think a lot and deal with them on my own.	474	2.67	1.08
Sometimes I refuse to believe a problem will happen, and things manage to work themselves out.	472	2.56	1.01
I find that my emotions and feelings are the best guide when facing life choices.	475	2.97	.98
My life plans tend to change whenever I talk to different people.	476	2.38	1.10
Who I am changes from situation to situation.	476	2.50	1.11
When personal problems arise, I try to delay acting as long as possible.	461	2.40	1.04

Responses : 1 = Not at all like me to 4 = Very much like me

The results in Table 5.4 reveal the items associated with Diffuse-Avoidant Identity Style. The Diffuse-avoidant identity style, sub-scale and the associated items are examined. The results suggest that the respondents selected the item *"It's best for me not to take life too seriously: I*

just try to enjoy it (*M* = 2.98, *SD* = .94) as being *a lot like him/her*, while the item *"I am not really thinking about my future now it is still a long way off"* (*M* = 1.80, *SD* = .95) as being *not at all like him/her*.

Table 5.5: Analysis of Commitment

ITEMS RELATED TO SUB-SCALE	n	M	SD
I know basically what I believe and don't believe.	482	3.61	.55
I know what I want to do with my future.	484	3.56	.71
I am not really sure what I believe.	484	3.43	.85
I am not sure which values I really hold.	479	2.97	.01
I am not sure what I want to do in the future.	479	3.11	.04
I have clear and definite life goals.	483	3.36	.80
I am not sure what I want out of life.	480	3.06	.98
I have a definite set of values that I use to make personal decisions	472	3.11	.87
I am emotionally involved and committed to specific values and ideals.	474	3.16	.88

Responses : 1 = Not at all like me to 4 = Very much like me

The results in Table 5.5 reveal the items associated with the Commitment sub-scale for maternal parental figure and paternal parental figure. The results in Table 5.5 suggest that the respondents selected the item responded *"I know basically what I believe and don't believe" (M = 3.61, SD = .55)* as being *a lot like him/her*, while the item *"I am not sure which values I really hold"* (*M* = 2.97, *SD* = .01) as being *not at all like him/her*.

5.4. Parental practices

In this section, the results of the parent involvement sub-scale determined by the Parent Involvement Mechanisms Measure are presented. The parenting practices that were examined are parental encouragement, parental modelling, parental reinforcement, and parental instruction. The respondents rated these parenting practices, in a 51 itemed questionnaire, including mother and father questions, on a 4-point Likert scale, where 1 = *not at all true* and 4, *completely true*. The analysis of parental encouragement is illustrated in Table5.6. The analysis of parental modelling is illustrated in Table 5.7. The analysis of parental

reinforcement is illustrated in Table 5.8, and the analysis of parental instruction is illustrated in Table 5.9.

Table 5.6: Analysis of parental encouragement

ITEMS RELATED TO SUB-SCALE						
ITEMS	**MOTHER**			**FATHER**		
	N	**M**	**SD**	**N**	**M**	**SD**
When I don't feel like doing schoolwork	472	2.99	1.06	426	2.63	1. 09
When I have trouble organizing schoolwork	474	2.95	1.01	426	2.71	1. 04
To try new ways to do schoolwork when I am having a hard time	474	2.90	1.06	423	2.71	1. 05
When I have trouble organizing schoolwork	470	2.87	.99	424	2.81	1. 04
When I have trouble doing schoolwork	465	2.99	.99	428	2.77	1. 03
To look for more information about school subjects	478	3.03	1.05	426	2.81	1. 12
To develop an interest in schoolwork	472	3.29	.85	420	2.88	1.12
To believe that I can do well in school	475	3.63	.72	419	3.10	1.06
To stick with problems until I solve it	474	3.05	1.00	422	2.85	1.07
To believe that I can learn new things	476	3.49	.80	424	2.99	1. 04
To ask other people for help when a problem is hard to solve	476	3.21	. 98	427	2.89	1.11
To explain what I think to the teacher	473	3.14	.92	426	2.80	1.06
To follow the teacher's directions	474	3.30	.84	408	2.92	1.04

Responses: 1 = Not at all true to 4 = Completely true

The results in Table 5.6 examine the items associated with the parental encouragement sub-scale for maternal parental figure and paternal parental figure. The results in Table 5.6 suggests that the respondents selected the item *"to believe that I can do well in school* "for maternal parental figure (*M*=3.63, *SD*=.72), as being *not at all true*, and the item *"when I have trouble organizing school work"* (*M* = 2.87, *SD* = .99) as being *completely true* for maternal parental figures, when examining the parental encouragement. In the same table, the respondents selected *"to believe that I can do well in schoolwork"* (*M*= 3.10, *SD*= 1.06) as *being true* for their paternal parental figures, while the results suggest that the item *"when I don't feel like doing school work"* (*M*=2.63, *SD*=1.09) was *not at all true* for parental encouragement.

Table 5.7: Analysis of parental modelling

ITEMS RELATED TO SUB-SCALE						
ITEMS	**MOTHER**			**FATHER**		
	N	**M**	**SD**	**N**	**M**	**SD**
Likes to learn new things	473	3.32	.87	421	2.96	1.18
Knows how to solve problems	474	3.27	.82	423	3.07	1.07
Enjoys figuring things out	470	3.08	. 93	425	3.04	1.03
Does not give up when things get hard	468	3.48	.80	427	3.12	1.07
Asks others for help when a problem is hard to solve	471	3.05	1.01	425	2.69	1.08
Can explain what she thinks to others	469	3.28	. 84	427	2.95	1.10
Can learn new things	467	3.42	. 83	421	3.04	1.07
Wants to learn as much as possible	472	3.38	. 83	420	2.97	1.0
Likes to solve problems	470	3.22	. 89	423	2.99	1.04
Tries different ways to solve a problem when things get hard	472	3.32	. 84	423	3.06	1.09

Responses = 1 = Not at all true to 4 = Completely true

The results in Table 5.7 will examine the mean and standard deviation of parental modelling between maternal parental figure and paternal parental figure. The results in Table 5.7 suggest that the respondents selected the item "*does not give up when things get hard* "for maternal parental figure (*M* = 3.48, *SD* = .80) as being *not at all true*, and the item "*asks others for help when a problem is hard to solve* "for maternal parental figure (*M* = 3.05, *SD* = 1.01) as being *completely true*. In the same table, it is suggested that the respondents selected the item *"does not give up when things get hard* "for paternal parental figure (*M* = 3.12, *SD* = 1.07), and the item *"asks others for help when a problem is hard to solve"* (*M* = 2.69. *SD* = 1.08) as being *completely true*.

Table 5.8: Analysis of parental reinforcement

ITEMS RELATED TO SUB-SCALE						
ITEMS	**MOTHER**			**FATHER**		
	N	**M**	**SD**	**N**	**M**	**SD**
I want to learn new things	472	3.48	. 81	417	3.06	1.05
Try to learn as much as possible	474	3.50	. 76	423	3.09	1.02

Have a good attitude about doing my homework	472	3.49	. 79	428	3.06	1.03
Keep working on homework even when I don't feel like it	468	3.36	. 88	428	2.94	1.05
Ask the teacher for help	470	3.38	. 90	428	2.98	1.06
Explain what I think to the teacher	459	3.23	. 90	426	2.91	1.03
Explain to her what I think about school	466	3.20	. 97	420	2.82	1.08
Work hard on homework	469	3.41	. 83	427	3.07	1.06
Understand how to solve problems	465	3.35	. 81	426	3.05	1.02
Stick with a problem until I solve it	462	3.27	. 90	428	3.02	1.05
Organise my schoolwork	468	3.27	. 90	426	2.91	1.08
Check my work	465	3.22	.96	426	2.86	1.15
Find new ways to do schoolwork when I get stuck	465	3.25	.90	424	2.89	1.10

Responses :1 = Not at all true to 4 = Completely true

The results in Table 5.8 illustrate the mean and standard deviation of parental reinforcement between maternal parental figure and paternal parental figure. The results in Table 5.8 suggest that the respondents selected the item *"try to learn as much as possible"* for maternal parental figure (*M* = 3.50, *SD* = .76) as being *not at all true*, and the item *"explain to her what I think about school"* (*M*=3.20, *SD*=.97) as *completely true*. The results also suggest that the respondents selected the item *"try to learn as much as possible* "for paternal parental figure (*M*=3.09, *SD*=1.02) as *not at all true*, and the item *"explain to her what I think about school" (M* = 3.20, *SD* = .97) as being *completely true*.

Table 5.9: Analysis of parental instruction

ITEMS RELATED TO SUB-SCALE						
ITEMS	**MOTHER**			**FATHER**		
	N	**M**	**SD**	**N**	**M**	**SD**
To go at my own pace while doing schoolwork	466	3.27	. 89	429	2.77	1.10
To take a break from my work when I get frustrated	467	3.19	. 96	428	2.71	1.12
How to check homework as I go along	466	2.95	. 98	430	2.76	1.11
How to get along with others in my class	461	3.07	. 99	426	2.83	1.08
To follow the teacher's directions	464	3.32	. 85	428	2.92	1.10
How to make my work fun	464	2.98	1.04	426	2.72	1.12

How to find out more about the things that interest me	468	3.22	. 96	428	2.93	1.08
To try the problems that help me learn the most	462	3.11	. 90	426	2.93	1.05
To have a good attitude about my homework	464	3.31	. 91	430	3.01	1.07
To keep trying when I get stuck	466	3.31	. 88	428	3.00	1.04
To stick with my homework until I finish it	468	3.22	. 91	427	3.05	1.08
To work hard	466	3.74	2.07	417	3.19	1.06
To communicate with the teacher when I have questions	460	3.45	. 81	424	3.00	1.09
To ask questions when I don't understand something	466	3.56	. 72	426	3.04	1.08
To make sure I understand one part before going onto the next	466	3.44	.84	426	3.12	1.08

Responses :1 = Not at all true to 4 = Completely true

The results in Table 5.9 examine the mean and standard deviation of parental instruction between maternal parental figure and paternal parental figure. The results in Table 5.9 suggests that the respondents selected the item *"to work hard* "for maternal parental figure (*M*= 3.74, *SD* = 2.07) as *not at all true*, and the item *"how to check homework as I go along"* (*M* = 2. 95, *SD* =.98) as *completely true*. The same table suggests that the respondents selected the item *'to work hard* 'for paternal parental figure (*M*=3.19, *SD*=1.06) as not at all true, while the item *"to take a break from my work when I get frustrated"* (*M* = 2.71, *SD* = 1.12) as *completely true.*

Table 5.10: Correlation scores for variables

VARIABLES	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Informational Identity Style	-											
2.Normative Identity Style	.55 **	-										
3.Diffuse-Avoidant Identity Style	.15**	.42**	-									
4.Commitment Style	.43**	.22**	- .41**	-								
5.Maternal Encouragement	.24**	.20**	-. 06	.17**	-							
6.Maternal Modelling	.30**	.31**	- . 01	.28**	.67**	-						
7.Paternal Encouragement	.16**	.12*	- .01	.11*	.29**	.22**	-					
8. Paternal Modelling	.12*	.05	.01	.06	.21**	.23**	.84**	-				
9.Paternal Reinforcement	.08	.00	- .01	.02	.25**	.14*	.89**	.87**	-			
10.Maternal Reinforcement	.31**	.18**	-.11*	.26**	.74**	.69**	.23**	.23**	.26**	-		
11.Maternal Instruction	.33**	.20**	-.02	.24**	.72**	.65**	.21**	.18**	.19**	.83**	-	
12.Paternal Instruction	.12*	.09	.01	.01	.26**	.20**	.91**	.88**	.95**	.22**	.19**	-

SE: standard error

** sig at 0.01 level

* sig at 0.05 level

The results presented in Table 5.10 suggest that the normative identity style was significantly positively correlated with informational style (r=.55; $p\leq$ .01). The diffuse avoidant identity style was significantly positively correlated with informational identity style (r=.15 $p\leq$ .01) and normative identity style (r=.42; $p\leq$ .01). Commitment style was significantly correlated with informational identity style (r=.43; $p\leq$ .01) and normative identity style (r=.22; $p\leq$ .01), while diffuse-avoidant identity style (r= -.41; $p \leq$ .01) was negatively correlated with commitment style.

Maternal encouragement was significantly positively correlated with informational identity style (r=.24; $p \leq$ .01), normative identity style (r= .20 < .01), and identity commitment (r= .17; $p \leq$ .01), while maternal encouragement negatively correlated with diffuse-avoidant style (r=-.06).There is a significant positive correlation between maternal modelling and informational style (r= .30; $p \leq$ .01), normative style (r= .31; $p \leq$ .01), while a significant negative correlation between maternal modelling and diffuse-avoidant (r=-.01; p ≤ .01) and

commitment (*r*= .28; *p* ≤ .01), maternal encouragement (*r*= .67; *p* ≤ .01). There is a significantly positive correlation with paternal encouragement and informational style (*r* =.16; p ≤ .01) and normative style (*r*= .12; *p* ≤ .05), while a significantly negative correlation between paternal encouragement and diffuse-avoidant style (*r*= - .01). There is a significantly positive correlation between paternal encouragement and commitment (*r*= .11; *p* ≤ .05), maternal encouragement (*r*= .29; *p* ≤ .01) and maternal modelling (*r*= .22; *p* ≤ .01). There is a significant positive relationship between paternal modelling and informational style (*r*= .12; *p* ≤ .05).

There is a significant positive correlation between paternal modelling and maternal encouragement (*r*= .12; *p* ≤ .01), maternal modelling (*r*= .23; *p* ≤ .01), paternal encouragement (*r*= .84; *p* ≤ .01).There is a significant correlation with paternal reinforcement and diffuse-avoidant identity style (*r*= - .01; *p* ≤ - .02), while maternal encouragement (*r*= .25; *p* ≤ .01) is significantly positively correlated with maternal modelling (*r*= .14; *p* ≤ .05), a positive correlation between paternal reinforcement and paternal encouragement (*r*=.89; *p* ≤ .05) and a positive correlation for paternal reinforcement and paternal modelling (*r*= .87; *p* ≤ .01). There is a significantly positive correlation between maternal reinforcement and informational style (*r*= .31; *p* ≤ .01), a significantly positive correlation with normative style (*r*= .18; *p* ≤ .01), while a significantly negative correlation with diffuse-avoidant style (*r*= - .11; *p* ≤ .05), a significantly positive correlation with commitment style (*r*= .26; *p* ≤ .01) and maternal encouragement (*r*= .74; *p* ≤ .01), a significantly positive correlation with maternal modelling (*r*= .69; p ≤ .01), a significant positive correlation with paternal encouragement (*r*= .23; *p* ≤ .01), a significant positive correlation with paternal modelling (*r*= .23; *p* ≤ .01) and paternal reinforcement (*r*= .26; *p* ≤ .01).There is a significantly positive correlation with maternal instruction and informational style (*r*= .33; *p* ≤ .01) and with normative style (*r*= .20; *p* ≤ .01). There is a significantly negative correlation between maternal instruction and diffuse-avoidant style (*r*= - .02). There is a significantly positive correlation with commitment style (*r*= .24; *p* ≤ .01), and maternal encouragement (*r*= .72; *p* ≤ .01), maternal modelling (*r*= .65; *p* ≤ .01), paternal encouragement (*r*= .21; *p* ≤ .01), paternal modelling (*r*= .18; *p* ≤ .01), paternal reinforcement (*r*= .19; *p*≤ .01) and maternal reinforcement (*r*= .83; *p* ≤ .01).

There is a significantly positive correlation between paternal instruction and informational style (*r*= .12; *p* ≤ .05),maternal encouragement (*r*= .26; *p* ≤ .01), maternal modelling (*r*= .21;

$p \leq .01$),paternal encouragement (r= .91; $p \leq .01$), paternal modelling (r= .88; $p \leq .01$), paternal reinforcement (r= .95; $p \leq .01$), maternal reinforcement (r= .22; $p \leq .01$), maternal instruction (r= .19; $p \leq .01$).

5.5. Regression

5.5.1. Informational Identity Style

Table 5.11: Hierarchical regression analysis (Informational Identity Style)

Informational Identity Style	*b*	SE *b*	B	t
Step 1				
Constant	2.33			
Maternal Encouragement	-.00	.09	-.00	-.03
Maternal Modelling	.15	.07	**.20****	2.26
Maternal Reinforcement	-.20	.09	**-.26****	-2.10
Maternal Instruction	.31	.08	**.42****	3.85
Step 2				
Constant	2.38			
Maternal Encouragement	.02	.08	.03	.24
Maternal Modelling	.11	.07	.15	1.68
Maternal Reinforcement	-.14	.09	-.19	-1.52
Maternal Instruction	.26	.08	**.35****	3.28
Paternal Encouragement	.21	.08	**.47****	2.81
Paternal Modelling	.04	.06	.09	.71
Paternal Reinforcement	-.29	.09	**-.65****	-3.28
Paternal Instruction	.05	.10	.11	.49

In Step 1: Informational Style:ΔR^2=.14

In Step 2: Informational Style:ΔR^2=.18

SE: standard error

** sig at 0.01 level

*sig at 0.05 level

In Step 1, using hierarchical regression, maternal modelling (β= .20, p= .03) and maternal instruction (β = .42; p=.04) significantly predicted the informational identity style; however, maternal reinforcement (β= -.26; p=.00) negatively predicted the

informational identity style. In Step 2, maternal instruction (β = .35; *p*=.001) and paternal encouragement (β=.47; *p*=.005) significantly predicted informational identity style; however, paternal reinforcement (β=-.65; *p*=.001) significantly predicted informational identity style negatively. The final model explained 18% of the variance for the informational identity style.

5.5.2. Normative Identity Style

Table 5.12: Hierarchical regression analysis (Normative Identity Style)

Normative Identity Style	*b*	SE b	B	t
Step 1				
Constant	1.83			
Maternal Encouragement	-.11	.10	-.13	-1.13
Maternal Modelling	.32	.08	**.36****	3.95
Maternal Reinforcement	-.15	.10	-.17	-1.36
Maternal Instruction	.20	.09	.24	2.24
Step 2				
Constant	1.96			
Maternal Encouragement	-.06	.09	-.08	-.70
Maternal Modelling	.27	.08	**.23****	3.23
Maternal Reinforcement	-.08	.10	-.09	-.78
Maternal Instruction	.14	.09	.17	1.61
Paternal Encouragement	.22	.09	.44	2.52
Paternal Modelling	-.01	.06	-.03	-.25
Paternal Reinforcement	-.35	.10	**-.70****	-3.27

In Step 1: Normative Style: ΔR^2=.11

In Step 2: Normative Style: ΔR^2=.16

SE: standard error

**sig at 0.01 level

*sig at 0.05 level

In Step 1, using hierarchical regression analysis, maternal modelling (β=.36; *p*=.00) significantly and positively predicted normative identity style. In Step 2, maternal

modelling (β=.23; *p*=.001) and paternal reinforcement (β=-.70; *p*=.001) significantly predicted normative identity style negatively. The final model explained 16%of the variance presented for normative identity style.

5.5.3. Diffuse-Avoidant Identity Style

Table 5.13: Hierarchical regression analysis (Diffuse-Avoidant Identity Style)

Diffuse-Avoidant Style	*b*	SE b	B	t
Step 1				
Constant	2.54			
Maternal Encouragement	-.06	.12	-.07	-.50
Maternal Modelling	.18	.09	.18	1.82
Maternal Reinforcement	-.24	.13	-.25	-1.88
Maternal Instruction	.11	.10	.12	1.03
Step 2				
Constant	2.54			
Maternal Encouragement	-.04	.12	-.04	-.32
Maternal Modelling	.16	.10	.16	1.58
Maternal Reinforcement	-.24	.13	-.25	-1.80
Maternal Instruction	.09	.11	.10	.87
Paternal Encouragement	.14	.10	.24	1.36
Paternal Modelling	.05	.08	.01	.68
Paternal Reinforcement	-.11	.13	-.20	-.89
Paternal Instruction	-.05	.14	-.10	-.38

In Step 1: Diffuse-Avoidant Style: ΔR^2=.01

In Step 2: Diffuse-Avoidant Style: ΔR^2=.01

SE: standard error

**sig at 0.01 level

*sig at 0.05 level

In Step 1, using hierarchical regression analysis, significantly predicted a negative correlation to diffuse-avoidant identity style. In Step 2, significantly no prediction was indicated. The final model explained 1% of the variance presented negatively for diffuse-avoidant identity style.

5.5.4. Commitment Identity Style

Table 5.14: Hierarchical regression analysis (Commitment Identity style)

Commitment Identity Style	***B***	**SE b**	**B**	**t**
Step 1				
Constant	2.15			
Maternal Encouragement	-.01	0.01	-0.11	-1.00
Maternal Modelling	.20	0.08	0.22	2.62
Maternal Reinforcement	.09	0.10	0.10	0.86
Maternal Instruction	.13	0.09	0.15	1.42
Step 2				
Constant	2.21			
Maternal Encouragement	-.07	.10	-.09	-.78
Maternal Modelling	.16	.08	.17	2.01
Maternal Reinforcement	.16	.11	.18	1.47
Maternal Instruction	.07	.09	.08	.74
Paternal Encouragement	.17	.09	.34	1.98
Paternal Modelling	.05	.06	.09	.75
Paternal Reinforcement	-.34	.10	-.70**	-3.41
Paternal Instruction	.14	.11	.29	1.23

In Step 1: Commitment Style: ΔR^2=.10

In Step 2: Commitment Style: ΔR^2=.14

SE: standard error

**sig at 0.01 level

*sig at 0.05 level

In Step 1, using hierarchical regression analysis, no prediction was indicated, however in Step 2, paternal reinforcement (β= -.70; *p*=.001) significantly and positively predicted commitment style. The final model explained 14% of the variance presented for commitment style.

5.5 Summary of findings

In conclusion of this chapter, the results of the study emanated from the data analysis that was conducted. The demographics of the study revealed a mean age of 16.01 (*SD*=1.04). The findings of this current study revealed that there were more male respondents than females, who participated. The demographic information of the study suggested that most respondents were living with both their parents, while the least of them were living with their fathers only. Most respondents were part of a two-parent family, with parents who were married. The respondents who participated in the study were between the ages of 15 and 20 years. The identity styles examined in this current study were the *informational, normative, diffuse-avoidant and commitment styles*. Scores were recorded on a 4-point Likert scale, where the results revealed the identity styles prevalence among the respondents. The results suggested that the normative style scored positively to the informational style. The diffuse-avoidant style scored positively to informational style. The commitment style was significantly correlated to informational, and the normative identity style, while the commitment style scored negatively with diffuse-avoidant identity style.

The results of this current study suggested that positive and negative correlations were found among the various subscales. Maternal encouragement had a positive correlation to the informational, normative and commitment identity styles. Maternal modelling had a positive correlation to the informational and normative styles. Positive correlations to paternal encouragement and the informational, as well as normative styles were revealed. A positive correlation was established between paternal encouragement and the commitment identity style, maternal encouragement and maternal modelling. Positive correlations between paternal modelling and the informational style were determined. More results suggested positive correlations between paternal modelling, maternal encouragement, maternal modelling and paternal encouragement. Positive correlations were established between maternal reinforcement, the informational, as well as normative identity styles. The results

revealed more positive correlations between commitment, maternal encouragement, maternal modelling, paternal encouragement, paternal modelling, paternal reinforcement, maternal instruction and informational identity style. Parental practices have the following positive correlations; paternal reinforcement and paternal encouragement; and paternal reinforcement and paternal modelling. In addition, parental practices displayed a positive correlation between paternal instruction and the informational identity style, maternal encouragement, maternal modelling, paternal encouragement, paternal modelling, paternal reinforcement, maternal reinforcement and maternal instruction. The only negative correlations revealed in the results of this current study was the diffuse-avoidant identity style, namely, diffuse-avoidant with commitment, diffuse-avoidant with paternal encouragement, diffuse-avoidant with maternal instruction, and lastly, diffuse-avoidant with paternal reinforcement.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

6.1. Introduction

In this last chapter, the results of the study, as well as the effect of parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents will be discussed. The discussion of the findings will integrate previous chapters. The research questions, objectives and hypotheses of the study were already introduced in Chapter 1; however, they are re-examined in this chapter to determine whether the aims of the study were met. The theoretical framework is linked to the findings of the study, which will be compared with previous studies that were presented in the literature review. In this chapter, the researcher also discusses the limitations of the study, recommendations offered, as well as conclusion of this current research study.

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

6.2.1. Research Questions

This study intended to answer the following research questions:

1. What is the identity style identified among adolescents?
2. What is the perceived parental involvement of adolescents?
3. What is the effect of parental involvement on identity styles of adolescents?

6.2.2. Aim and Objectives

Aim

The study aims to assess the effect of parental involvement on identity styles of adolescents.

Objectives

The objectives of the study were to:

1. Determine the identity styles of adolescents;
2. Determine the perceptions of adolescents regarding parental involvement;

3. Assess the effect of perceived parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents.

6.2.3. Hypothesis

The hypothesis of the study is in line with the objectives of the study, and is hypothesized as the following: There will be a significant effect of perceived parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents.

6.3. Identity Styles

An identity style is an important construct in adolescent behaviour. Identity has been articulated as one of the main topics in social psychology and characteristics in the recent decade. Erikson (1968) views identity as being constructed on childhood identifications, but also, as being more than these. Berzonsky (1989; 1990) underwrites three primary identity styles, informational, normative and diffuse-avoidant, which forms part of the identity versus role confusion stage of Erikson (1968), explained in previous chapters of this current study. Various studies have been conducted on identity styles and identity formation in adolescence, and late adolescence (Soenens *et al.*, 2005), dynamics of perceived parenting and identity formation in late adolescence (Beyers&Goosens, 2008), as well as a longitudinal integration of identity styles and educational identity processes in adolescence (Subitirica, Pop, &Crocetti, 2017). However, scant research has focused on the potential determinants of identity styles (Smits *et al.*, 2008).

In this current study, the researcher intended to investigate the effect of parental involvement in identity styles. Several studies have focussed on the environmental contributions, as well as genetic contributions to identity exploration and commitment (Markovitch, Luyckx, Klimstra, Abrahamson, &Knafo-Noam, 2017). Regarding the objectives, the researcher firstly intended to determine the identity styles of adolescents, and thereafter, the effect of parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents. Therefore, the results of this study revealed that the respondents could identify their identity styles, as they acknowledged being aware of their value orientations, and being committed. In addition, it was determined that the respondents highlighted the informational identity style as the most prevalent identity construct, which explored high levels of self-reflection, active information-processing, and openness towards new information. This style identification was followed by the normative

and diffuse-avoidant styles. Recent studies have determined that the informational style and normative styles are positively related to commitment, whereas the diffuse-avoidant style is negatively related to commitment (Zimmermann, Biermann, Mantzouranis, Genoud, &Croucetti, 2012). Identity development is significantly influenced by the environmental and psychological dynamics experienced by each individual, which is mostly evident during adolescence. It is important for parents to approach adolescence crucially, as well as the development of adolescent's ego identity (Phinney&Ong, 2007; Schachter, 2005). Parents can assist with challenges of the process through their child rearing behaviour.

6.4. Parental Practices

Adolescents' perceptions of parental involvement were also investigated, and formed part out of the objectives of this current study. As mentioned previously in the theoretical framework, a parents' role is to act as a caregiver, and raise well-adjusted children, who are competent and responsible (Kerby, Laris, &Rolleri, 2007). Parental monitoring, parental encouragement and parental instruction, form part of effective parent involvement (Lui, Black, Algina, Cavanaugh, &Dawson, 2010). As mentioned previously, the role of parental involvement is for parents to show interest in their children's actions on a daily basis, to show support, spend more time with children, and provide guidance on certain structures and boundaries (Brookes, 2011).The original Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler model of the parental involvement process (Hoover-Dempsey *et al.,* 2005), explores parental involvement, by investigating the mechanisms of influence, parents will engage in, when they are involved. These mechanisms include parental encouragement, parental modelling, parental reinforcement and parental instruction. A recent study by Luyckx, Schwartz, Rassart, and Klimstra (2016) had found associations between parental identity processes and adolescents' identity processes, for example, parental identification with commitment was positively related to their children's commitment making, and negatively related to their significant possible future exploration. These associations are explained by the notion that parents function as role models for their children, because they could influence their children's adolescent identity formation process.

In this current study, the results revealed that the most prevalent parental practice is parental instruction, following parental instruction with maternal parental figure, which seemed to outweigh the paternal parental figure. The rest of the parental practices mechanisms followed with parental encouragement, parental reinforcement and, consequently, parental modelling.

Empirical evidence of previous studies on parental involvement in late adolescents' identity formation, largely comprise studies that utilise the identity status paradigm (Marcia, 1966), relating identity status scores of achievement, foreclosure, moratorium, or diffusion to parent and family variables (Beyers&Goosens, 2008). These studies mostly perceive their evidence as parents' involvement in intra-individual development of exploration and commitment. These studies focused more on the fact that the identity formation process has a relationship between the adolescent and his/her surroundings (Beyers&Goosens, 2008). However, various other parental involvement studies differ in their results of the identity formation processes, such as exploration and commitment (Fullinwider-Bush &Jacobvitz, 1993; Dekovic&Meeus, 1995; Mullis, Brailsford, & Mullis, 2003; Samoulis, Layburn, &Schiaffino, 2001). More recent studies (Berzonsky, 2004) elaborated on new measures of these processes, such as identity styles and commitment, as well as identification (Soenens, Vansteenkiste, Luyckx, & Goossens, 2006). These studies assert that parents do not add much to the process of initial exploration of identity alternatives, in different domains. The results of this current study concur with previous parenting research in South Africa. A study, conducted by Roman *et al.* (2015), revealed that the authoritative parenting style was the most prevalent parenting style, with mothers being more positive than fathers, and mothers having a more caring, nurturing and supportive nature towards their children, than fathers had. It appears that, in most societies, mothers spend more time with children than fathers do (McKinney &Renk, 2008a, b; Phares, Fields, &Kamboukos, 2009).

6.5. Relationship between variables (Correlation vs regression)

One of the objectives of this current study was to assess the effect of perceived parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents. The findings support the view that identity styles are related to parental practices, under parent involvement. The findings of this current study suggest that the normative identity style was positively correlated with the informational identity style. In addition, the findings suggest that commitment was correlated with the normative and informational styles, but the diffuse-avoidant style had a negative correlation to commitment. This is consistent with previous studies (Smits *et al.*, 2008; Ahadi, Hejazi, & Foumany, 2014; Aldhafri & Al-Harthy, 2016; Rageliene &Justickis, 2016), which state that the development of ego identity is encouraged, when parents provide guidance and support to adolescents for autonomy. The authoritative parenting style has been found to be the most effective parenting style that encourages optimal development of

identity, during adolescence. The authoritative parenting style has a similar outcome to parental encouragement (maternal), since it has a positive correlation.

6.6. Maternal findings

The findings of this current study suggest that maternal modelling and maternal instruction positively predicted the informational identity style; however, maternal reinforcement predicted the informational style, negatively. The findings of this current study concur with support the study of Smits *et al.* (2008), which tested the relationship between crucial dimensions of perceived parenting (support, behavioural control and psychological control) and identity styles, among middle and late adolescents. In addition, the results emphasise that the informational identity style was positively predicted by parental support. On the contrary, diffuse-avoidant identity style predicted positively to psychological control, but negatively to maternal behavioural control. This current study's findings are similar to those of Berzonsky (2004). Further findings on maternal modelling predicted the normative style, positively. Maternal modelling derives from the parents' modelling, which is the pro-social behaviour. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (2005) suggest that parental involvement influence student achievement outcomes, through parental modelling. The diffuse-avoidant style predicted negatively and no prediction was made. This is similar to the study of Berzonsky (2004) that reported the diffuse-avoidant style to be related to permissive parenting. Since permissive parents tend to be more flexible in discipline, and grant their children more freedom than is age appropriate, it is also characterised by children having unlimited boundaries for their behaviour (Christensen, 2010; Laboviti, 2015). No prediction was made to maternal modelling and commitment.

6.7. Paternal findings

Paternal practices were also examined in this current study, with maternal practices, being related under the parent involvement umbrella. The findings of this study suggest that paternal encouragement positively predicted the informational identity style, whereas paternal reinforcement was a negative predictor of the informational style. Several studies explored the outcomes of parenting that needed to be included, globally and nationally, in its intersectionality with the economic, political, educational and overall resilience of its nation (Richter, Chikovore,&Makusha, 2010; Meintjies, Hall,Marera,& Boulle, 2010). In addition, Anderson, Monde, and Tawanda (2014) assert that the issue of fatherhood in South Africa is

complex, and the challenge of absentee fathers, as well as those living with their children, needs much more attention. It was observed in previous literature that South African society is characterised by a history of children not residing with their biological parents, due to various factors, such as poverty, migration, educational opportunities, incarceration or cultural practices. Many children are exposed to various caregivers, or are reared without fathers (Roman, Human, & Hiss, 2012). A study on the dynamics of perceived parenting and identity formation (Beyers & Goosens, 2008), observed that there is a difference in parenting between mothers and fathers, regarding the specific aspect of identity formation. An Italian study explored the gender difference of mother and father parenting, and observed that for boys, maternal and paternal strictness were negatively related to behavioural problems, and positively related to general satisfaction. Paternal acceptance was negatively related to girls' behavioural problems, while maternal acceptance was positively related to girls' general satisfaction (Di Maggio & Zappulla, 2013).However, it was established in recent research that South African fathers are not very different from fathers elsewhere. According to Bartlett (2013), the challenge of father absence increased from 42% to 48% in 2011. Therefore, South Africa is one of the countries in the world with the most cases of father absence (Richter *et al.*, 2010; Freeks, 2016). It was highlighted in previous literature that an estimated2.13 million children in SA are fatherless, and 9 million grow up without fathers (Dube, 2016; Frazier, 2015).However, this challenge creates occurrences of an escalating challenge that has an influence, and generates issues, such as broken families, aggressive behaviour among children, financial and social problems, as well as poverty (Freeks, 2016). Therefore, this challenge is seen as negative, since most household/families are left with single mothers (Hawkins, 2015).

However, another factor that is evident in South Africa is the fact that gender and woman marginalisation is a reality, as opposed to men, in terms of socio-economic opportunities, such as employment (Makiwane, Khalema, & Nduna, 2016). According to Statistics South Africa (Stats', 2011), the unemployment rate for females was 27.5% in 2012, and the figure for males was 22.8%. Therefore, the rates of female unemployment seem to remain low compared to male unemployment. This has a relation to this current study, since the positive predictions seem to be the focus of the future, in terms of father involvement. Studies reveal the importance of fathers' involvement for positive childhood and adulthood, social, psychological, psychiatric and behavioural outcomes, when compared with children in single-parent families, with absent fathers (Bronte-Tinkew, Moore, Capps, & Zaff, 2006). The

diffuse-avoidant identity style predicted negatively, and no other prediction was identified. Therefore, the outcomes of previous studies explored, seemed to agree with this current study's findings that diffuse-avoidant predicted negatively; however, other studies suggest that when the father is absent in the home, children tend to display lower mental, emotional and behavioural well-being, with the increased likelihood of negative outcomes (Choi & Jackson, 2011; Clowes, Ratele, &Shefer, [forthcoming]).Paternal reinforcement positively predicted commitment.

6.8. Limitations of the study

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

1. Across all six schools that were involved in this research study, high dropout rates of respondents were identified. Huge amounts of paper work, information sheets, consent, and assent forms were distributed among all the grade 10 learners, but many did not return the forms. These respondents could not be involved in the study, as no consent was given for them to participate; therefore, they were excluded, which influenced the generalizability of the findings, since the sample size should have been greater.
2. Certain schools requested the students to postpone meetings, from one time to another, due to unforeseen circumstances, which delayed the data collection process. For future research purposes, a realistic and proper time period should be communicated to the schools, for both parties to successfully complete data collection on time.
3. The person conducting the research should be prepared to understand, and consider the curriculum of the school, and should be flexible to fit in with the school's schedule for data collection to occur.
4. The fact that convenient sampling was used for the study placed a restraint on the accessibility of all adolescents in all socio-economic groups. The higher socio-economic school settings were not willing to provide access to the schools.

6.9. Recommendations

A suggested recommendation, based on this current study, would be that further research should be conducted on the aspect of parental involvement, more specifically, father

involvement and identity development. Numerous studies have been conducted on identity styles and identity formation; however, it is evident that there is scant research, or literature, on parental involvement (father involvement), and the impact it has on the development of children. The results established in this current study on identity styles, were almost predictable, since various studies focused on identity formation.

This study has revealed the benefits of effective parental involvement, both maternal and paternal; therefore, another recommendation is that more attention be given to the absent fathers, as well as their reasons are for being absent from their children's lives. Besides, this current study predicted positively to the paternal descriptive. The statistics identified in this study, indicates that the number of absent fathers is increasing, and the average child tends to be raised by a single mother. The emphasis and benefits of father involvement need to be identified and publicised in our society.

6.10. Conclusion

In conclusion of this chapter, the researcher investigated the effect of parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents. The findings revealed that these variables are linked, and their relationships were compared. Identity development is an important process in the lives of adolescents, since so many changes and decision-making occurs during this phase. The effect of parental involvement in this process appears to influence the outcome of identity development. Personal demographics have changed over time, and adolescents seem to have relationships with their both their parents, when they live with both parents. Adolescents seem to have broader knowledge of their norms and values, as well as the expectations of them, in society. In this current study, the researcher highlighted that the most prevalent identity style was the informational style, which linked with authoritative parenting, creating a more supportive and concrete relationship in the support structure of adolescence. This suggests that parental influence *is vital* in identity development.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Information Sheet

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
Tel: +27 21-959 2277, Fax: 27 21-959 2845
E-mail: nroman@uwc.ac.za

INFORMATION SHEET

Project Title: The effect of parental involvement on the identity styles of adolescents

What is this study about?

This is a research project being conducted by Marsha Harker-van Heerden at the University of the Western Cape. We are inviting you to voluntarily participate in this research project because the aim to examine the effect of perceived maternal and parental involvement on identity styles of adolescents.

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

The adolescent participants will be asked to participate in filling out a questionnaire about parent involvement and the effect it has on their identity. The questionnaires will be sent out to all participants, once consent has been given, and the physical measurements will be conducted during a convenient time for the participants within school time. The participants will be notified in advance of the physical measurements, time slots at least a week in advance. Should, more information be required, I will consult with you and arrange a suitable time and date that will be convenient for you.

Would my participation in this study be kept confidential?

We fully assure your personal information to be kept confidential. To help protect your confidentiality, the information you provide will be totally private; no names will be used so

there are no way you can be identified for participating in this study. Your information will be anonymous and treated confidentially. This will be done by (1) your name will not be included on the report and (2) a code number will be placed on the report. If we write a report or article about this research project, your identity will be protected to the maximum extent possible. The reports will be kept in a locked cabinet and only the interviewer and the research supervisor will have access to this information. The research findings will not include any personal details.

What are the risks of this research?

There may be risks in participating in this study. However, the parents or primary caregivers may identify possible parental needs or any other need for assistance. If participants present with a need, the researcher will liaise with appropriate resources to refer.

What are the benefits of this research?

The results from this research study will help a number of individuals; (i) parents and guardians, (ii) schools as well as (iii) welfare organisations and (iv) communities. Parents, guardians and adolescents will be aware of the influence parental involvement has on identity styles of adolescence. Schools will be able to recognise when learners experience a lack of parental support from parents. Community organisations will have an understanding of the effects of parental involvement in South African. This research will add to current interventions around parenting and behaviour modification of adolescents.

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

No specific study has been conducted on what the effect of parental involvement has for identity styles of adolescence and therefore this study aims to examine the concepts. The data collected will provide valuable information to the extent of parent involvement and how it influence adolescence.

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 at all. If you decide to participate in this research, 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 penalized 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?

You may contact me at: 0720603523 or marshavanheerd@gmail.com *or my supervisor* ***Prof Roman in the Social Work Department*** at the University of the Western Cape. If you have any questions about the research study itself, please contact Prof Roman at: Department of Social Work, tel. 021 959 2970, email: nroman@uwc.ac.za.

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

Head of Department: Prof. C. Schenck
Contact details: 021 959 2277
Dean of the Faculty of Community and Health Sciences: **Prof. J. Frantz**
University of the Western Cape
Private Bag X17
Bellville 7535

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

APPENDIX B: Parent Consent Form

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
Tel: +27 21-9592970/2277 Fax : 27 21-959 2845
E-mail: nroman@uwc.ac.za

CONSENT FORM FOR PARENTS

Title of Research Project: The effect of parental involvement on identity styles of adolescents

The study has been described to me in language that I understand. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand what my participation will involve and I agree to participate of my own choice and free will. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed to anyone. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason and without fear of negative consequences or loss of benefits.

Participant's name……..

Participant's signature…….

Date……

APPENDIX C: Respondent Assent Form

UNIVERSITY OF THE WESTERN CAPE

Private Bag X 17, Bellville 7535, South Africa
Tel: +27 21-959 2277, Fax: 27 21-959 2845
E-mail: nroman@uwc.ac.za

ASSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS

Title of Research Project: The effect of parental involvement on identity styles of adolescents

The study has been described to me in language that I understand. My questions about the study have been answered. I understand what my participation will involve and I agree to participate of my own choice and free will. I understand that my identity will not be disclosed to anyone. I understand that I may withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason and without fear of negative consequences or loss of benefits.

Participant's name……..

Participant's signature…….

Date……

APPENDIX D:Demographics questionnaire

SECTION A

PLEASE SEE QUESTIONNAIRES BELOW AND ANSWER APPROPRIATELY TOTHE BEST OF YOUR ABILITY

PLEASE COMPLETE THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION BY MARKING WITH AN X				
GENDER	**MALE**		**FEMALE**	
AGE				
GRADE				
NAME OF SCHOOL				
RACE	COLOURED	BLACK AFRICAN	WHITE	INDIAN
I LIVE WITH	Both parents	My mother	My father	Caregiver/Guardian
HOME LANGUAGE	English	Afrikaans	IsiXhosa	Other
MY PARENTS ARE	Married	Live together but not married	Single and do not live together because they have never been married	Single because he/she is widowed

APPENDIX E: Identity style inventory questionnaire

SECTION B

IDENTITY STYLES

You will find a number of statements about beliefs, attitudes, and/or ways of dealing with issues. Read each carefully and use it to describe yourself. On the answer sheet, bubble in the number which indicates the extent to which you think the statement represents you. There are no right or wrong answers. For instance, if the statement is very much like you, mark a 4, if it is not like you at all, mark as 1. Use the 1 to 4 point scale to indicate the degree to which you think each statement is uncharacteristic (1) or characteristic (4) of yourself.

Please indicate characteristic as requested above	1 Not at all like me	2 Not like me	3 Somewhat like me	4 Very much like me
1. I know basically what I believe and don't believe.				
2. I intentionally think about what I want to do with my life.				
3. I automatically adopt and follow the values I was brought up with.				
4. I'm not sure where I'm heading in my life; I guess things will work themselves out.				
5. I know what I want to do with my future.				
6. Talking to others helps me explore my personal beliefs.				
7.I strive to achieve the goals that my family and friends hold for me				

8. It doesn't pay to worry about values in advance; I decide things as they happen.				
9. When facing a life decision, I take into account different points of view before making a choice.				
10. I have always known what I believe and don't believe; I never really have doubts about my beliefs.				
11. Many times, by not concerning myself with personal problems, they work themselves out.				
12. I am not sure which values I really hold.				
13. I spend a lot of time reading or talking to others trying to develop a set of values that makes sense to me.				
14. I never question what I want to do with my life because I tend to follow what important people expect me to do.				
15. I am not really thinking about my future now it is still a long way off.				
16. I am not sure what I want to do in the future.				
17. When facing a life decision, I try to analyse the situation in order to understand it.				
18. I think it is better to adopt a firm set of beliefs than to be open-minded.				
19. When I have to make a decision, I try to wait as long as possible in order to see what will happen.				

20. I have clear and definite life goals.				
21. I find that personal problems often turn out to be interesting challenges.				
22. I think it's better not to question the advice of established professionals (e.g., clergy, doctors, lawyers) when making a personal decision.				
23. It's best for me not to take life too seriously: I just try to enjoy it.				
24. I am not sure what I want out of life.				
25. When making important decisions, I like to spend time thinking about my options.				
26. I think it's better to hold on to fixed values rather than to consider alternative value systems.				
27. I try not to think about or deal with problems as long as I can.				
28.I have a definite set of values that I use to make personal decisions				
29. I handle problems in my life by actively reflecting on them.				
30. I prefer to deal with situations in which I can rely on social norms and standards.				
31. I try to avoid personal situations that require me to think a lot and deal with them on my own.				
32. I am emotionally involved and committed to specific values and ideals.				

33. When making important decisions, I like to have as much information as possible.				
34. When I make a decision about my future, I automatically follow what close friends or relatives expect from me.				
35. Sometimes I refuse to believe a problem will happen, and things manage to work themselves out.				
36. I periodically think about and examine the logical consistency between my values and life goals.				
37. When others say something that challenges my personal values or beliefs, I automatically disregard what they have to say.				
38. I find that my emotions and feelings are the best guide when facing life choices.				
39. When others say something that challenges my values or beliefs, I try to understand their point of view.				
40. Uncertainty about my values or life goals makes me anxious and nervous.				
41. My life plans tend to change whenever I talk to different people.				
42. Uncertainty about my values or life goals indicates that I need to actively seek out and evaluate relevant information.				
43. I rarely need to spend a lot of time reasoning about major life decisions; the choice I should make is quickly obvious to me.				

44. Who I am changes from situation to situation.				
45. It is important for me to obtain and evaluate information from a variety of sources before I make important life decisions.				
46. When personal problems arise, I automatically know what I should do.				
47. When personal problems arise, I try to delay acting as long as possible.				

APPENDIX F: Parent Involvement Questionnaire

SECTION C

PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

You will see a number of questions below. The writer would like you to think about how you are treated by your parents. Questions in the first half are related to the mother and the second half to the father. Read and indicate with an X either (Not at all true), (A little bit true), (Somewhat true), (Often true), (Mostly true) or (Completely true) below what your experience is with your parents and which describes your parent's involvement best.

Questions: Mother Form	**1** Not at all true	**2** A little bit true	**3** Mostly true	**4** Completely true
My mother encourages me . . .				
1. When I don't feel like doing schoolwork				
2. When I have trouble organizing schoolwork				
3. To try new ways to do schoolwork when I am having a hard time				
4. When I have trouble organizing schoolwork				
5. When I have trouble doing schoolwork				
6. To look for more information about school subjects				
7. To develop an interest in schoolwork				
8. To believe that I can do well in school				
9. To stick with problems until I solve it				
10. To believe that I can learn new things				
11. To ask other people for help when a problem is hard to solve				

12. To explain what I think to the teacher				
13. To follow the teacher's directions				
My mother shows me that she . . .				
14. Likes to learn new things				
15. Knows how to solve problems				
16. Enjoys figuring things out				
17. Does not give up when things get hard				
18. Asks others for help when a problem is hard to solve				
19. Can explain what she thinks to others				
20. Can learn new things				
21. Wants to learn as much as possible				
22. Likes to solve problems				
23. Tries different ways to solve a problem when things get hard				
My mother shows me that she likes it when I . .				
24. I want to learn new things				
25. Try to learn as much as possible				
26. Have a good attitude about doing my homework				
27. Keep working on homework even when I don't feel like it				
28. Ask the teacher for help				
29. Explain what I think to the teacher				
30. Explain to her what I think about school				
31. Work hard on homework				
32. Understand how to solve problems				

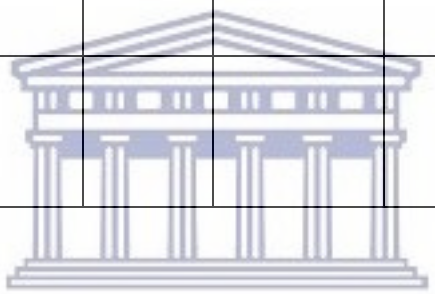
33. Stick with a problem until I solve it				
34. Organise my schoolwork				
35. Check my work				
36. Find new ways to do schoolwork when I get stuck				
My mother teaches me . . .				
37.To go at my own pace while doing schoolwork				
38. To take a break from my work when I get frustrated				
39. How to check homework as I go along				
40. How to get along with others in my class				
41. To follow the teacher's directions				
42. How to make my work fun				
43. How to find out more about the things that interest me				
44. To try the problems that help me learn the most				
45. To have a good attitude about my homework				
46. To keep trying when I get stuck				
47. To stick with my homework until I finish it				
48. To work hard				
49. To communicate with the teacher when I have questions				
50. To ask questions when I don't understand something				
51. To make sure I understand one part before going onto the next				

Questions: Father Form	1 Not at all true	2 A little bit true	3 Somewhat true	4 Often true	5 Mostly true	6 Completely true
My father encourages me . . .						
1. When I don't feel like doing schoolwork						
2. When I have trouble organizing schoolwork						
3. To try new ways to do schoolwork when I am having a hard time						
4. When I have trouble organizing schoolwork						
5. When I have trouble doing schoolwork						
6. To look for more information about school subjects						
7. To develop an interest in schoolwork						
8. To believe that I can do well in school						
9. To stick with problems until I solve it						
10. To believe that I can learn new things						
11. To ask other people for help when a problem is hard to solve						
12. To explain what I think to the teacher						
13. To follow the teacher's directions						

My father shows me that he . .						
14. Likes to learn new things						
15. Knows how to solve problems						
16. Enjoys figuring things out						
17. Does not give up when things get hard						
18. Asks others for help when a problem is hard to solve						
19. Can explain what he thinks to others						
20. Can learn new things						
21. Wants to learn as much as possible						
22. Likes to solve problems						
23. Tries different ways to solve a problem when things get hard						
My father shows me that he likes it when I . . .						
24. I want to learn new things						
25. Try to learn as much as possible						
26. Have a good attitude about doing my homework						
27. Keep working on homework even when I						

don't feel like it						
28. Ask the teacher for help						
29. Explain what I think to the teacher						
30. Explain to her what I think about school						
31. Work hard on homework						
32. Understand how to solve problems						
33. Stick with a problem until I solve it						
34. Organise my schoolwork						
35. Check my work						
36. Find new ways to do schoolwork when I get stuck						
My father teaches me . . .						
37.To go at my own pace while doing schoolwork						
38. To take a break from my work when I get frustrated						
39. How to check homework as I go along						
40. How to get along with others in my class						
41. To follow the teacher's directions						
42. How to make my work fun						
43. How to find out more about the things that interest me						

44. To try the problems that help me learn the most						
45. To have a good attitude about my homework						
46. To keep trying when I get stuck						
47. To stick with my homework until I finish it						
48. To work hard						
49. To communicate with the teacher when I have questions						
50. To ask questions when I don't understand something						
51. To make sure I understand one part before going onto the next						



APPENDIX G:Approval letter from Senate Research Committee

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Private Bag x9114, Cape Town, 8000

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REFERENCE: 20160128-7120

ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Mrs Marsha Harker-van Heerden
10 Cherry Street
Rustdal
Blackheath
7580

Dear Mrs Marsha Harker-van Heerden

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: THE EFFECT OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT ON THE INDENTITY STYLES OF ADOLESCENCE

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from **16February 2017 till 29 September 2017**
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.
Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard
Directorate: Research
DATE: 15 February 201

Appendix H: Editorial Certificate

Idea Corporation t/a
AQUARIAN PUBLICATIONS

26 November 2018

To whom it may concern

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: Editorial Certificate

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

Thesis title
THE EFFECT OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT ON THE IDENTITY STYLES OF ADOLESCENTS

Author
Marsha Harker-van Heerden

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

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

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