THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED PARENTAL BEHAVIORS AND ADOLESCENTS’ SELF-ESTEEM AMONG ADOLESCENTS AT FOUR SCHOOLS IN EAST AND WEST WOLLECA ZONES OF OROMIA, ETHIOPIA

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A Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of Addis Ababa University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Developmental Psychology

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BY: Tamene Keneni

Approved by Board of Examiners

Chairperson

Advisor

Examiner, Internal

Examiner, External

Signature Date

Signature Date

Signature Date
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List of Abbreviations

CFSEI - Culture Free Self Esteem Inventory
CSEI - Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory
NASE - National Association for Self Esteem
RSES - Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale
RSEQ - Robson Self Esteem Questionnaire
Abstract

The main purpose of this study was to examine the relationships between perceived parental behaviors (perceived parental monitoring, parental involvement, parental support, and parental punitiveness) and adolescents' self esteem. To this end, a questionnaire that consisted of 72 items was administered to 303 adolescents, 118 girls and 185 boys whose ages ranged between 14 and 22 years old, selected from four general secondary and preparatory schools found in East and West Wollega Zones of Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia. The questionnaire administered consisted of three parts: the first part consisted of 12 items that were used to tap socio-demographic characteristics of the participants, the second part consisted of 25 items that were used to tap participants' perceptions of parental behaviors and the third part consisted of 35 items that were used to quantify participants' self esteem. Analysis of the data obtained from 303 participants using Pearson Product Moment correlation, Biserial, Point-biserial, and Partial correlations revealed that perceived parental monitoring, parental involvement, and parental support were positively related to adolescents' self esteem, while perceived parental punitiveness was negatively related to adolescents' self esteem. All the relationships revealed were statistically significant at 0.01 level of significance. Results of the study were in the directions hypothesized and found to support findings of previous studies conducted in other countries/cultures. The implication of the study is that parents should involve in their adolescents' lives, monitor them adequately, provide them with necessary emotional support and minimize (or avoid) corporal punishment and all forms of behaviors or actions that communicate punitiveness.
CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

The contextual and ecological perspective of human development emphasizes the role of society, culture, and family and recognizes the importance of historical period in which the individual develops, as well as the importance of events that are unique to the individual (Gardiner, et al., 2002; Lefrançois, 1993; Papalia, Olds & Feldman, 2001).

As family is the first context or ecology, its impact on one’s development is far-reaching. Thus, the origin of all developmental processes and behaviors takes place within a family, and the pattern that began in family is maintained and exacerbated by the interactions of the individual with peers, school systems, and the larger society (Bee, 1995; Fabes & Martin, 2000).

The way parents rear their children is one of the family factors that has determining effect on the origin of overall developmental processes of children and adolescents. The strategies that parents employ to socialize their children are, in turn, influenced by customs, subcultures and culture of the society in which the growing individual lives in (Gardiner, et al., 2002; Hoffman, et al., 1994). However, the impact of family factors, especially that of parents, seem to decrease during adolescence. Recent evidences show that parents remain to exert crucial influence on their adolescents (Ettinger, 2005; Kalat, 1999). As to Ettinger (2005), parents remain to strongly influence their adolescents in major areas of life while peers seem to influence them in minor day-to-day matters such as dressing and hair-do styles. Similarly, Barca and Eitzen (1999) claim that parents, more than any body else, interact with their children and adolescents on a continuing basis and therefore remain to exert crucial impact on their development.

One way, and perhaps the most influential one, through which parents can influence the development of their children and adolescents is the parenting style they employ to socialize their children and adolescents (Bee, 1995; White & Coleman, 2000).

Developmental psychologists have been studying the impacts of parenting style on the development of children and adolescents beginning from its conceptualization by Diana
Baumrind (Bee, 1995). Baumrind (Bee, 1995; Lefrancois, 1993; Woods, et al., 2004) identified three categories of parenting styles by combining two dimensions of parenting (parental control and demandingness, and parental warmth/acceptance), and later researchers (e.g. Macoby & Martins) expanded Baumrind’s categories and added one additional category of parenting style.

Earlier researchers used this conceptualization of parenting and studied it in relation to a number of other child and adolescent developmental outcomes (e.g. academic achievement, problem behaviors, pro-social behaviors, etc). However, contemporary researchers (e.g. Kempf, 2005; Parker & Benson, 2004) have studied specific parental behaviors rather than combined parenting styles in relation to different developmental processes and outcomes during childhood, adolescence, or throughout life span.

Gecas (1989) suggested the importance of studying perceived parental behaviors (parental behaviors reported by adolescents or children) than studying actual parental behaviors (parental behaviors reported by parents themselves). In this study, four specific parental behaviors namely parental involvement, support, monitoring and punitiveness were identified and each of them would be examined in relation to self esteem.

The reason behind using this approach as to Gecas (1989) and Parker and Benson (2004) stems from the theorization that a child’s perception of parental behaviors and attitudes may play a large role in the development of his/her self esteem than the actual behavior of the parents. In addition to this, the present research focused on specific parental behaviors that are featured aspects of the combined parenting styles or child rearing patterns (Authoritative, authoritarian, permissive and neglectful or uninvolved parenting styles) rather than overall parenting styles. The reason behind using this approach is that it is methodologically sound to use specific parental behaviors instead of parenting styles as suggested and supported in many empirical literatures (e.g. Petterson & Hann, 1999 cited in Kempf, 2005; Parker & Benson, 2004).

In Ethiopian context, most often the combined form of parenting style has been studied in relation to academic achievement of children and adolescents (e.g. Berhanu, 1996; Kasahun, 2005; Sentayehu, 1998). Only few researchers have conducted studies that have examined the
relationship between specific parental behaviors and adolescent developmental outcomes and behaviors (e.g. Adugna, 2004; Deme, 1997).

In short, parenting styles and parental behaviors are not yet studied in relation to more important psychological and social developmental processes that are, in one way or the other, related to other adolescent and child outcomes (such as academic achievement, adjustment problems, problem behaviors, career preference, etc) in Ethiopian context. Therefore, this study is mainly concerned with the examination of the relationships between few selected perceived parental behaviors and adolescents’ self esteem to fill the gap that is apparent in this regard.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

So far a number of studies have been conducted on parenting styles and parenting practices in Ethiopian context (e.g. Abesha, 1997; Abraham, 1996; Berhanu, 1996; Elias, 1999; Habtamu, 1979; Kasahun, 2005).

Nevertheless, majority of the studies examined the relationships between parenting styles and academic achievement and performance of children and adolescents (e.g. Berhanu, 1996; Elias, 1996; Kasahun, 2005; Markos, 1996; Sentayehu, 1998). Some of them were carried out to investigate to what extent the categories of parenting styles expounded in Western psychological literatures prevail among Ethiopian societies (e.g. Abraham, 1996; Habtamu, 1979). Yet, few of these studies were undertaken with the aim to compare ethnic groups in the country on parenting styles and parenting practices or their consequences, most often academic achievement, (e.g. Abseha, 1997; Hambissa, 2007; Seleshi, 1998).

One common feature of these studies is that all of them were inclined to studying parenting styles rather than specific parental behaviors that are featured aspects of the combined parenting styles.

Besides, most of the researchers seem to be obsessed with the examination of the relationship between parenting styles and academic achievement and performance of children and adolescents. Therefore, it can be concluded that parenting styles, and parental behaviors for that matter, are not studied in Ethiopian context in relation to other child and adolescent
developmental outcomes such as self esteem, locus of control, social competence, etc. that are related to, in one way or the other, all other areas of adolescent development and life.

There are few researches that have been undertaken to investigate the relationship between specific parental behaviors, (such as parental monitoring, connectedness, acceptance, support, rejections, control, etc), and other child and adolescent developmental outcomes (e.g. Adugna, 2004; Deme, 1997).

This is, therefore, to say that the study of relationship between parenting styles (parenting behaviors) and other important child and adolescent developmental outcomes is lacking in Ethiopian context. Particularly, the study of self esteem (which is an important aspect of personality that greatly influences one’s thought and actions) in relation to parenting styles and parental behaviors is absent. Only few researchers studied self esteem as a predictor of academic achievement or performance of children and adolescents.

The purpose of this study is, therefore, to fill this gap. Accordingly, the present study aims at investigating the relationship between perceived parental behaviors (as independent variables) and adolescents’ self esteem (as outcome variable). To this end, hypotheses framed hereunder would be tested.

Longitudinal and retrospective studies carried out in other countries confirmed that parenting styles and parental behaviors are predictors of self esteem in children, adolescents, and even adults.

For instance Buri, et al., cited in (Mckay, 2006) studied 81 college students and found that parental acceptance, approval and support were positively related to self esteem.

Accordingly, the first hypothesis of this research is that highly perceived parental support would be associated with positive self esteem in adolescents (i.e. Positive relationship is hypothesized).

Studies carried out to examine the relationship between perceived or actual parental involvement and adolescents’ self esteem consistently revealed that parental involvement predicted adolescent self esteem (e.g. Lein & Yusuf, 2005; Martinez,(n.d.); Mboya, 1995; Wilson, 1989).
Accordingly, the second hypothesis of this research is that adolescents who perceive their parents to be involved in their education would have positive self esteem (i.e. positive relationship is hypothesized).

Studies also show that perceived or actual parental monitoring is associated to self esteem in children and adolescents (e.g. Bush, Supple & Lash, 2004; Parker & Benson, 2004). Accordingly, the third hypothesis of this study is that perceived parental monitoring would be positively related to adolescent self esteem (i.e. positive relationship is hypothesized).

Similarly, studies carried out in different countries revealed that parental punitiveness (perceived or actual)-a featured aspect of authoritarian parenting style- is related to self esteem in children and adolescents (Bush, et.al.2002; Martinez et al., (n.d); Mcroteau, 2002). Accordingly, the fourth hypothesis of this study is that adolescents who perceive their parents to be highly punitive will have low self esteem (i.e. negative relationship is hypothesized).

Along with the above main hypotheses, the study also aims at investigating difference in perceptions of parental behaviors and self esteem among the adolescents due to age, gender, and other pertinent factors (variables).

1.3. Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. General Objective

As implied in earlier sections, the general objective of the study at hand is to examine the relationship between perceived parental behaviors and adolescents’ self esteem.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

Specifically, the current study intends to:
- Determine the relationship between parental involvement and adolescents’ self esteem;
- Indicate the relationship between perceived parental support and adolescents’ self esteem;
- Identify the relationship between perceived parental monitoring and adolescent self esteem;
- Determine the association between perceived parental punitive-ness and adolescents’ self esteem;
See if there is any relationship between self-esteem and sex, age, and birth order; and

See if there is any relationship between perceived parental behaviors and sex, age, birth order and other pertinent variables.

1.4. Significance of the Study
Self esteem is an extremely important aspect of an individual’s personality. The thought and actions of an individual are greatly influenced by his/her self esteem. Moreover, it is one of the indicators of an adolescent’s well being i.e. having reasonably high and positive self esteem indicates the absence of manifested psychiatric symptoms, or presence of positive mental health and existential attributes among adolescents (Atwater, 1996).

Further more, review of self esteem research by National Association for Self Esteem (NASE, 2007) revealed that self esteem is related to a number of other areas of child or adolescent’s development and developmental outcomes. Specifically, NASE in its review of self esteem research reported that self esteem is related to academic achievement, crime and violence, teenage pregnancy, alcohol and drug use, school dropout, suicide, and health in adolescents. Based on these evidences, NASE suggests that the healthiest person to day is the one with positive self esteem and a sense of personal control (Atwater, 1996; NASE, 2007).

These evidences underscore the significance of self esteem and its relationship to many of the problems facing youths and adolescents today including Ethiopian Youths.

Thus, carrying out studies that examine the correlates of self esteem can have a fundamental and practical implications and importance. The present study aims at examining the relationship between parental behaviors and self esteem and hence can have fundamental and practical implications. Therefore, practical implications and significance of this study include but not limited to:

- Initiation of further researches in the issue under investigation.
Designing programs that can foster adolescents’ self esteem and can serve as “psychosocial vaccine” in minimizing the incidence of such many problems (e.g. teenage pregnancy, school dropout, drug and alcohol abuse, and the like) facing Ethiopian youths.

Designing parent education programs that can help parents employ optimal parenting styles and practices so that we can have productive and self-reliant young generation and citizens.

Designing programs that can enhance our societies’ knowledge and awareness of parenting children, teens, and adolescents.

1.5. Scope and Limitation of the Study

The geographical area covered by research is limited to two zones—East and West Wollega and only four general secondary and preparatory schools were selected to recruit participants from for the study.

A sample size of three hundred and three (303) participants was used as data source. Even though, a number of independent and dependent variables can be included in the study, only few independent and dependent variables (such as perceived parental behaviors and self esteem) were selected for investigation for the sake of feasibility. Data for the research would be limited to adolescents’ self-report. All these delimitations may affect the generalizability of this study.

1.6. Operational Definition of Terms

1. Adolescent: refers to an individual attending general secondary or preparatory school whose age ranges between 14 and 22 years.

2. Adolescence: refers to a developmental period between childhood and adulthood.

3. Parental Behavior: refers to specific action that is used by parents to influence their adolescents as perceived and reported by adolescents themselves.

3.1. Parental Monitoring: refers to adolescents’ perception of the extent to which mothers and fathers supervise where their adolescents are going to be, whom they are going to be with and whom their friends are. In short, it refers to knowledge and awareness of parents about the whereabouts of their adolescents.
3.2. **Parental Support**: refers to parental behavior that communicates feelings of approval, love and sense of being valued.

3.3. **Parental Involvement**: refers to adolescents’ perceptions of the extent to which fathers and mothers are concerned about their academic affairs, or it refers to adolescents’ perceptions of the extent to which their parents support their education.

3.4. **Parental Punitiveness**: refers to adolescents’ perception of the extent of their fathers and mothers use of controlling behaviors of verbal, coercive, harsh, or punitive practices.

4. **Self Esteem**: refers to how adolescents feel about themselves or value themselves as measured by Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RESE) or Cooper Smith Self Esteem Inventory (CSEI).
CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Adolescence and Self Esteem

Adolescence can be described as a phase of life beginning in biology and ending in a society. It can be defined as a period within the lifespan when most of person’s biological, cognitive, psychological, and social characteristics are changing from what is typically considered child-like to what is considered adult-like (Bee, 1995; Berk, 1989; Conger, 1991; Lerner, Noh, & Wilson, 1998; Kalat, 1999; Papalia, Olds & Feldman, 1999).

This means that adolescence is a transitional period when an individual undergoes dramatic developmental changes in all aspects of development – physical, cognitive, psychological, emotional and social. According to Lerner, Noh, and Wilson (1998) adolescence is a period of dramatic challenge to adolescents and that it requires adjustments to changes in the self, in the family, in the peer group. Even in contemporary societies, adolescents experience institutional changes in addition to developmental changes.

For instance, among younger adolescents, there is a change in school setting, typically involving transitions from elementary school to high school and in late adolescence, there is a transition from high school to the world of work, college, university, or childrearing (Cobb, 2001; Conger, 1991 & Santrock, 1999). In other words, adolescence is a period when the relatively stable growth and development, which was familiar during childhood is disrupted by biological, psychological, emotional, cognitive and social factors that force the adolescent to adapt and renegotiate to new roles and responsibilities.

Thus, scholars of human development consider adolescence as the period of human development that has perplexed parents, authorities, psychologists, and adolescents themselves for many years (Beazer, 1998; Lerner, Noh & Wilson, 1998).

Different theorists view adolescence, and how adolescents function in several different ways. For instance, for Freud (1958) as cited in Papalia, Olds & Feldman(2001), Santrock (1999) and
Stevenson (1996) adolescence is a period when an individual attains the last psychosexual stages of development - genital stage - and how the individual functions is largely dependent on how extent he/she resolved the conflicts of prior developmental stages. In other words, Freud considers as cited in Papalia, Olds & Feldman (2001), Santrock (1999) and Stevenson (1996) early periods in life as formative stages. He also claims how an individual functions as an adolescent or adult by large and far depends on the individual's experiences of early period in life - the formative years.

Specifically, as he entirely focuses on personality development, Freud believes, as quoted in Stevenson (1996), that one's personality is established during early periods in life, especially during the first three psychosexual stages of development and an individual's experiences with parents play a large role in establishing his/her personality.

For Erikson, who modified and extended Freud's viewpoint (Erikson, 1964, 1968) adolescence is a time when an individual is expected to resolve the fifth psychosocial crises of human development - identity versus role confusion. According to him, it is during this period that an individual is expected to develop in central areas of identity, intimacy, sexuality and achievement. Erikson believes personality development in general and self esteem development in particular is a life long process and its development is affected by social and cultural forces that facilitate or impede successful resolution of each successive psychosocial crises of development (Erikson, 1964, 1968).

Thus, for Erikson, self esteem development is rooted in successful resolution of each successive psychosocial crises of development and it is a life long phenomenon.


In fact, for Piaget individuals who attain this stage are capable of both concrete and abstract thinking as well as deductive and hypothetical reasoning. The implication here is that this advance in cognition during adolescence is, in one way or another, related to adolescents'
personality and self esteem. That is advance and sophistication in cognition during this particular stage leads to increment in self and social cognition (or awareness) which, are internal and external sources of self esteem respectively (Bee, 1995; Berk, 1989; Lefrancois, 1993; Owens, 1993).

To say it another way, advance and sophistication in cognition at this period puts an individual in a position of continuous self appraisal and appraisals of others- the two crucial cognitive processes from which one’s self esteem emanates.

Vygotsky thinks (Vygotsky, 1978) intrinsic forces within an individual interact with cultural forces within the society to which the individual belongs to produce individual’s self esteem. Thus, for Vygotsky an individual’s self esteem is the new transformation which is produced by the interaction of two forces (intrinsic forces within the individual and cultural forces within the society).

Alfred Adler, as cited in Ettinger (2005), Kalat (1999) and Woods, et al.,(2004) believed that personality develops out of social context and this social context provides a feeling of group unity or membership that prompts individuals to appraise themselves relative to others. Accordingly, as to him, self esteem is primarily based on social influences. This is to say a feeling of group membership or unity would lead to positive self appraisal which in turn would lead to positive self esteem. On the other hand, a feeling of group non- membership would lead to negative self appraisal which in turn would lead to low self esteem (Ettinger, 2005; Kalat, 1999).

Carl Rogers, another important figure in humanistic psychology, (Rogers, 1980) views self esteem from the viewpoint of state of congruence and incongruence-the size of the gap between ideal and actual self. According to Rogers (1980), negative self esteem is the outcome of state of incongruency- high gap between ideal self and actual self-while positive self esteem is the outcome of the state of congruency – little or no gap between ideal and actual self.
Abraham Maslow elaborates, as cited in Ettinger (2005), Kalat (1999) and Woods, et al., (2004), his theory of Motivation – hierarchies of needs – to explain how self esteem emerges and develops. The notion is that meeting the three needs at the bottom of the hierarchies of human needs (physiological needs, safety and security needs, and need for love and belongingness) successively successfully leads to the emergence of the fourth need which is known as esteem need. This need includes need for strength, achievement, competence, freedom, adequacy, independence, mastery, reputation, attention, importance, dignity, or appreciation.

Accordingly, the cause behind positive and negative self esteem is meeting these needs and failure to meet them respectively. In other words, individuals who could meet these needs tend to have positive self-esteem while those who could not meet them tend to have negative self esteem.

According to strict behaviorists, (Bee, 1995; Berk, 1989; Miller, 2002; Owens, 1993) self esteem is the outcome of the association between a response and its consequence. As to them, when a response is followed by negative consequence (for e.g. failure in examination) it is more likely to yield negative self esteem in the individual who showed the response. When a response is followed by positive consequence, it would lead to positive self esteem in the individual who showed the response. In short, such theorists try to explain the development of self esteem during childhood and adolescence in terms of reinforcement and punishment (Bee, 1995; Miller, 2002; Owens, 1993).

Another theory that may explain self esteem is Albert Bandura’s social learning theory. Bandura (Bandura, 1977, 1986) believes that behavior development occurs through observational learning. Thus, there is no exception with self esteem that it would develop from the examples of self-concepts that children and adolescents’ parents, peers and significant others displayed to the children or to adolescents.

Contemporary theorists who emphasize the importance of context, for example Bronfenbrenner(1979) and Supper & Harkness(1994) both cited in Gardiner et al., (2002), Santrock(1999) and Vygotsky (1978), on human development extend the study of human development across life span by conceptualizing the basic process of development as relational
in character. That is, they believe, development involves associations and interactions between
the developing individual and his/her complex and ever-changing social, cultural and socio-
historical contexts or ecology.

Specifically, Bronfenbrenner (1979), as cited in Bee (1995) and Gardiner et al. (2002), stated that
one’s development is determined by four interdependent ecological systems. As to his
theorization family is the first context (ecological system) to influence one’s overall development
(one’s self esteem development in our case). Here family members, especially parents, represent
Bronfenbrenner’s micro-system- the most inner system of the four ecological systems (Gardiner,

For example, family members (parents, caregivers, siblings, etc) represent Bronfenbrenner’s
micro system during infancy, but the scope of micro-system widens during adolescence and
comes to include peers, classmates, teachers, coaches, and significant others who come in to face
to face interaction with the adolescent (Bee, 1999; White & Coleman, 2000).

Thus, according to contextualists, adolescent development in general and adolescent self-esteem
development in particular is the outcome of the interaction of the growing adolescent with
his/her ecology (or context in which the development takes place).

Similarly, Supper and Harkness (1994), as cited in Gardiner, et al., (2002), have attempted to
explain how the developing individual interacts with his/her physical and psychosocial contexts
and how this interaction determines his/her development using their model known as
Developmental Niche.

According to this model, an individual’s development is the outcome of the interaction of a
developing individual, caretaker’s psychology, setting in which the individual is developing and
custom of the society to which the individual belongs. As to this model parents and parent-
figures play central role in influencing the over all development of an individual.

In summary, according aforementioned psychologists and theorists, self-esteem would develop
out of: needs Maslow cited in Kalat (1999), social interaction and group membership (
Erikson, 1968), environment through the process of reinforcement and punishment (Bee, 1995), imitation (Bandura, 1977), the interaction of the growing individual with the context in which he/she is growing (Gardiner, et al., 2002), and the interaction of the individual, caretaker's psychology, setting and the customs in which the individual is being grown up.

For the purpose of the study at hand, parents and parental behaviors represent Bronfenbrenner's micro-system and Supper and Harkness' caretaker's psychology of Developmental Niche. In short, the hypotheses of this research are primarily derived from these two models. These two models belong to Ecological theory. Ecological theory suggests that parental attitudes and behaviors can influence the psychological functioning (including self-esteem) of adolescents and they are, in turn, influenced by cultures (Gardiner, et al., 2002; White & Coleman, 2000). This study, therefore, is guided by Ecological theory of human development.

2.2. Self Esteem as an Aspect of Human Development

2.2.1 Meaning, Dimensions and Measures

The dependent variable of this study, Self Esteem, is an important aspect of child and adolescent development and it is one of the indicators of adolescents' wellbeing (Cheng, 1997; Edmondson, et al., 2005; & Owens, 1993). Self-esteem is a more complex term to define than it initially seems. As a result, it has been defined and portrayed in different several ways. In some literatures (e.g. Lefrancois, 1993) it is used interchangeably with terms such as self-worth and self-concept. In other literatures (e.g. Atwater, 1996; Bee 1989; Berk 1995) distinction is made between self esteem and self concept and even self esteem is portrayed as one aspect of self concept. Yet other people often confuse self confidence and self esteem. However, while self-confidence is always related with a specific activity, self-esteem refers to an over all self-judgment (Amae, et al., 2004; Owens, 1993).

Therefore, it can be concluded that self esteem is a concept with many definitions, dimensions and even many measures. With regard to its definition, for example, as to Lefrancois (1993), self-esteem refers to "how we view ourselves". For Bee (1995), it is "a global evaluation of one's worthy." For Atwater (1996) and Berk (1989), "Self-esteem is the evaluative side of self-concept that includes judgments about the extent to which the self is good, capable, and significant and
worthy”. According to Coopersmith (Amac. et al., 2004) self-esteem reflects the extent to which people believe themselves to be capable, significant, successful, and worthy.

With regard to its dimensions Battle, as cited in Amac. et al., (2004), states that self-esteem comprises general, social, academic, and parents’ self-esteem. Similarly, Berk (1989) distinguishes between three main dimensions of self esteem—academic self-esteem, social self-esteem and physical self-esteem—each of which has its own sub-areas of self-esteem. In this study, however, global/general self-esteem is considered rather than specific dimensions and sub-areas of self-esteem.

With regard to its measurement, Rosenberg (1965) has devised an inventory known as Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSES). RSES is a widely used 10-item measure of global self-esteem. Similarly, Robson (1988, 1989) cited in Amac. et al., (2004) has developed a measure known as Robson-Self Esteem Questionnaire (RSEQ). RSEQ is a 30-item measure developed to capture the full breadth of self-concept. Battle (1981, 1992) cited in Edmondson et al., (2005) has also developed a measure known as Culture-Free Self Esteem Inventories (CFSEI) to measure self esteem. CFSEI was developed and revised to fairly measure self-esteem across cultures. Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory (CSEI) is also another measure of self esteem (Edmondson, et al., 2005).

2.2.2. Developmental Changes in Self-Esteem

Self-esteem development begins early in life when a child begins to develop a primitive sense of her/his own separateness (Bee, 1995; Kalat, 1999; Lefrancois, 1993; Papalia, Olds& Feldman 1999).

However, the question is that once the child formulates a sense of self-esteem, does it remain stable or fluctuate across life span? The results of cross-sectional studies suggest that self-esteem does not remain stable and it tends to change across lifespan. For example, Lefrancois (1993) admits that self esteem formulation starts early in life, but asserts that it is not clearly defined, differentiated and measurable until the age of eight. On the other hand, Woods, et al., (2004) claim children can have a clear global self esteem even at the age of seven.
Berk (1989) asserts that self-esteem is higher among younger children and tends to drop during elementary schools as the context in which the children give judgment about themselves becomes wide in scope. Like other areas of development, a host of factors influences self-esteem at each stage of human development (Berk, 1993; Lefrancois, 1993; Papalia, Olds & Feldman, 1999).

Thus, there is no exception that self-esteem development during adolescence is influenced by a multiple of factors (Cobb, 2001; Conger, 1991; Lefrancois, 1993; White & Coleman, 2000) and it also influences other areas of adolescent’s development and life.

Cross-sectional studies also show that self-esteem during adolescence is no more stable. For example, according to Simmers, Rosenberg and Rosenberg (Miyamoto, et al., 2000) self-esteem drops during early adolescence (around the age of 12), but gradually increases thereafter with a pronounced elevation at the age of 16. In general, fluctuation in self-esteem during adolescence is attributed to changes in family variables (e.g. family income, family structure, etc) and social variables (e.g. Peer relations, teacher relations, etc) which are interconnected and interactive with one another (Cobb, 2001; Santrock, 1999; Gardiner, et al., 2002; White & Coleman, 2000) in addition to personal variables (e.g. advance in cognition).

In many Psychological literatures, self-esteem is portrayed to be essentially a social structure (Bee, 1995; Lefrancois, 1993; & Owens, 1993). This means that it arises in social experiences and its origin lies in the complex interrelationships between the developing individual and other who comprise his/her environment (Bee, 1995; Owens, 1991).

Moreover, Bee (1995), Gardiner, et al., (2002) and Owens (1993) contend that self-esteem is the reflection of the responses and appraisals of others. As to these scholars, self-esteem has dual sources. The first source is internal source such that characteristics of the developing individual child or adolescent. The second source is external or outer source-“reflected appraisals” of other people. Thus, self-esteem originates from the complex interrelationship and interactions of these two sources.
According to Hales (1990), as cited in Owens (1993), parents provide first hand and most important atmosphere in which almost all children have their first experience as social beings. Thus, parents are considered as the significant sources in the origin and development of children’s self-esteem. Abrhamson, et al., (2002) cited in Ettinger (2005) and Hales (1990) cited in Owens (1993) and they remain to play large role in the development of self esteem during adolescence, and even adulthood.

Moreover, Owens (1993) uses the diagram below to display the process by which an awareness of personal attributes is translated in to self esteem.

**Figure 2.2.2.1: The Process of Translation of Personal Attributes into Self-esteem**

![Diagram of self-esteem process](source: Owens (1993: 276))

### 2.2.3. Self Esteem and Age

There are inconsistencies in literatures with regard to variation of self esteem with age. However, a comprehensive study carried out by Robins, et al., (2002) provided a clear and comprehensive picture of age differences in self-esteem from age 9 through 90. Robins and colleagues (2002) carried out the study using cross-sectional data from 326,641 individuals over the Internet and found that self-esteem levels were high in children, dropped during adolescence, rose gradually throughout adulthood, and declined sharply in old age. Moreover, this trajectory is generally held across gender, socio-economic status, ethnicity and nationality (U.S citizens versus non-U.S. citizens).
Recent studies carried out in countries other than U.S.A support this study. Nevertheless, there is no empirical study carried out to investigate the relationship between self-esteem and age, or developmental stages in Ethiopia.

2.2.4. Gender and Self Esteem

Literatures are inconsistent with regard to sex/gender differences in self esteem. For example, a recent longitudinal study of Finnish Twins (Raevouri, et al., 2007), which employed Rosenberg global self esteem scale, reported that self esteem scores were higher for boys than girls both at age 14 and 17.

Robins, et al., (2002) reported a clear picture of gender (sex) differences in self esteem from their cross sectional data over Internet. Specifically they reported that self esteem scores are slightly higher for boys between 9 and 12 years of age than for girls of the same age, significantly higher for male of age groups 13-17, 18-22, 23-29, 30-39, and 40-49 than for females of the same age group. In short, Robins and colleagues study revealed that males tend to have higher self esteem than their counterpart females across life span.

In support of this finding, a cross cultural study carried out by Miyamoto and colleagues (Miyamoto, et al., 1999) which employed Rosenberg self esteem scale revealed that male adolescents reported significantly higher self-esteem than female adolescents. Yet, a recent study conducted in U.S.A, which involved black adolescents, only reported that males tend to have higher self esteem in comparison to females (Thames, 2007).

In contrast, other empirical studies pinpointed that females as group tend to report higher self-esteem than their males counter parts. Yet, other empirical studies reveal that there is no gender (sex) variation in self-esteem. For instance, Kohler, et al., (1998), Lerner, et al., (1981), and Mullis, et al.,(1991) all cited in Miyamoto, et al., (1999) found no differences in self-esteem between males and females as a group. In support of these findings, Rieks, (2008) reported insignificant difference in self-esteem between males and females as a group.
There are no empirical data with respect to gender difference in self-esteem in Ethiopian context. However, speculations show that females as a group tend to have lower self-esteem than males. Such speculations attribute high attrition rate among girl students, lower academic and school achievement among girl students at all academic or school levels, etc. to lower self-esteem and judge or speculate females to have lower self-esteem.

2.2.5. Self Esteem and Family Structure

Scholars of human development and family contend that family structure continues to be important factor in the adolescents' life (Bee, 1995; Conger, 1993; Owens, 1993). Absence of one or both parents has a crucial effect on the overall development of a child or an adolescent though the effect seems to vary across gender and age. It is often expounded in human development literatures that boys from single-parent family encounter difficulties in social, emotional and cognitive development and tend to perform below average in schools (Bee, 1995; Conger, 1991; Hetherington and Parke, 1979 & Owens, 1993). Particularly according to Biller cited in Conger (1991) boys from single parent mother-headed family are more likely to be immature, to have more difficulty forming peer relations, to be less popular with peers, and to have a poorer self-concept.

Familial dysfunction (e.g. divorce, separation, death of one parent or both, family conflict, etc.) seem to have grave effects if they are experienced early in life than late in life (Bee, 1995; Cobb, 2001; Conger, 1992; Hetherington & Parke, 1979; Owens, 1993).

With respect to the effects of family structure on development in general and adolescent self esteem in particular, empirical data seem to be rare. However, one study carried out in U.S.A seems to support what is expounded in literatures, Sweeney, et al., (2000), conducted this study. Their study examined the relationship between student’s multidimensional self concept and family structure. They collected data from 815 preadolescents and adolescents (ages 9 to 19). Two main findings were reported by the researchers: (1) the total self-concepts of students from single parent families were significantly lower than that of students from intact families; (2) the self-concept scores of students from mother headed and father headed reconstituted families were significantly lower than that of students from intact families.
In Ethiopia, self-esteem has been studied only as a predictor of academic achievement or other outcome variables. Because of this, there are no empirical data or findings with regard to the effect of family structure on self-esteem.

2.2.6. Perceived Parental Involvement and Adolescents’ Self Esteem

There are many ways for parents to become actively involved in their children and adolescents’ lives. Perhaps, one of the most beneficial for their adolescents is to take an interest in the child and adolescent’s education. Maceoby and Martin’s conceptualization of parent-child relations adds the fourth type of parenting styles—which is commonly called neglecting or un-involved style (Bee, 1993). Parents who exercise the neglecting / uninvolved parenting style are low in both the level of demand and control, and level of acceptance. According to Bee (1995), Conger (1991) and Owens (1993), the neglecting type is most often cited to yield negative developmental outcomes among children and adolescents.

Local researches were inclined to examine the relationship between parenting styles and/or parental behaviors and academic achievement (e.g., Admasu, 2004; Sentayehu, 1998). As a result, there are no empirical data that can be cited with respect to the relationship between parental involvement and adolescents’ self-esteem. However, studies carried out in other countries revealed that parental involvement is related to children or adolescents’ self-esteem in one way or another.

For instance a study conducted by Martinez and his colleagues (n.d.) on Brazilian adolescents indicated that adolescents from neglectful (families that do not involve in their children’s life) have scored significantly lower than adolescents from authoritative and authoritarian families in four self-esteem dimensions, academic, social, family and physical.

Study conducted by Mboya (1995) on adolescents of South Africa also supports the above conclusion. This study revealed that there was positive relationship between adolescents’ self-concept and their perceptions of parental behaviors. Specifically, perceived parental encouragement, expectations and participations were found to be positively related to adolescents’ self-esteem. Wilson (2002) also reported that parental attention (e.g. involving in adolescents’ academic matters) was positively correlated to adolescents’ self-esteem.
Lein and Yusuf (2005) who employed Coppersmith self-esteem inventory to measure adolescents’ self esteem found that parental involvement was related to adolescents’ self-esteem though the relationship between the two variables was stronger for boys than girls.

In general, studies that attempted to investigate the relationship between parental involvement (especially taking interest in child’s education) and child’s or adolescent’s self-esteem consistently reported that perceived parental involvement was positively correlated with self-esteem. That is children/adolescents who perceived their parents to be actively involving in their education and other activities were found to score higher in various self-esteem measures.

2.2.7. Parental Support and Adolescents’ Self Esteem

Parental support is one of the specific parental behaviors that are frequently cited to bear crucial influence on children and adolescents’ development in general and self esteem in particular.

As to Kempf (2005), parental support consists of behaviors such as praising, accepting, approving, encouraging and communicating warmth. These behavioral components of parental support have been cited to predict many positive developmental outcomes (qualities) of adolescents including self-esteem, identity formation, conformity to parents, expectations, and autonomy in reference to parents (Paul, 2002; Parker and Benson, 2004; Peterson cited in Kempf, 2005).

A handful of studies have been conducted, in other countries, to find out the association between parental support and development outcomes in children and adolescents and to document empirical data. For instance, Barber (1992) conducted a cross-cultural study on self-esteem and perceived parental behaviors and reported that (1) parents were perceived as engaging in similar levels of behavior in each culture, (2) parenting behaviors (parental support and control) were significantly related to self-esteem in U.S adolescents, but not in Germans; and (3) More general measure of quality of parent-adolescent relationships was strongly related to self esteem in Germans. Specifically, this study revealed that perceived parental support was positively
associated with self esteem in U.S adolescents though similar association was not found in Germans.

Similarly, a study conducted by Parker and Benson (2004) which used a sample size of 16,749 adolescents with diverse race and ethnicity revealed that parental support was strongly positively associated to adolescent self-esteem.

Another study which compared black and white high school students reported that there was positive relationship between parenting styles and adolescents self concept though there was variation in the black and white adolescents (Mboya, 1995).

Using 2014 adolescents from high schools around the metropolitan area of Cape Town the researcher reported that: (1) for black students all the dimensions of self-concepts measured were positively related to their perception of parental behaviors; (2) for white students some dimensions of (e.g. family, general, school and physical appearance self concepts) self-concept were positively related to their perception of parental behaviors (Mboya, 1995).

A cross-cultural study that compared Brazilian and U.S. adolescents (Wilson, 1989) on perceived parental behaviors and adolescent self esteem also found parental support to be predictive of adolescent self esteem. This same study found that there was no cultural variation and parental support was found to be predictive of self esteem and influential in both cultures.

Employing Coppersmith Self-Esteem Inventory, Lein and Yusuf (2005) studied Malaysian adolescents and reported that (1) parental support was positively correlated with adolescents’ self-esteem and (2) girls self-esteem was found to be more strongly affected by parental support than of boys.

### 2.2.8. Parental Monitoring and Adolescents’ Self Esteem

Parental monitoring is one of the featured aspects of parenting styles Petterson and Hann (1999) as cited in Kempf (2005) and it is a specific action that is used by parents to influence children and adolescents. Thus, it is one of the independent variables to be examined in this study.
Parker and Benson’s (2004) study demonstrated that parental monitoring was moderately positively correlated to adolescent’s self-esteem—adolescents who perceived their parents as monitoring moderately scored higher on self-esteem measure. Similarly, Paul (2002) revealed that there was positive correlation between perceived parental monitoring and body image, one aspect of self-esteem.

After carrying out a comprehensive review of self-esteem research literature Patterson, et al., (1999) as cited in Perozzi (2007) reported that high parental monitoring was found to be associated with higher self-esteem. Patterson, et al., also found out that higher parental monitoring was found to be linked with higher parental involvement. In contrast, Brawski et al., (2003) cited in Perozzi (2007) revealed that parents with poor monitoring were shown to trust their adolescents less whilst allowing more negotiated unsupervised time.

Broyd, et al., (2001) as cited in Cleveland (2005) revealed that parental monitoring was shown to decrease with age of boys but not for girls suggesting that boys and girls’ perceptions of parental monitoring differ. This same study revealed that high parental monitoring in conjunction with emotional support serves as protective factors for adolescent problem behaviors and is positively associated with higher self-esteem in adolescents. Using large sample size of Mexican adolescents, Bush, Supple, and Lash (2004) found out that monitoring by mothers and fathers was positively associated with self-esteem for both boys and girls.

They further reported that among the variables the researchers considered as predictor variables, parental monitoring was the only consistent predictor of self-esteem across all gender of parents and gender of adolescents. This result suggests that when adolescents perceive parents as having knowledge about their adolescents’ activities, there is a benefit to self-esteem regardless of gender.

As stated at the beginning, empirical studies that examine the relationships between specific parental behaviors and children and adolescents’ self-esteem are absent. The study at hand, therefore, is an attempt to fill this gap.
2.2.9. Parental Punitiveness and Adolescents’ Self-Esteem

Parental punitiveness is one of the parental behaviors, which refer to the use of force by parents (Kempf, 2005). Parental punitiveness is the featured aspect of authoritarian parenting, which consists of either verbal or physical behavior that is characterized by a forceful, arbitrary, and harsh nature (Kempf, 2005).

Studies have been carried out, in other countries, to see if such parental behavior, punitiveness of parents, could be related to self-esteem and academic achievement.

For instance, Bean, et al., (2003) conducted a study that attempted to examine the relationship between self-esteem and academic achievement (dependent variables) and parental support, behavioral control, and psychological control (as independent variables). The results of this study, which used African American and European American adolescents as a sample, revealed that behavioral control was a significant predictor of self-esteem and academic achievement among European American adolescents while psychological control was found to be significant predictor of self-esteem in both groups.

In addition to these findings, the study provided support for the methodological value of examining the parenting dimensions independently as opposed to combing them to form parenting style.

Similarly, a study conducted on Brazilian adolescents revealed that there was association between perceived parenting style and adolescent self-esteem (Martinez et al., n.d.). Martinez et al., recruited 1,239,11-to-15 year old Brazilian adolescents and let them fill out parental socialization scale and Multidimensional self-esteem scale which appraises five dimensions of self-esteem-Academic, social, emotional, Family and physical.

Based on adolescents’ answers to parental socialization scale teenagers’ families were classified into one of the four groups (authoritative, authoritarian, Indulgent or Neglectful) of parenting styles.
Results showed that adolescents from authoritarian parents scored significantly lower in three dimensions of self-esteem (academic, social, and family) than adolescents from authoritative and neglectful parents. This means that adolescents who perceived their parents to be highly controlling and punitive tend to have lower self esteem in academic, social and family dimensions of self-esteem. Similarly, Kempf’s study in Appalachian adolescents (Kempf, 2005) demonstrated a significant negative correlation coefficient between parental punitiveness and adolescent autonomy (or self-esteem).

A study conducted by Mcroteau (2002) on college students showed that means of self-esteem scores were higher with both low authoritarian parenting and high authoritative parenting. The same study revealed that higher authoritative parenting from both parents (father and mother) would be related to higher self esteem in the adolescents participated in the study.

A research conducted in Main Land China yielded similar findings. Bush et al. (2002) conducted a study in Mainland China using 480 adolescents attending secondary schools located in Beijing and found that perceived parental punitiveness was a negative predictor of Chinese adolescents’ self esteem regardless of gender.

In general, studies conducted in other cultures, revealed that highly perceived parental punitiveness was consistently associated with lower self-esteem in adolescents.

In Ethiopian, context, there are no empirical findings with regard to the relationship between perceived or actual parental punitive ness and self-esteem in adolescents. Maybe this research is the first attempt to document empirical findings with regard to the issue.

2.2.10. Summary of the Review of Empirical Literatures

Under empirical literature review section, an attempt was made to critically review empirical literatures in relation to variables of interest. To this end, review of the literature was made section by section and its summary is given hereunder.

The first subsection of the section dealt with age difference in self-esteem. With regard to this issue literatures seem some what consistent. Here different several empirical literatures reveal
that self-esteem is a developmental phenomenon that tends to change across life span (Bee, 1995; Owens, 1993). In general, the reviewed literatures showed that self-esteem is higher during childhood, drops during early adolescence, elevates during late adolescence, slightly rises during adulthood and sharply declines in old age (e.g., Robins, et al., 2002).

The second subsection dealt with the review of empirical literatures that portray the relationship between gender and self-esteem. Empirical literatures are not consistent with regard to the gender differences in self-esteem. Relatively large body of the literature portrayed that males as group tend to have higher self-esteem than females (e.g., Raevouri, et al., 2007, Robins, et al., 2002, Thames, 2007). In contrast, a small body of literatures portrayed that females as a group tend to have higher self-esteem than males. Yet, some of the literature revealed that there was no gender difference in self-esteem Kohler, et al., (1998) cited in Miyamoto, et al., (1999) and Reisk (2008).

The third subsection assessed empirical literatures on the relationship between family structure and adolescent self-esteem. These literatures clearly revealed that family structure has crucial bearing on adolescent self-esteem. In general, adolescents from intact families tend to score higher on self-esteem measures than adolescents from non-intact families though the impact varies with age and gender (e.g., Bee, 1995; Cobb, 2001; Conger, 1992).

The fourth subsection attempted to assess empirical literatures on the relationships between parental involvement and adolescent’s self-esteem. In these literatures, parental involvement was portrayed to be significant predictor of self-esteem in adolescents. Adolescents who perceived their parents to be involving scored high on self-esteem measures and those who perceived their parents to be not involving scored lower on self-esteem measures (Lein & Yusuf, 2005; Martinez, et al., n.d.; Mboya, 1995; Wilson, 2002).

The fifth subsection dealt with the relationship between parental support and adolescents’ self esteem. The literature revealed that parental support was significant predictor of self-esteem in adolescents. In other words, highly perceived parental support was found to be significantly associated with higher self-esteem among adolescents (Bush, et al., 2004; Parker & Benson, 2004; Paul, 2002).
The sixth subsection is devoted to the relationship between parental monitoring and adolescent self-esteem. The literatures reviewed consistently revealed that high parental monitoring was significant predictor of adolescents’ self-esteem. In other words, perceived parental monitoring was found to be positively associated with adolescent’s self-esteem (Barber, 1992; Bush, et al., 2004; Parker & Benson, 2004; Paul, 2002; Wilson, 1989).

Finally, the last subsection dealt with the relationship between parental punitive ness and self-esteem in adolescents. The review consistently revealed that parental punitiveness was significant predictor of self-esteem in adolescents. Adolescents who perceived their parents to be punitive scored lower on self-esteem measures and those who perceived their parents to be not punitive scored higher on self esteem measures (Bean, et al., 2003; Kempf, 2005; Martinez, et al.; Mcroteau,2002).
CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design

The research is a cross-sectional one as its data were collected at once from adolescents of different ages.

Besides, the research is quantitative in nature as its data were secured by quantifying questionnaire consisting of mostly close-ended Likert type items. In terms of the statistical procedures used for data analysis, the research is mostly correlational in nature as its main purpose is determining the relationship between the dependent and independent variables selected for the study, and the degree and direction of the relationship.

3.2. Research Site, Population and Sample

The data of this research were generated and collected from adolescents at four General Secondary and Preparatory schools. The four schools from which adolescents were selected are found in three towns that are found within two adjacent zones of Oromia regional state-East Wollega and West Wollega.

The three towns (Nekemte, Ghibi, and Nedjo) in which the schools are found are located along the main road from Addis Ababa to Assosa approximately at a distance of 333, 441 and 516 kilometers, respectively.

Two of the four schools from which participants were selected are found in Nekemte town, the capital of East Wollega Zone. Nekemte is found at a distance of 333 kilometers from Addis Ababa to the West of the country. It is a juncture town for different administrative zones that are found in West and South West Oromia Regional State and even different adjacent regional states (e.g. Amhara and Benishangul-Gumuz).

There are three government run secondary high schools (two general secondary schools and one preparatory school), one missionary general secondary school, and one privately owned general
secondary school. From these schools, Biftu Nekemte General Secondary School and Nekemte Preparatory School were purposefully selected to recruit participants from.

Another school from which participants of this study were recruited is found in Glimbi town. Glimbi is the major town of West Wollega Zone. It is found at a distance of 441 kilometers from Addis Ababa and is the juncture of main roads coming from Dambi-Dollo- major town of Qellem Wollega Zone of Oromia- and Assossa-capital of Benishangul-Gumuz Regional State.

There are three secondary high schools in the town, two of which are owned by government and the rest one by faith-based nongovernmental Organization. Glimbi General Secondary and Preparatory School is the one with largest student population and it was purposefully selected to be included in the study as students of grade 9 through 12 could be selected from the school.

The fourth school from which participants of this research were selected is found in Nedjo town. Nedjo is the major town of Nedjo District (woreda) which is one of the districts found in West Wollega Zone. It is found at a distance of 516 kilometers from Addis Ababa to the West. Nedjo General Secondary and Preparatory School is known for its largest student population and this is why it was selected for this study.

3.3. Procedures of Sample Selection

Different techniques and procedures were used to select schools, grade levels and sections from which participants of this study were recruited. Data for this study were collected at the beginning of the second semester of 2007/2008 academic year.

Participants from Nedjo General Secondary and Preparatory school were selected in such away that four homeroom teachers were selected randomly and these four homeroom teachers were made to distribute 25 questionnaires among the students in their respective room.

From Glimbi General Secondary and Preparatory School, participants were selected in such away that all available students who came to collect back their examination paper were made to fill out the questionnaire.
From Biftu Nekemte General Secondary Schools, two sections from grade 9 and 10 were selected randomly and all the students of the selected sections were made to participate in the study.

Selection of participants from Nekemte Preparatory School was done with the help of the unit-leader of the school. Students were selected from grade 11 and 12 randomly.

3.4. Instrument of the Study

A questionnaire consisting 72 close-ended items was used to collect the data used in this study. The questionnaire has three parts. The first part of the questionnaire consists of 12 items, which were used to tap socio-demographic characteristics of the participants. The second part of the questionnaire consists of 25 items that were used to generate and tap responses from participants with regard to their perception of their parents’ behaviors. The items were close-ended Likert-type descriptive statements that were answered on four point scales except the first item of this part. The first item of this section of the questionnaire was used to tap participants’ perception of the parent or parent figure that functions as primary parent.

As stated, 24 items of the second section were Likert type descriptive statements that were answered on four point scales (never=0, rarely =1 sometimes =2 and always=3). These 24-items were sub-classified in to four subscales to tap participants’ perception of four aspects of parental behaviors. The first subscale consists of six items that were used to tap participants’ perception of parental monitoring. The possible scores on this subscale ranged between 0 and 18. The higher score indicates high parental monitoring and lower score indicates low parental monitoring. The second subscale consists of 6 items and it was used to tap participants’ perception of parental involvement. The possible scores on this subscale ranged between 0 and 18; the higher score indicating high parental involvement and low one indicating low parental involvement.

The third subscale also consists of the same number of items and it was used to tap participants’ perception of parental support. The possible scores on this subscale also ranged between 0 and
higher score indicating high parental support and the low one low parental support. The fourth subscale of the section also consists of 6 items that were used to tap participants’ perception of parental punitive ness. The possible scores on these 6 items ranged between 0 and 18, the lower score on the subscale indicating low parental punitive ness and the higher one indicating high parental punitiveness.

All the items of this section of the questionnaire were designed and developed by the researcher after carrying out extensive and intensive review of literatures on the issue.

The third part of the questionnaire consists of 35 items that are Likert type in nature. The items were adapted from different sources and were used to measure participants’ global self-esteem. The first ten items form the measure of self-esteem known as Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale (RSES). Rosenberg developed this scale of self-esteem before three decades and it has been widely used since then. RSES has been widely used because it is believed to have good psychometric adequacy (i.e. reliability and validity) and invariably measures self-esteem across different cultures.

For instance, Schmitt and Allik (2005) translated RSES into 28 languages and administered to 16,1998 participants across 58 nations and found no variation across the nations. The items in RSES were answered on four point scales (strongly disagree=0, disagree=1, agree =2 and strongly agree = 3). The possible scores on RSES ranged between 0 and 30; low score indicating negative self-esteem and high score positive self esteem by reverse scoring negatively worded statements.

The last 25 items of the third part of the questionnaire form the self-esteem measure known as Cooper Smith Self Esteem Inventory (CSEI). In this study, CSEI was used with little modification. The original CSEI is answered on two point scales. But for the purpose of this research it is modified and answered on four point scales (very much unlike me = 0, unlike me 1, like me= 2 and very much like me= 3). Possible scores on CSEI ranged between 0 and 75. By reverse scoring statements with positive valence high score indicates negative self esteem and low score positive self esteem. Like RSES, CSEI is believed to have reliable psychometric
adequacy. For instance, Liu (1985) witnessed, by testing CSEI for reliability and validity, it is not culture-specific.

Two measures of self-esteem were used simultaneously in this study to ensure the validity as well as reliability of the measurements.

3.5. Psychometric Adequacy of the Instrument
Adequate care was taken to ensure the linguistic equivalence of the instrument when translated into Afan Oromo from the original language. A parallel back translation procedure was followed. First, two bilingual scholars (those who hold MA in English and have good command of Afan Oromo) translated the instruments into Afan Oromo and a bilingual scholar who did not see the original instruments translated them back into the original language. The two translations were crossed checked for consistency.

With regard to the validity and reliability of the instrument similar care was taken. First, the instrument was rated by two scholars (individuals holding MA in psychology) for validity and their ratings were found to be consistent.

Second, pilot study was carried out to check out the reliability and workability of the instrument. To this end, the instrument was administered to 30 students of 10+1, 13 female and 17 male, and its reliability was calculated. With this pilot study, the instrument was found to have a reliability of Alpha 0.72 and found workable. Some items that seemed to lack clarity were reworded based on the responses of subjects used for the pilot survey.

3.6. Procedures of Data Collection
Different procedures of data collection were followed at the four schools from which participants of this research were selected. First, permission was sought from administration of the respective schools. Next, orientation was given for the students and home room teachers who distributed the questionnaires among the students. This is to say that at some schools, the researcher himself administered the questionnaire and at other schools homeroom teachers and unit leaders of the schools administered it.
In general, 420 questionnaires were distributed at the four schools among which 382 were returned. From the returned 382 questionnaires, 79 questionnaires were rejected because of incompleteness or certain kind of defect.

3.7. Description of Variables

3.7.1. Independent Variables
Perceived parental behavior is the independent variable of this study. This variable is operationalized by 24 items, which were Likert-type in nature and answered on four-point scales. Perceived parental behaviors are sub-classified into parental monitoring, involvement, support, punitiveness. Each specific perceived parental behavior was measured by subscales of 6-item.

3.7.2 Dependent Variable
Global self-esteem is the dependent variable of this study. Rosenberg Self Esteem Scale and Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory were used to measure it.

3.7.3. Moderator Variables
Gender, age, family structure, parental education background, place of birth, school, grade level and birth order were some of the variables suspected for having moderating/confounding effects.

3.8. Statistical Procedures and Techniques
As stated at the beginning of this part of the thesis, the research is mostly correlational in nature i.e. it aims at the examination of the relationship between the independent and dependent variables identified. Hence, Pearson Product-Moment Correlation, Point-biserial and Biserial correlation techniques were used to determine the relationships between the variables. To control for variables that were suspected to influence the relationships between target variables, Partial correlation technique was used.
Ferguson (1985), Mangal (2003) and Kothar (2007) suggested that in correlation research Partial Correlations are special types of correlation coefficients that can be used to eliminate or partial out the intervening effects of undesirable variables, i.e. leading to independent and reliable relationship between the variables of interest. Mangal (2003) further suggested that controlling for two or more main variables by Partial correlation techniques automatically controls the effects of other variables since other variables are related to the main variables controlled for. Therefore, Partial Correlation Coefficient Techniques were employed in this research to control for main variables that may have intervening effects.
CHAPTER IV: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Socio-demographic Characteristics of the Sample

4.1.1. Gender

The study involved both male and female adolescents. Table 4.1.1. presents the frequency and percentage of male and female participants.

Table 4.1.1 The Proportions of Male and Female participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As one can see from Table 4.1.1, about 39 percent (118) of the participants were female adolescents while about 61 percent (185) of them were male adolescents.

4.1.2. Age

The study also involved adolescents of different age levels, the lowest age being 14 and the highest 22 years old. In the study, adolescence is classified as early adolescence (14 to 17 years) and late adolescence covering the ages between 18 and 22 years of old for the sake of comparison on independent and dependent variables. The table given below summarizes distribution of the whole sample by age groups.

Table 4.1.2. Distribution of the Participants by Age Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14-17 years</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-22 years</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from Table 4.1.2 on the preceding page, about 49% (149) of the adolescents participated were early adolescents (whose ages ranged between 14 and 17) and about 51% (154) of them were late adolescents (whose ages ranged between 18 and 22 years).
4.1.3. Family Structure

Table 4.1.3 that follows gives the summary of distribution of the sample by family structure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Structure</th>
<th>Live with</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>father alone</td>
<td></td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother alone</td>
<td></td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both parents</td>
<td></td>
<td>207</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>others</td>
<td></td>
<td>49</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>303</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As one can observe from the table, among the 303 adolescents involved in the study about 68 percent (207) of them reported that they are coming from non-intact family; meaning they are living with both paternal and maternal parents. The rest 32 percent (96) reported that they were from intact families - families were either both parents or one of them was absent due to death, divorce or separation. Specifically, about 16 per recent (49) of the adolescents were living with other parental figures such as grand parents, uncles, etc than their biological parents. About 4 percent (12) of them were living in families where only father is present and about 12 percent (35) of them reported they were from families where father is absent (mother headed family).

4.1.4. Family Size

The adolescents involved in this study were from families with different sizes. The table below summarizes distribution of the sample by family size.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Family Size</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 members</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-6 members</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-10 members</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 or more members</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As one can observe from Table 4.1.4, about 14 percent (41) of the participants reported that they were from family size of three -father, mother and son or daughter. About 51 percent (154) of them reported that they were from a family size of 4, 5, or 6. About 34 percent (104) of them reported that they were from a family size of between 7 and 10. About 4 percent (11) of them reported that they were from a family of 11 or more members.

4.1.5. Ethnicity

Table below presents distribution of the sample by ethnicity.

Table 4.1.5: Distribution of the Participant Adolescents by Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Oromo</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>92.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amhara</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>5.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guraghe</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown by Table 4.1.5, among the 303 adolescents involved in the study, majority (about 92% or 280 adolescents) of them identified themselves to belong to Oromo. About 5 percent (16) identified themselves to belong to Amhara, and about 2 percent (7) of them identified themselves to belong to Guraghe.

4.1.6. Parental Educational Background

The participants of the study were also from parents with differing educational backgrounds. Table 4.1.6 presents the summary.
As shown by Table 4.1.6, about 16 percent (47) of them reported that their father could not read and write. About 33 percent (101) of them reported that their father attended elementary school (1-8). About 16 percent (49) of them said that their father attended some secondary school (9-12). Yet, about 32 percent (98) reported that their father attended some higher institution beyond grade twelve.

With regard to their mother's educational background, 29 percent (89) reported that their mother could not read and write. 39 percent (118) said that their mother attended some elementary school (1-8). 13 percent (38) said that their mother attended some secondary school (9-12) and 19 percent (54) reported that their mother attended some higher institution beyond grade 12.

4.1.7. School
As stated under part three of the thesis, adolescents who were made to participate in the study were recruited from four General secondary and preparatory schools. Table 4.1.7 presents the frequency and percentage of participants selected from the four schools.
### Table 4.1.7: Distribution of the Participants by School

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Name</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Biftu Nekemte G.S.S.</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ghimbi G.S. &amp;Preparatory</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nedjo G.S.&amp;Preparatory</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nekemte Preparatory</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>303</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As one can see from Table 4.1.7 above, about 28 percent (84) were selected from Nedjo General Secondary and Preparatory School, 25 percent (75) from Ghimbi General Secondary and Preparatory school, 24 percent (74) were from Biftu Nekemte General Secondary School and 23 percent (70) were selected from Nekemte preparatory school.

### 4.1.8. Grade Level of the Participants

Adolescents who were included in the sample of this study were of different grade levels. Table 4.1.8 presents distribution of the sample by grade level.

### Table 4.1.8: Distribution of the Sample Adolescents by Grade Levels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 9</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 10</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 11</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 12</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>303</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 4.1.8, 19 percent (56) were ninth graders, 31 percent (93) were 10th graders, 29 percent (88) were 11th graders and 22 percent (66) were twelfth graders.

### 4.1.9. Religious Affiliation of the Participants

The participants of this study were also of different religious backgrounds. Table 4.1.9 below presents their distribution by their religious affiliation.
Table 4.1.9: Distribution of the Participants by their Religious Affiliation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Religious Affiliation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orthodox</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protestant</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As one can observe from Table 4.1.9, 29 percent (87) of the participants were orthodox followers, 4 percent (12) of them were Muslims, 50 percent (152) were protestants and 17 percent (52) of them reported that they are followers of indigenous religions (e.g. Waqeffannaa) and other non-protestant faiths (e.g. Adventist, Catholic, etc).

4.1.10. Place of Birth and Residence

As general secondary and preparatory schools are most often found in towns, participants of this study were from two residential backgrounds—urban and rural. Table 4.1.10 below summarizes their distribution by their place of residence.

Table 4.1.10 Distribution of the Participants by their Place of Birth and Residence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Residence</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As depicted by Table 4.1.10 above, 45 percent (135) of them were from rural areas and 55 percent (168) of them reported that they were urban dwellers.

4.1.11. Birth Order

In terms of birth order, the participants were first born, middle born and last born. Table 4.1.11 below presents their distribution by birth order.
Table 4.1.11: Distribution of the Participants by their Birth Order

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Birth Order</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Firstborn</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middleborn</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lastborn</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 4.1.11 above, about 20 percent (61) were first born, 53 percent (161) were middle born and 27 percent (81) were last born.

4.2. Adolescents’ Perception of Parental Behaviors

Participants were asked to indicate who does function as primary parent in their family (Item 13) and they responded as given in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Perceived Primary Parents of the Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived primary parent</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both parents</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>48.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>10.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>303</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As one can understand from Table 4.2., about 22 percent (65) of them responded that their father plays upper hand role in parenting. That is their father plays upper hand role in monitoring, supporting and punishing them. About 20 percent (59) responded that their mother plays upper hand role in parenting, 48 percent (146) responded both parents play equal roles in parenting and 11 percent (33) responded that their primary parent is neither their biological father nor biological mother, but others (grand parents, elder brother or sister, adoptive parents, etc).
4.2.1. Perceived Parental Behaviors and Adolescents' Self Esteem

As discussed under the methodology section, four specific parental behaviors have been identified as independent variables. Self-esteem is supposed to depend on these four specific variables. A 24-item subscale of the questionnaire was used to secure data on these four specific parental behaviors as perceived by adolescents. Six items that were answered on four point scales were used to quantify each specific parental behavior. Similarly, two separate psychological tests were used to quantify adolescent' self esteem.

The descriptive statistics of the scores earned by the sample are summarized in the table hereunder.

Table 4.2.1: Descriptive Statistics of Participants' Scores on Parental Behaviors and Self Esteem Measures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Number of items used</th>
<th>Descriptive statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Parental monitoring</td>
<td>Six</td>
<td>13.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Parental involvement</td>
<td>Six</td>
<td>11.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Parental support</td>
<td>Six</td>
<td>13.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Parental punitiveness</td>
<td>Six</td>
<td>6.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Self esteem</td>
<td>10(RSES)</td>
<td>19.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>25(CSEI)</td>
<td>25.97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As one can see from the table, equal numbers of items were used to quantify adolescents' perception of the four parental behaviors. Nevertheless, participants' average scores on the four measures are somewhat different. It can be understood from the table that participants' average score on parental monitoring is slightly greater than their average scores on parental involvement and support. This can be interpreted as adolescents perceive their parents as more monitoring than involved and supporting. When their average score on parental punitiveness is compared with their average scores on the three specific parental behaviors the difference becomes very significant. This indicates that adolescents tend to perceive their parents more positively than negatively.
The main objective of the research is to determine the relationship between the variables of interest i.e. the relationship between perceived parental behaviors and adolescents’ self-esteem. However, to determine un-confounded and reliable relationships between the variables, other variables that may have intervening effects must be controlled for. To do so, I attempted to select some variables and correlate them with both the independent and dependent variables of the study.

To this end, family structure, family size, parental education status, religious affiliation, place of birth and residence, grade level, sex, age, school, and birth order were identified as intervening variables and their relationship with both the independent and dependent variables were determined.

However, majority of these variables were found to have no or negligible correlations with the variables of interest. For example, family stricture was found to have negligible correlation with adolescents score on self esteem (r=0.01) as well as with their scores on measures of parental behaviors (e.g. r= 0.003). Hence, variables that were found to have no or negligible correlations with the target variables were excluded from the computation of partial correlation coefficients. As suggested in many statistics literatures (e.g. Ferguson, 1985; Mangal, 2003) the computed coefficients of correlation that range between 0.00 and 0.12 can be considered as almost negligible. Therefore the exclusion of these variables was made on these suggestions.

Only sex, age, and birth order are found to have, from low to moderate, significant correlations with the target variables. Thus, sex, age and birth order were included in the study as control variables.

As stated under methodology section, Partial Correlation Coefficient technique would be used to control for the intervening effects of sex, age and birth order.
4.2.1.1 Perceived Parental Monitoring and Self Esteem

It was hypothesized at the onset, that adolescents who perceive their parents to be monitoring would have positive self-esteem. To test for this hypothesis, the correlation coefficient of adolescents’ scores on items that measured perceived parental monitoring and self esteem was computed by controlling for the intervening effects of sex, age, and birth order. The correlation matrix hereunder is constructed to indicate the correlations among independent, dependent, and confounding variables and to compute coefficient of correlation between parental monitoring and self esteem.

Table 4.2.1.1: Correlations between Self Esteem, Parental Monitoring, Age, Gender and Birth Order

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>X1</th>
<th>X2</th>
<th>X3</th>
<th>X4</th>
<th>X5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self Esteem (X1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental Monitoring (X2)</td>
<td>-0.17</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age (X3)</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>-0.22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender (X4)</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
<td>-0.28</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth Order (X5)</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

By controlling for gender, age, and birth order, through partial correlation technique I computed coefficient of correlation between perceived parental monitoring and self esteem. The value of $r$ was found to be -0.37. Here the negative sign indicates that, those who scored high on parental behavior measures scored low on self esteem measure (i.e. CSEI). In other words, high score on parental behavior measures indicates high parental monitoring while high score on CSEI indicates negative self esteem. Thus, $r$ (-0.37) can be interpreted as parental monitoring is positively related to self-esteem, i.e. adolescents who perceived their parents to be monitoring would have positive self esteem and those who perceived their parents not to be monitoring would have negative self-esteem. Hence, the data supported the hypothesis set.
To see whether the computed $r$ is statistically significant or not, I performed test of statistical significance (t-test). The test performed confirmed that the value of $r$ is statistically significant ($t=-6.89$, df=298, $p<0.01$ - two tailed).

This finding is in line with many research findings cited in the literature review section. For example, it is in line with studies conducted by Parker and Benson (2004) and Bush, Supple, and Lash (2004). Parker and Benson (2004) conducted study on 16,749 adolescents and found that high parental monitoring was related to positive self esteem in adolescents ($r=0.07$). Similarly, using a large sample of Mexican adolescents, Bush, Supple, and Lash (2004) found that parental monitoring was positively correlated to self esteem among adolescents.

One possible explanation for this result is that adolescents perceive parental monitoring as caring behavior than as controlling behavior and this positive perception may boost their self esteem. Another possible explanation is that parental monitoring may communicate parental love and emotional support, which in turn lead to the satisfaction of need for love and belongingness. Satisfaction of the need for love and belongingness in turn leads to positive self esteem as posited by A. Maslow.

**4.2.1.2 Perceived Parental Involvement and Self Esteem**

The hypothesis here was that perceived parental involvement, especially in the academic affairs of their adolescents, would correlate positively with adolescents’ self esteem. To test for this hypothesis, I computed coefficient of correlation between adolescents’ scores on measures of parental involvement and self esteem. This means that, partial correlation coefficient between the two variables is computed. As usual, partial correlation coefficient technique is used to determine an independent and reliable correlation coefficient between variables of interest by eliminating the intervening effects of age, gender, and birth order.
Thus, the value of partial correlation coefficient computed is -0.24. The negative sign here does not mean high parental involvement is accompanied by negative self esteem. Instead, it indicates that, low scores on the self esteem (CSEI) accompanied high scores on measures of parental involvement. As low scores on CSEI are indicative of positive self esteem, the value of r here can be interpreted as adolescents who perceive their parents to be involving would have positive self esteem, and hence the data supported the hypothesis.

To see if the value of r computed is statistically significant, I conducted test of statistical significance. The test performed indicated that, r is statistically significant at 0.01 level of significance (t=-4.27, df=298, p<0.01 two-tailed).

This relationship found between parental involvement and adolescents’ self-esteem is consistent with research findings reviewed. For example, this finding is in accordance with the findings of Lein and Yusuf (2005), Mboya(1995), and Wilson (2002), who reported positive association between parental involvement and adolescents’ self esteem.

Using, Coopersmith Self Esteem Inventory to measure adolescents’ self esteem, Lein and Yusuf (2005) found that parental involvement was related to adolescents’ self esteem, the relationship being stronger for boys than girls. Similarly, Mboya (1995), using a sample of adolescents from South Africa, reported that perceived parental participation and encouragement were positively
related to adolescents’ self esteem. In his study, Wilson (2002) also found that parental attention (e.g. involving in adolescents’ academic matters) was positively correlated to adolescents’ self esteem.

One possible explanation for such association is that, be actual or perceived, parental involvement encourages academic achievement and success, which in turn can enhance positive self esteem. Another possible explanation is that involvement can communicate parental concern, love, and care. This in turn can lead to a sense of being valued which may enhance positive self esteem in adolescents.

4.2.1.3 Perceived Parental Support and Adolescents’ Self Esteem

The third hypothesis of the research at hand is that, perceived parental support would be positively associated with adolescents’ self esteem.

To see if the data secured supports this hypothesis, I also computed coefficient of correlation between scores on parental support measures and self esteem measures (CSEI) by controlling for intervening variables such as age, gender, and birth order through the technique of partial correlation coefficient.

The correlations among the variables (dependent, independent, and intervening variable) are given hereunder and the partial correlation coefficient is calculated from these correlations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>X1</th>
<th>X2</th>
<th>X3</th>
<th>X4</th>
<th>X5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X1 (self esteem)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X2 (Parental Support)</td>
<td>-0.25</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X3 (Age)</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>-0.23</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X4 (Gender)</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X5 (Birth Order)</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When partial correlation coefficient is computed for parental support and self-esteem, it is found to be -0.21. This value of $r$ can be interpreted to mean parental support is moderately associated with self-esteem of adolescents. The negative sign of $r$ here should not be misunderstood that it indicates the relationship between participants' scores on parental support and self-esteem measures. Since high scores on parental support measures indicate high perceived parental support and high scores on self-esteem measure (CSEI) negative self-esteem, the negative sign of $r$ here means that high perceived parental support is associated with positive self-esteem.

To see if this association is statistically significant, test of statistical significance (t-test) is performed. The result indicated that, the association is statistically significant ($t=-3.70, df=298, p<0.01$-two tailed). Therefore, I can assert that, the third hypothesis of this research is also supported.

This result is also in accordance with empirical data reviewed in the literature review part. Specifically, this result is in accordance with the findings of Parker and Benson (2004), Lein and Yusuf (2005) who reported positive association between parental support and self-esteem.

Parker and Benson (2004), using a sample size of 16,749 adolescents with diversified race and ethnicity, and controlling for race and gender, reported that perceived parental support was positively associated with adolescents' self-esteem ($r=0.31$). Wilson (1998) who compared Brazilian and U.S.A. adolescents reported that perceived parental support was positively related to adolescents' self-esteem in both cultures without variation.

Studying Malaysian adolescents, Lein and Yusuf (2005) reported that perceived parental support was positively correlated to adolescents’ self esteem the correlation being stronger for girls than for boys. Studying South African high school adolescents, Mboya(1995) also reported that all dimensions of self esteem measured were positively related to perceived parental support for black students.

Therefore, the researcher can assert the association found between perceived parental support and adolescents’ self esteem in this research is in line with previous research findings.
Parental support, as operationally defined in this research, refers to perceived parental behavior that communicates feelings of approval, love and sense of being valued.

Thus perceiving one’s parent(s) as supportive may create a sense of being approved, loved and valued in the adolescents and this feeling of being approved, loved and valued may enhance positive self esteem among the adolescents who perceived their parents to be highly supportive. This is one possible explanation for the significant positive association between perceived parental support and adolescents’ self esteem obtained in this research.

Another possible explanation for such significant positive association is that perceiving one’s parent as supportive can strengthen the attachment between parents and their adolescents. Strong attachment between the two parties in turn can create feelings of safety and security in the adolescents. This feeling of safety and security which results from strong attachment may enhance positive self esteem among the adolescents.

### 4.2.1.4 Parental Punitiveness and Adolescents’ Self-Esteem

The other hypothesis of the research was set in such a way that parental punitiveness would be negatively associated with adolescents’ self-esteem.

To see whether the data supports this hypothesis or not, participants’ scores on measures of parental punitiveness were correlated with their scores on CSEI by controlling for the variables that were supposed to have intervening effects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>X1</th>
<th>X2</th>
<th>X3</th>
<th>X4</th>
<th>X5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self esteem(X1)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parental punitiveness(X2)</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age(X3)</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>-0.31</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender(X4)</td>
<td>-0.32</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Birth order(X5)</td>
<td>-0.30</td>
<td>-0.21</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

49
When I computed partial correlation coefficient between parental punitiveness and self-esteem by controlling for other variables given in the table above, the value of $r$ was found to be 0.70. The positive value of $r$ does not mean that self-esteem is related to parental punitiveness positively. Since high scores on parental punitiveness indicates high parental punitiveness and high scores on CSEI negative self-esteem $r$ can be interpreted as adolescents who perceived their parents as punitive would have low self-esteem.

To check whether the association ($r=0.70$) is statistically significant, test of statistical significance is done. The result of the test indicated that, the association is statistically significant at 0.01 level of significance ($t=16.92$, $df=298$, $p<0.01$ two-tailed) and hence the hypothesis is supported.

This association found between parental punitiveness and self-esteem is inline with many research findings reported. Specifically, this finding is in accordance with research findings of Bush, et al., (2002), Meroteau (2002), Kempf (2005), and Bean, et al., (2003), all who reported negative association between parental punitiveness and adolescents’ self-esteem.

For instance, studying 480 adolescents attending secondary high schools found in Beijining, Mainland China, Bush, et al., (2002) revealed that perceived parental punitiveness was a negative predictor of Chinese adolescents’ self esteem regardless of gender. Similarly, studying Appalachian adolescents Kempf (2005) demonstrated that there was a significant negative association between perceived parental punitiveness and adolescents’ self esteem. Martinez, et al., who studied 1,239 Brazilian adolescents, also reported similar association between perceived parental punitiveness and adolescents’ self esteem. Bean, et al., (2003) who studied a large sample of European American and African American adolescents also reported similar pattern of association between perceived parental punitiveness and adolescents’ self esteem.

One possible explanation for such strong and significance negative association between perceived parental punitiveness and adolescents’ self esteem is that, be actual or perceived, parental punitiveness threatens adolescents or children’s feelings of safety and security. In addition to this, it can loosen the bond between parents and their adolescents. This lack of or
little feelings of safety and security and attachment with parents among adolescents can be one possible cause for low self-esteem among the adolescents who perceived their parents to be highly punitive.

Another possible explanation for such association is that all forms of actions and behaviors that communicate parental punitiveness can also convey a message of not being accepted, loved, valued and approved to the adolescents. This can be another possible cause for negative self-esteem among adolescents who perceived their parents as highly punitive.
CHAPTER V: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Summary
The main objective of this research was to examine the relationship between perceived parental behaviors and adolescents’ self esteem. To this end, four specific perceived parental behaviors were identified and their relationships with self esteem have been examined. Besides, in order to determine reliable relationships between the independent and dependent variables of the study, an attempt has been made to control for variables that were found to have significant relationships with the variables of interest.

Specifically, the study has been designed to attain the objectives outlined below:

➢ To determine the relationship between perceived parental monitoring and adolescents’ self esteem.
➢ To identify the relationship between perceived parental involvement and adolescents’ self esteem.
➢ To determine the relationship between perceived parental support and adolescents’ self esteem.
➢ To examine the relationship between perceived parental punitiveness and adolescents’ self esteem.

To attain these objectives, a questionnaire that consisted of 72 items was developed. The questionnaire has three parts. The first part consisted of 12 items that were used to secure socio-demographic characteristics of the participants. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of 25 items that were used to secure data on adolescents’ perception of their parents’ behaviors. The third part consisted of 35 items that were used to secure data on self esteem.
Using the questionnaire, data were gathered from 303 adolescent students selected from four general secondary and preparatory schools found in East and West Wollega Zones of Oromia Regional State, Ethiopia.

By excluding variables that were found to have negligible correlations with the target variables and controlling for those variables that were found to have significant correlations with them, coefficients of correlation were computed for perceived parental behaviors and adolescents' self esteem.

Based on the computed coefficients of correlation the following conclusions are arrived at:

1. Perceived parental monitoring is positively related to adolescents' self esteem ($r = -0.37$). The result is in the direction hypothesized. That is adolescents who perceive their parents to be monitoring would have positive self esteem. The result of $r$ is found to be statistically significant ($t = -6.89$, $df = 298$, $P < .01$). The value $r$ is also found to be in agreement with findings of other researchers. For example, Parker and Benson (2004) found positive association between parental monitoring and adolescents' self esteem ($r = 0.07$).

2. Perceived parental involvement was also found to be positively associated with adolescents' self esteem ($r = -0.24$) and the association is statistically significant ($t = -4.27$, $df = 298$, $P < 0.01$). This result is also in the direction hypothesized and found to support research findings explored in the literatures reviewed.

3. Perceived parental support was found to be positively associated with adolescents' self esteem ($r = -0.21$) and this relationship is statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). This result is also in the direction hypothesized and it is also found to support research findings reported in many empirical literatures. For example, Parker and Benson (2004) found similar result ($r = 0.31$).

4. Perceived parental punitiveness was found to be negatively associated with adolescents' self esteem ($r = 0.70$) and the association is statistically significant ($t = 16.92$, $df = 298$, and $P < 0.01$).

The result is in the direction hypothesized and it also found to support many empirical data explored in the literature review chapter.
5. Finally, self esteem was found to be more related to individual level variables such as sex, age and birth order than family level and other demographic variables in this study.

5.2. Conclusions

The hypotheses of this research were generated based on research findings reported in other countries. Consequently, its findings were compared with research findings of other countries.

The findings of this research were found to support the findings of studies conducted in other cultures. That is, self esteem among adolescents was found to relate to perceived parental monitoring, parental involvement and parental support positively. However, the relationship was negative between self esteem and perceived parental punitiveness. Such pattern of association between perceived parental behaviors and adolescents' self esteem has repeatedly been reported in empirical literatures on this issue.

Even though, they were in support of research findings in other countries in the pattern of association, the results of this research seemed to deviate (differ) in the strength of association from such research findings.

In many empirical literatures, perceived parental support has been reported to be strongly related to adolescents' self esteem compared to parental monitoring, involvement and other specific parental behaviors studied in relation to children and adolescents' self esteem. For instance, Parker and Benson (2004) reported that both perceived parental monitoring and parental support were related to adolescents' self esteem positively, the strength of the relationships being ($r=0.07$) and ($r=0.31$), respectively.

Nevertheless, in this study the strength of the association between perceived parental support and adolescents' self esteem seems to be weak ($r=0.21$) compared to the association of self esteem with perceived parental involvement($r=-0.24$) and parental monitoring($r=-0.37$). This apparent difference poses research question that must be addressed by further research.
Besides these findings, this research implied that gender (being male or female), age (being young or late adolescent) and birth order (being firstborn, middle born, or lastborn) were related, in one way or the other, to both adolescents’ perception of parental behaviors and their self esteem. This is also another research question posed by this research and must be addressed and substantiated by further research.

In general, in spite of all its delimitations, the results of this research are more similar to the results of researches done in other countries implying that adolescents’ perceptions of parental behaviors are related to their self esteem in similar patterns of association regardless of cultural differences and this also must be substantiated by further cross-cultural studies.

5.3 Recommendations

Depending on the findings of this study, the following recommendations and/or suggestions are forwarded:

- Parents should monitor their children and adolescents as adequately as possible, involve in their children and adolescents’ lives as much as possible and provide them with emotional support (communicate their love, warmth, wish, etc) since all these have desirable outcomes on their adolescents’ development in general and self esteem development in particular.
- Parents should minimize (or avoid if possible) corporal punishment and all forms of behaviors or actions that communicate punitiveness since they have undesirable outcomes on their children or adolescents’ development.
- All concerned organizations, authorities, scholars, individuals etc who aspire to have children and adolescents with reasonably high and positive self esteem should work towards the identification of correlates of self esteem and ways of enhancing children and adolescents’ self esteem.
- Parents should be reached through all possible means (e.g. media, parent education programs, etc.) to enrich their awareness and knowledge of parenting practices and their outcomes on their children and adolescents’ overall development.
- Finally, it is suggested that, further study must be conducted with diversified and better sample size, by including as many as possible parental behaviors, controlling for all
intervening variables and collecting data from adolescents (perceived parental behaviors) and parents (actual parental behaviors).
References


Garuma Dessalegn (2005). Self Concept and Academic Intrinsic Motivation as Related to Academic Achievement of Preparatory Program Students in Western Shoa Zone. MA Thesis, AAU.


Appendices

Yuunvarsitii Finfinnee
Mana Barumsaa Qo’nnaa Eebba Boodaa
Kutaa Barnootaa Saayikoloojii

Kaayyoon bargaffii kanaa baratoota sadarkaa lammaffaa irraa odeeffannoo qo’annaaf oolu maddisisuufi funaanuudha.

Odeeffannoo
Dhimma qo’annichaa ilaachisee odeeffannoo barbaachisaa tae kennuuuf bargaffii gabaabduu kana akka naaf guuttan kabajaanan isin gaafadhaa.(Odeeffannoo isin kennis kana hojjii qo’annaaf koofan oolaha).Maqaa bareessuuun hinbarbaachisu.Odeeffannoo barbaachisu naaf kennuun hojjii qo’annaaf kana keessatti hiraachuun keessan miidhaa isiniti fidu tokkoyyuu hingabu.

Qo’annaaf kana keessatti hiraachuun keessan dhimmaa qo’atamu kana(waa’ee dargaggootaafi warra isannii)irratti hubannaab barbaachisu akka argannu nu gargaara.Maqaa bareessuuun waan hinjirreef odeeffannoon isin kennis eenyu akka kenne beekuun hindanda’anumu kana malees erga hojjin qo’annaaf kun xumuramee booda bargaffii guutame kuun ni gubama.Kanaafuu,soda tokko malee odeeffannoo gaafatatamtan mara siriitii akka naaf guuttan adaraa jeecaa hiraan naa keessaniif durseen galatoomaa jedha.

Waligalteewaadaa
Odeeffannoo olitti kennis siriitii dubbiseen jira.Gaaffii kaasuul maluufis deebii quubsaan kennammee jira.Kanaafuu,odeeffannoo kennuun hojjii qo’annaaf kana keessatti hiraachhuuf waadaa seeeneera.

Mallatto hirmaataa
Mallatto qo’ataa

| 1  | Socio-demographic Variables                     | (0) 14,15,16,17 (1) 18,19,20,21 |
| 2  | Umurin kee meeqa(waggaa)? | (0) Abbaa qofa (1) haadhaa qofa (2) Lamaaunu (3) kanbiroo |
| 3  | Eenyu waliiin jiraatta? | (0) 3 (1) 4-6 (2) 7-10 (3) 11fisa ol |
| 4  | Baayyina maatii    | (1) dhalaa (2) dhiiraa |
| 5  | Koornayaa(sex)    | (1) Tigiree (2) Aamaara (3) Oromoo (4) Guraagee (5) kan biroo |
| 6  | Sabummaa kee      | (0) hinbarreessu, hindubbisu (1) kutaa 1-8(2)9-12 (3) kutaal 2 ol |
| 7  | Sadarkaa barnootaa kan abbaa | (0) hinbarreessitu, hindubbistu (1) kutaa 1-8(2)9-12 (3) kutaal 12 ol |
| 8  | Maqaa M. barumsaa kee | (1) komp, Naqamttee (2) komp, Gimbii |
| 9  | Sadarkaa barumsaa kee | (3) BiiftuuNaqamtee (4) Naajoo S.L |
| 10 | Amantaa kee       | Kutaa (9) 9ffaa (10) 10ffaa (11) 11ffaa (12) 12ffaa |

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II. Kanneen Warra Ilaallatan (parental variables)
13. Maatii keessatti eeytu irra jireesaa hojii warrummaa dalaga? (1) Abbaa koo (2) haadha koo (3) Lamaanu (4) kanbiraa

Yaada gabatee asii gaddii keessaatti kennaman hagam akka waliigaltu(fudhattuufi waliishingalle(hinfudhanne) mallattoo"X" kaahuun agarsiisi.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>yaada</th>
<th>Tasuma</th>
<th>Darbee darbee</th>
<th>yeroo tokko-tokko</th>
<th>Yeroo hunda</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Warri koo yeroo M.barumsaan ala bakkan jiru ni beeku.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Yeroon turee galu warra kootti maaliif akkan ture beeksisuuitu narraa eegama.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Utuun manaa hin bahin eenyu bira akkan deemu warra kootti himuuq qaba.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Galgala ykn halkan yoon manaa bahe warri koo lafan jiru ni beeku.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Warri koo hiriyoonni koo eenyufaa akka ta'an ni beeku.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Warri koo warra hiriyoota kootti ni beeku.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Warri koo haalan ittiin hojachaa jiru beekuuf barsiisota koo ni dubbisu(gaafatu)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; hojii manafi abbeltii koo ilaalchisee ana wajjin ni haasa'u.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; gara fuulduuraatti ogummaa kamiin hordofuu akkan qabu na mariisuu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; kaardii gabaasaa firii barnootaa koorratti na waliin mari'atu</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; karooora yeroo akkan qabaadhuuf na gargaaru</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; M.barumsaan dhaquufi dhiisuu koomirkanneeffatu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; anas waantan hojaidhus ni fudhatu(itt gammadu).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; hagam akka na jaallatan natti himu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; waa'ee koo waan gaarii natti himu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>&gt;&gt;waan gaarii akka naaf hawwan natti himu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; nama isaan hawwanakkan ta'e natti himu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; nama isaan hawwan akkan hintaane natti himu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; yoon ajeja isaani raawwachuu badhe natti dheekkamu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>&gt;&gt; yoon ajaajisaanii raawwachuu baadhe haala hamaan/garmalee na abboomu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
34  
>> yoon waan isaan jedhan gochuu baadhe na dhaanu/reebu.

35  
>> anarra obboloota koo broo/waliis aanii jaallatu.

36  
>> yoon waan isaan jedhan raawwachu baadhe nyaata na dhowwatu.

37  
>> yoon waan isaan jedhan raawwachu baadhe manatti nagalchan.

Yaadota asiis gadditi dhiyaatanitti hagam akka waliigaltu ykn walii hingallee mallattoo <X> gochuu agarsiisii.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yaada</th>
<th>Baayye walii hingalu</th>
<th>Walii hingalu</th>
<th>Waliingala</th>
<th>Baayyeen waliigala</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>Walumaagalatti jireeyaa kootti' gammadaadha/quufaadha.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>Yeroo tokko-tokko akkan gaarii hintaanetu natti mul'aa.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>Waantota qalbii namaa hawwatancimina)hedduu akkan qabutu natti dhaagaa'ma.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>Akkuma namoota biroo h oj jachuun danda’a.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>Waantani ittiin of-jaju(boonu) akkan hinqabnetu natti dhaagaa’ama.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>Yeroo tokko-tokko waa tokko bu’aa akkan hinqabnetu natti dhaagaa’ama.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>Namoota haala koo keessa jiraniin waalqixa bu’a-qabeessa akkan ta’etu natti dhaagaa’mu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>Kabajaan amma ofii koof qabu kana caalaa qabaachuun fedha.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>Gama hundaanu akkan hinmiloofnetu natti dhaagaa’ama.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>Ilaalcha gaarii ofiif qaba.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Yaadota asiis gadditi dhiyaatan hagam akka si ibsan ykn si hinibsine mallattoo <X> bakka kennaan keessa kaahnuun agarsiisii.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Yaada</th>
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<th>Nanibsu</th>
<th>Na ibsa</th>
<th>Baayyeena ibsa</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>48</td>
<td>Yeroo mara waantonni na yaaddeessan.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>49</td>
<td>Bakka namoonni gareen jiraniin hass’uun ykn dubbachuun natti ufalaateen arga.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>Utuun jijjiiruu nan danda’a ta’ee waa’ee ofii kootti waanaan jijjiiruu qabu baayyeetu jira.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>Waanta haaran ta’ee tokko wajjin walbaruun ana hirakkisu.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>52</td>
<td>Namoonni ana walinu ta’uu ni jaallatu/isanitti tola.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

66
| 53 | Mana yeroon ta’u/jiru salpaattanhaara/jeeqama. |
| 54 | Waanta haaraa ta’e tokkoon wabarun ykn fayyadamuun yeroo dheeraa na fudhata. |
| 55 | Namoota umurii kootti biratti fudhataman qaba. |
| 56 | Maatiin koo yeroo mara fedhii koottiif of-eeggannoof naaf godhu. |
| 57 | Baayyee dafeen ykn salphaatti abdii kutadha. |
| 58 | Maatiin koo waa baayyee narraa cegu. |
| 59 | Ana ta’uux kootti baayyeen gammada/ana ta’uun koo baayyee natti tola. |
| 60 | Jireeniy koo toora galaa miti. |
| 61 | Yeroo mara yaanni koo namoota biratti fudhatama qaba. |
| 62 | Ilaalchi ani ofiif qabu gadaanaadha. |
| 63 | Yeroo baayyee manaa badi-badi nagodha/mana najibbiisa. |
| 64 | Yeroo mara hojjii kootti nan aara. |
| 65 | Namoonni irra caalaan ana caalaan miidhagu/bareedu. |
| 66 | Yeroo mara waanan dubbadhoo qabaanaan nan dubbadhoo/dubbachuurraa boodatti hinjedhu. |
| 67 | Matiin koo na hubatu. |
| 68 | Namoonni irra caalaan ana caalaan fudhatama qaba. |
| 69 | Yeroo mara maatiin koo waan na adabaa jirann natti fakkaata. |
| 70 | Yeroo mara waantan hojjadhutti hamileee hinqabu/humnatu na bu’a. |
| 71 | Ani nama irratti hirkatan miti/nama abdachhiisu miti. |
| 72 | Yeroo mara utuun nama biraa ta’eera ta’ee jedheen hawwa. |
The purpose of this questionnaire is to generate and collect data from high school students with regard to their relations with their parents and their own self-esteem.

**Information**
You are asked to fill out a brief questionnaire with regard to your relations with your parents and your own self-esteem. (I will be using the data to investigate the degree of the relationship that may exist between these parental and adolescent variables). There is no need to write your name. There are no foreseeable risks associated with your participation in this study.

Your participation in this study helps us to better understand the relationships that may exist between some selected parental and adolescent variables. There will be no identification made of the participant other than your age and sex. Upon the completion of the study, and questionnaire that you filled out will be destroyed.

**Consent**
I have read this form and I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction and therefore I agree to take part in this study.

Participant’s signature

Researcher’s signature
### I. Socio-demographic Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Options</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>How old are you (age in years)</td>
<td>(0) 14,15,16,17 (1) 18,19,20,21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Sex/ gender</td>
<td>(0) Female (1) Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Whom are you living with?</td>
<td>(0) Father alone (1) mother alone (2) father and mother (3) others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Family size (including your self)</td>
<td>(0) 3 (1) 4-6 (2) 7-10 (3) 11 or more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>What is your ethnicity?</td>
<td>(1) Tigre (2) Amahara (3) Oromo (4) Gurage (5) others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Your father’s education level</td>
<td>(0) Can not read and write (1) Grade 1-8 (2) Grade 9-12 (3) Beyond grade 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Your Mother’s education level</td>
<td>(0) cannot read and write (1) Grade 1-8 (2) Grade 9-12 (3) Beyond high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Your school’s name</td>
<td>(1) Nekemte comprehensive (2) Ghimbi comprehensive (3) Biftu Nekemte (4) Nedjo high school</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Your grade level</td>
<td>(1) 9 (2) 10 (3) 11 (4) 12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>(1) Orthodox (2) Muslim (3) Protestant (4) other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Place of birth and residence</td>
<td>(1) Rural (2) Urban</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Your birth order</td>
<td>(1) First born (2) Middle born (3) Lastborn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### II. Parental Variables

13. Who does function as your parent on daily basis in your family? (0) My father (1) My mother (2) both my father and mother (3) others (specify) _____________________________

Please indicate to what extent the following statements describe your parents parenting behavior.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/N</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Never</th>
<th>Rarely</th>
<th>sometimes</th>
<th>Always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>My parents know where I am after school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>If I am going to be home late I am expected to let them know</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I tell my parents whom I am going to be with before I go out</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>When I go out at night my parents know where I am</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>My parents know who my friends are</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>My parents know the parents of my friends</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>My parent talk to my teacher to see how I am doing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>My parents talk with me about my homework assignments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>My parents talk with me about which profession to pursue.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>My parents discuss my report cards with me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>My parents help me plan for homework, chores and other responsibilities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>My parents check that I go school</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>My parents seem to approve of me and the things I do.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>My parents tell me how much they love me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>My parents say nice things about me</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>My parents tell me that I am the son/daughter they wished to have</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>My parents tell me that I am not the son/</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
daughter they did wish to have

31 My Parents tell me that they wish me bright/happy future

32 My parents yell at me when I do not do what they say.

33 My parents treat me harshly when I do not do what they say.

34 My parents punish me when I do not do what they say.

35 My parents love my siblings/ each other more than they love me.

36 My parents deny me food when I do not do what I am supposed to do.

37 My parents do not let me come home when I do not do what I'm supposed to do.

III. Adolescent Variables

Please tick under the answer which indicates how much you agree or disagree with each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>38 On the whole, I am satisfied with my life</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39 At times, I think I am no good at all</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 I feel that I have a number of good qualities</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>41 I am able to do things as well as</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S/N</td>
<td>Statement</td>
<td>Very much like me</td>
<td>Like me</td>
<td>Unlike me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>I feel I do not have much to be proud of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>I certainly feel useless at times</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>I feel that I am a person of worth at least on equal plane with others</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>I wish I could have more respect for myself</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>I take positive attitude to ward myself</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Please indicate by ticking under **very much like me** or **like me** how much the statement describes you and under **unlike me** or **very much unlike me** how much the statement does not describe you.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>own age</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>57</td>
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<td>58</td>
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<td>70</td>
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<tr>
<td>71</td>
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<td>72</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Declaration

I, the undersigned, declare that this thesis is my original work and that all sources of materials used for the thesis have been dully acknowledged.

Name: Tamene Keneni
Signature: [Signature]
Date: 01/07/08

This thesis has been submitted for examination by my approval as a university advisor.

Name: Dr. Teka Z.
Signature: [Signature]
Date of Submission: 01/07/08