Addis Ababa University

College of Education and Language Studies

School of Psychology

Psychological Well-being of Adolescents in Jimma Town: Their Attachment Patterns to Parents and Peers

A Doctoral Dissertation Report

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Abstract

Social bonds with life's key figures stand as a pivotal force shaping adolescents' growth and development. In line with this, this study examined the relationship between adolescents' attachment to parents and peers and their psychological well-being. Data were collected from a randomly selected sample of 541 adolescents (292 females and 249 males) attending three public and two private schools in Jimma town. Ryff's Psychological well-being scale and Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment were used for data collection. Descriptive statistics, t-test, two-way ANOVA, MANOVA, Pearson's product–moment correlation, and multiple regression were employed for data analysis. The statistical analysis revealed that adolescents exhibited suboptimal psychological well-being. Adolescents displayed particularly strong maternal attachment, in contrast to their lower attachment to fathers and peers. Attachment to mothers, fathers and peers did not vary between female and male adolescents. Family configuration was found to significantly influence adolescents' attachment to their fathers, with adolescents from intact families more attached to their fathers. Besides, family structure was found to have statistically significant effect on adolescents' psychological well-being, with adolescents from intact families reporting higher psychological well-being. So does sex, with female adolescents reporting higher psychological well-being. Statistically significant positive correlations were established between psychological well-being of adolescents and their attachment to parents and peers. Adolescents' attachments to maternal, paternal, and peer figures were all positively interrelated with statistical significance, suggesting that attachment to any one figure is positively associated with attachment to the others. Attachment to mothers, fathers and peers explained 19.6% of the total variance in adolescents' psychological well-being. Family structure significantly moderated the link between maternal attachment and adolescents' psychological well-being, with pronounced maternal attachments influence in intact families. Finally, based on these results, implications and future research directions are presented.

Key words: Attachment, Psychological well-being, sex, family structure

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Statement of Declaration

I, the undersigned, hereby declare that this dissertation is entirely produced by me and that this dissertation has not been presented for any other degree from any other university. All sources of materials used have been duly acknowledged.

Signature: 

Name: Geda Tolera

Date of Signature: 12 May 2026

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List of Abbreviations

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
RPWS	Ryff's Psychological Well-being Scale
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PWB	Psychological Well-Being
IPPA	Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (measure of sampling adequacy)
I-CVI	Item-level Content Validity Index
S-CVI	Scale-level Content Validity Index
SWB	Subjective Well-being

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Adolescence is a vital human development period in which different key developmental milestones are achieved. Significant changes in brain development, endocrinology, emotions, cognition, behavior, and interpersonal relationships had been found to characterize adolescence (Zaky, 2016). Parallel to the developmental changes, developmental theorists contended that adolescents entertain developmental tasks of establishing one's own identity and strive for achievement of autonomy (Meeus, 2016). The literature also indicates that adolescents engage in developmental tasks such as identifying, evaluating, and choosing roles and values for their adult lives (Hamman & Hendricks, 2005), tasks that appear to be better achieved within an enabling parental and peer attachment social context.

Adolescents would substantially benefit from the support of key social figures including parents, peers, neighbors, and friends in accomplishing the aforementioned developmental tasks and any potential others. Evidence indicates that adolescents' successful achievement of age-appropriate developmental milestones appears to rely on relevant care givers' guidance, nurturance, protection, and teaching (APA, 2002). The support from all actors in their circle of life would positively affect adolescents' psychological well-being which in turn enables them to fully develop to their maximum potential. In contrast, the lack of appropriate care and support services from responsible persons appears to hamper adolescents' successful passage through multifaceted developmental niches and hold them to risk functioning below their naturally endowed potential (Steinberg, 2011). On the other hand, enabling and promoting environments (e.g., family, school, peer group, community), would help adolescents nurture their

psychological well-being (Geldhof et al., 2013).

In the realm of psychology, different studies agree that well-being signifies optimal psychological functioning and life experience (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Gao & McLellan, 2018; Ryan & Deci, 2001). In psychological research, there are two philosophical stances on well-being; the hedonistic approach characterizing well-being as presence of positive affect and the absence of negative affect, and the eudaimonic approach which defines well-being as people's self-realization, personal expressiveness, and the degree to which they can actualize their abilities (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Ryan & Deci, 2001; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Taken together, Samman (2007) categorized hedonistic approach as reflecting subjective well-being and the eudaimonic approach as reflecting psychological well-being.

Subjective well-being (SWB) was explained by theories like biological/temperament theories, satisfaction of goals theories and mental-state theories (Diener et al., 2018). The biological theories of SWB use biology and heredity to explain why some people are continuously happier than others. According to satisfaction of goals theories, satisfaction of major wants, desires, and goals leads to high levels of SWB, while dissatisfaction leads to low levels of SWB. On the other hand, mental state theories posit that SWB is partly shaped by an individual's attention to specific events, along with their interpretation and memory of those events. In these three theoretical explanations, based on SWB approach, it is argued that people's state of well-being is influenced by biological predisposition and inherited factors, satisfaction derived from reaching or failing to achieve desired life goals, and perception and recollection of attended events.

The eudaimonic approach to well-being, on the other hand, goes beyond defining well-being as the subjective state of feeling happy. It explains well-being as an individual's

commitment to realizing his or her unique potential and striving to operate positively (Ryff, 2017). In this sense, the level of well-being is evaluated in terms of ways of thinking and acting that offer fulfillment (Gale et al., 2013). Henceforth, the effort of people in trying to achieve the best within themselves is the central feature of eudaimonic approach to well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Furthermore, the person's virtue, defined as making the most of one's qualities and capacities, was used as a distinguishing aspect of well-being in the eudaimonia approach (Ryff & Singer, 2008). In short, such an approach to describing wellness highlights positive aspects of human functioning that contribute to well-being, as well as individuals' efforts to attain the highest possible life satisfaction.

Based on the eudaimonic stance of well-being and other theoretical notions of optimal human functioning, Ryff (1989) proposed a theoretical model for psychological well-being comprising six constructs of positive functioning (autonomy, self-acceptance, environmental mastery, personal growth, purpose in life and positive relations with others). Hobfoll (2002), an American psychologist and pioneer of the Conservation of Resources theory, refers to these markers of optimal functioning as essential psychosocial resources, five of which are psychological resources and the sixth (positive relations with others) is a social resource. The major theoretical perspectives Ryff has distilled the six constructs of psychological well-being from are Erikson's (1959) theory of psychosocial development, Neugarten's (1973a) social clock theory, Maslow's (1967) theory of self-actualization, Rogers' (1962) fully functioning person theory, Allports' (1961) personality development theory, Frankl's theory of meaning (Wong, 2014), and Jung's notion of individuation in personality development (Crellin, 2014). Across these perspectives, the shared core idea is that psychological well-being involves ongoing growth, self-realization, a sense of meaning, healthy relationships, and effective adaptation

across the life course.

In their systematic review of eudaimonic and hedonic well-being, Ryff et al. (2021) clearly put the definitions of the six aforementioned dimensions of psychological well-being. Self-acceptance has been defined as people strive for accepting their own qualities and shortcomings with a positive attitude. Positive relationships with others have been defined as people's attempts to build and sustain warm and trusting interpersonal interactions, and environmental mastery has been defined as people's attempts to modify their environments to fulfill personal wants and desires. Autonomy is referred to as people seek for a sense of self-determination and personal authority to maintain their individuality across social contexts. Purpose in life has been characterized as people striving to find significance in their endeavors and challenges. Personal growth, which is central to the psychological wellness paradigm, has been characterized as people's attempt to maximize their individual qualities and capacities.

Given that adolescence entails major life transitions, the components of psychological well-being—self-acceptance, positive relationships with others, environmental mastery, autonomy, purpose in life, and personal growth appear to exert a strong influence on adolescents' cognitive, behavioral, and emotional development. In this context, scholars have emphasized that psychological well-being is a key and salient factor in promoting healthy developmental trajectories from adolescence into adulthood (Hoyt et al., 2012). This suggests that fostering these dimensions during adolescence may support adaptive functioning, resilience, and long-term well-being across the lifespan.

Moreover, studies show that adolescents' psychological well-being is positively associated with adaptive decision-making (Páez-Gallego et al., 2020), emotional self-control (Wills et al., 2016), resilience to stressful situation (Konaszewski et al., 2021; Sagone & De

Caroli, 2014), life satisfaction, happiness, hopefulness and self-efficacy (Alkhatib, 2020), internal locus of control (Mobarakeh et al., 2015), and positive thinking (Alkhatib, 2020). These findings indicates that promoting psychological well-being during adolescence can provide a strong foundation for adaptive functioning in everyday life as well as for long-term thriving.

Psychological well-being remains critical for adolescents' healthy development, research indicates that a number of factors within their developmental dynamics appear to affect it. For example, Huppert (2009) noted that social factors and the early environment play a fundamental role in the process of individual variation in their habitual level of psychological well-being. Among social factors, the quality of relationship with parents and peers appears to play a magnificent role in influencing adolescents' psychological well-being.

Parental influence has been shown to contribute to enhanced adolescents' psychological functioning (Allen et al., 2018; Wilkinson, 2004), which subsequently fosters optimal positive development. Compared to the modality of parental support during childhood, the parental roles tend to progress from monitoring safety of adolescents to supporting them for autonomous decision making (Wray- Lake et al., 2010). The ongoing socio-emotional bond between parents and their children during adolescence plays a crucial role in helping adolescents realize their full potential. This supportive social bond fosters emotional regulation, self-confidence, and a sense of being valued, which collectively contribute to healthier psycho-social development and more adaptive transitions into adulthood.

Furthermore, the affectionate bond between parents and adolescents has been described as functioning like a feedback system, helping to maintain a balance between adolescents' need for closeness to their parents and their desire to explore the world beyond the family (Gungor & Bornstein, 2010). Particularly, adolescents' attachment to their mothers and fathers, along with

emotional competencies, are evidenced to be the relevant factors in the adolescents' well-being (Mónaco et al., 2019). Likewise, Abubakar et al. (2014) indicated that parental attachment has had a valuable contribution in adolescents' psychological well-being and identity formation. In the same vein, Cripps and Zyromski (2009) reported that the nature of adolescents' relationship with their parents affects adolescents' sense of psychological well-being either positively or negatively. This would imply that adolescents may experience either secure or insecure attachment patterns based on their parental responses to their progressively increasing developmental demand emanating from developmental transitions.

A study by Laible (2007) indicated that adolescents secure attachment relationship with parents tended to foster appropriate social behavior through promoting high levels of emotional consciousness, empathy, positive expressiveness, and low levels of negative dominant expressiveness. Moreover, adolescents with secure attachment to parents were found to be more socially competent and less aggressive (Moretti & Peled, 2004; Simons et al., 2001) and are successful in emotion regulation while facing conflict situation (Kobak et al., 1993). They also tended to give much value to closeness, support, and affiliation with their friends and peers (Mikulincer & Selinger, 2001), attitude of trust towards others (O'Connor et al., 2019) and feel comfortable in interacting with and exploring their environment (Boling et al., 2011). Likewise, Irving (2013) asserted that a parent-adolescent attachment characterized by open communication, better sense of trust and absence of emotionally alienating behavior was found to promote healthy adolescents' psycho-social functioning. In another study, a parental social climate of trust and time spent together are found to be significantly and positively related to positive youth development (Lezin et al., 2004). Taken together, these findings underscore that enabling parent–adolescent social bond and a supportive family context not only enhance emotional regulation

and social competence but also lay a strong basis for healthy psychosocial development and positive youth outcomes.

Furthermore, a study (Verhaar et al., 2022) also indicated that adolescents privileged to be parented in an environment with positive family communication, cohesion and support were found to regulate their emotions and develop positive coping skills. Similarly, Abubakar et al. (2014) found that secure attachment to parents promotes adolescents' desire for connectedness and makes it easier for them to form new peer relationships at school and elsewhere.

Compared with securely attached adolescents, adolescents with insecure attachment are more likely to face psychosocial challenges that interfere with their positive development. In this regard, a study demonstrated that suboptimal parent-adolescent relationships correlate with adolescents' lower psychological well-being, highlighting strained parental dynamics as a potential risk to their wellness (Wahyuningsih et al., 2020). Furthermore, studies also reported a significant link between insecure parental attachment and adolescents' exposure to psychosocial problems (Latiff et al., 2017; Wambua et al., 2018). In the same vein, insecure parent-adolescent connection was linked to cognitive and emotional components of aggressiveness, such as rage and hostility (Muris et al., 2004). Likewise, adolescents' insecure attachment to both parents has also been linked to depression (Agerup et al., 2015; Allen et al., 2007) and increasing patterns of externalizing behavior (Allen et al., 2007). These findings imply that adolescents' attachment insecurity is likely to hinder their optimal psychosocial development.

While reviewing the literature on the security/insecurity of adolescent attachment to their parents is still important, it is also critical to take a closer look at the research on the effects of different family structures on the psychological well-being of adolescents. In this regard, studies show that adolescents in non-intact families (stepfamilies and single-parent families) tend to

report lower levels of well-being than adolescents who live with two biological parents (King et al., 2018; Turunen, 2013). In contrast, adolescents living with both biological parents, on average, had higher levels of well-being (King, 2018). However, another study showed that adolescents' level of well-being did not vary as a function of their family structure (Phillips, 2012), underscoring the mixed nature of the evidence and the need for additional research.

Given a wealth of empirical evidence on the significance of parental attachment on adolescent development, it is vital to argue that secure parent-adolescent relationship would serve as an essential springboard for adolescents' positive evolvement accompanied by the achievement of age-appropriate developmental milestones. Therefore, it is quite essential to study the extent to which Ethiopian parental socio-emotional connection to their children is influencing adolescents' psychological well-being which in turn accounts for their positive development.

Beyond directly benefiting adolescents, healthy adolescent-parent attachment also facilitates the development of harmonious attachment relationships with peers (Gorrese & Ruggieri, 2012). In turn, peers also play an immense role in adolescents' psycho-social development. For example, adolescents' formation of strong peer bonds was reported to promote healthy psychological adjustment to their social, emotional, and cognitive developmental changes (Delgado et al., 2022). Thus, fostering secure adolescent-peer attachments provides essential support that positively influences adolescents' psychosocial development.

A healthy attachment of adolescents to their peers was reported to feature high intimacy, consistent support, and open communication corresponding with trust and mutual understanding (Delgado et al., 2022). In contrast, insecure adolescents' attachment to their peers is symbolized by the feeling of alienation from the peer group, poor communication and mistrust (Roelofs et

al., 2013). Adolescents' established sense of trust with their peers and good communication were significantly associated with positive sense of self and perceived social competence, whereas adolescents' alienation from peers was correlated with increased emotional distress (Hellenthal, 2006). Taken together, this would imply that psychological well-being of adolescents could be influenced by their degree of attachment to their peers in terms of trusting each other, understanding in communication and potential emotional detachments.

Adolescents' attachment to peers makes a substantial contribution to their psychological development. In line with this, studies indicated that peer attachment plays a crucial role in shaping and promoting adolescents' psychological well-being (Abubakar et al., 2014; Corsano et al., 2006; Rajendran et al., 2023). Adolescents' strong attachment to their peers was also positively correlated with better self-perceived strengths (Raja, McGee & Stanton, 1992). On the other hand, a study has reported a negative relationship between adolescents' attachment to peers and the likelihood of their exposure to conduct problems and emotional difficulties (Schoeps et al., 2020). If peers are such an important segment in adolescent development, it is important to examine the level of their influence and offer evidence-based recommendations for increasing their beneficial effects on adolescents' psychological well-being.

Adolescents' pursuit of peer attachment relates to the core qualities of their bonds with parents. In this regard, a study indicated that adolescents with insecure parental attachment reported a strong preference for boy/girlfriends and best friends as their primary attachment targets (Freeman & Brown, 2001). On the other hand, evidence from a systematic review of nineteen studies indicated that secure parental attachment predicts and promotes affective relationships with peers and friends based on communication, support, intimacy, trust, and quality relationship (Delgado et al., 2022). In support of this notion, Sánchez and Delgado

(2015) asserted that caring parental environment was found to precede healthier adolescent-peer relationship. In the same vein, Boling et al. (2011) indicated that secure parental attachment was related to adolescent social competence and higher quality in their friendship with peers. In sum, it appears that adolescents who are disadvantaged with their parental attachment eagerly seek peer attachment to compensate for what they lacked within their family. On the other hand, adolescents' exposure to better parental attachment would further enhance their social competency in forming better socio-emotional affection with their peers.

In general, parents and peers are considered as an external developmental assets accounting for young people's successful development. The supportive and socialization roles played by these two attachment figures could help the youngsters to be at the state of good psychological well-being which in turn maximizes their positive development. Given this, existence of strong positive young people socio-emotional connectedness to their parents and peers appears to be invariably needed for adolescents thriving (Lee & Lok, 2012). In contrast, young people with challenging attachment experiences with parents and peers may face numerous difficult socio-emotional ties that hinder their motivation for positive development. In this regard, a study (Bannink et al., 2013) indicated that unfavorable parent-adolescent attachment was related to increased mental health problems. Besides, unhealthy adolescent-peer attachment characterized by poor communication, weak trust and alienation was found to relate to depression in adolescents (Gorrese, 2016).

Despite the critical role of adolescents' socio-emotional connections with parents and peers in fostering positive psychological functioning, this topic remains under researched in the Ethiopian context. Existing studies on adolescent development have primarily emphasized deficit-based issues such as delinquent behaviors, aggressive behaviors, substance use and abuse,

discipline problems, conflict with parents and school teachers, antisocial behaviors, and sexuality (Birhanu et al., 2014; Kinde & Mekonnen, 2006; Reda et al., 2012; Tirunesh, 2015; Zeray, 2019). Limited attention seems to have been devoted to examining psychosocial factors that shape adolescents' healthy development, as well as indicators of their positive psychological functioning, including self-acceptance, autonomy, personal growth, environmental mastery, and positive relationships with others. Thus, the present study attempted to address this gap by examining empirical evidence on the relationship between adolescents' psychological well-being and their attachment to mothers, fathers, and peers.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Unlike previous psychological research, the study of adolescent psychological well-being used a strength-based approach which promotes positive psychological evolvement. The deficit-based human psychology studies relied on conceptualization of individuals in terms of psychopathology, failure, and dysfunction (Csikszentmihalyi & Seligman, 2000) that characterized healthy adolescence as one free of problems (Oliva et al., 2010). However, other studies indicated that optimal functioning during adolescence is more than the absence of pathologies, problems or difficulties faced during this period (Lerner et al., 2005; Seligman, 2008). This suggests that, although adolescents encounter numerous psychosocial challenges inherent in their developmental stage, they remain capable of successfully attaining key developmental milestones.

Studies conducted globally has predominantly examined adolescents' developmental challenges from a deficit-oriented perspective rather than a strengths-based one. For instance, studies have focused on adolescents' internalizing and externalizing problems (Timalsina et al., 2018), the prevalence of behavioral, emotional, and educational difficulties (Reijneveld et al.,

2003), psychosocial distress (Amu et al., 2020), and substance use disorders and aggression (Doran et al., 2012). This trend highlights the need for contemporary researchers to redirect their efforts toward generating robust empirical evidence that promotes adolescents' positive development from a strengths-based perspective.

In Ethiopia context too, a large body of research conducted on adolescent development emphasized psychopathologies and problem behavior associated with the period of adolescence. In contrast, no research has so far addressed adolescents' psychological well-being or the route to optimal functioning as a function of their socio-emotional connection with their parents and peers. The focus on adolescents' positive psychological functioning is still at its infancy in Ethiopia, as only a small number of studies have addressed this. Most existing studies have focused on a narrow range of variables and specific geographic areas, although adolescents represent a substantial proportion of Ethiopia's population (CSA, 2007). Among the few available studies, Hailegiorgis et al. (2018) investigated the psychological well-being of orphaned and non-orphaned children in Jimma town and found that orphans reported significantly lower levels of well-being than their non-orphaned counterparts. Similarly, only a small number of studies have approached this issue from a positive youth development perspective, including those by Tefera and Desie (2015) and Tefera et al. (2020).

Although adolescent psychological well-being is widely regarded as a key factor in their successful achievement of key developmental milestones during adolescence, there is limited empirical evidence on the psychological well-being of Ethiopian adolescents and related psychosocial covariates such as attachment factors, sex and family structure. Also, in Ethiopia, there is dearth of empirical evidence in the body of research about the extent to which adolescents' attachment to father, mother and friends individually and collectively predicts their

psychological well-being. This absence hinders application of contextually appropriate interventions and policies promoting adolescent development.

Thus, to address the empirical and contextual gaps, the present study examined the role of adolescent-parent and adolescent-peer attachment, in terms of trust, communication, and alienation, in predicting adolescent psychological well-being, in terms of autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, purpose in life, positive relations with others, and self-acceptance, among adolescents in Jimma town, Ethiopia. The study sheds light on the psychological well-being of adolescents in Jimma town and expands the knowledge base in this field of research.

1.3 Research Questions

This study examined adolescents' psychological well-being and their perceived attachment to mothers, fathers, and peers among secondary school students in Jimma town. Specifically, it explored the levels and interrelationships of these variables, investigated differences based on sex and family structure, assessed the predictive role of attachment on psychological well-being, and examined whether family structure moderates the relationship between attachment and psychological well-being. Accordingly, the following research questions were addressed by the study:

- What is the level of adolescents' psychological wellbeing and their attachment to their parents and peers in Jimma town?
- Is there a significant relationship between adolescents' quality of attachment to fathers, mothers and peers, and their psychological well-being?
- Does adolescent perceived quality of attachment to fathers, mothers, and peers differ as a function of their sex and family structure?

- Does adolescents' psychological well-being differ as a function of their sex and family structure?
- Does adolescents' perceived attachment quality to parents and peers predict their psychological well-being?
- Does family structure moderate the relationship between adolescents' psychological well-being and their attachment to fathers, mothers, and peers?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

1.4.1 General Objective

The overall objective of the study was to examine how adolescents' attachment to parents and peers expressed in terms of communication, trust and alienation relates to their psychological well-being including their self-acceptance, positive relation with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life and personal growth.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

In accordance with the research questions posed and the theoretical foundations of the study, the following research objectives were established to systematically examine adolescents' psychological well-being and their attachment relationships with parents and peers:

- To assess the level of adolescents' psychological wellbeing and socio-emotional attachments to parents and peers;
- To investigate whether there is a significant relationship between adolescents' quality of attachment to parents and peers (communication, trust and alienation) and their psychological well-being (self-acceptance, positive relation with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life and personal growth);
- To investigate whether or not adolescents' perceived quality attachment to their parents (fathers and mothers) and peers differ due to their sex and family structure;

- To examine whether or not adolescents' psychological well-being differs as a function of their sex and family structure.
- To investigate whether adolescents perceived quality of attachment to parents and peers predict their psychological well-being;
- To investigate whether or not family structure moderates the relationship between adolescents' psychological well-being and their attachment to parents and peers

1.5 Operational Definition of Terms

- **Adolescence:** refers to the developmental period during which individuals undergo significant physical, cognitive, emotional, and social changes. In the present study, adolescents are operationally defined as students in their middle and late stage of adolescence, aged 14–20 years, who participated in the study.
- **Family structure:** refers to the household in which adolescents grew up. In the current study, family structure is operationally measured by living arrangements whether adolescents grew up in intact family (living with two biological parents) or non-intact family (living in single-parent family, due to the divorce/separation or dead of one parent, or others).
- **Psychological well-being:** refers to adolescents' development of their potential, having some control over their life, having a sense of purpose (e.g. working towards valued goals), and experiencing positive relationships with others as measured by *Ryff's Psychological Well-being Scale* (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). It embraces:

Autonomy: adolescents' ability to regulate their own behavior, resist social pressure, and follow own convictions, even if they go against the general opinion;

Environmental mastery: adolescents' ability to manage the context and daily activities;

Personal growth*:* adolescents' consistent development of their potential, open to new

experiences and feeling of improvement over time;

Positive relationships with others: adolescents' capability to establish close, trusting and meaningful bonds with others, as well as showing concern for the well-being of others, and the expression of empathy, affection, and intimacy;

Purpose in life: adolescents' capability for setting objectives and goals which give meaning and direction to their lives; and,

Self-acceptance: adolescents' capability to have a positive attitude and feelings of satisfaction and acceptance of oneself, including both one's good and bad qualities.

- **Adolescents' attachments:** The socio-emotional connection adolescents' form either with their mothers, fathers or peers as measured by ***Inventory of Parents and Peer Attachment*** **developed by** Armsden and Greenberg (1987*).*

  It embraces:

  Trust: linked to the adolescents' trust that parents and peers understand and respect their needs and desires;

  Communication: concerned with adolescents' perceptions that parents and peers are sensitive and responsive to their emotional states and quality of involvement and verbal communication with them;

  Alienation: refers to adolescents' feelings of isolation, anger, and detachment experienced in attachment relationships with parents and peers;

- **Adolescent-Mother attachment:** refers to the perceived quality of the relationship between an adolescent and their mother, characterized by levels of trust, intimacy, communication, and emotional security. In this study, it is operationalized as the adolescents' score on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (mother version).

- **Adolescent-Father attachment:** refers to the perceived quality of the relationship between an adolescent and their father, characterized by levels of trust, intimacy, communication, and emotional security. In this study, it is operationalized as the adolescents' score on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (father version).
- **Adolescent-Peer attachment:** refers to the perceived quality of the relationship between an adolescent and their peer, characterized by levels of trust, intimacy, communication, and emotional security. In this study, it is operationalized as the adolescents' score on the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (peer version).

1.6 . Significance of the Study

The present study offers substantial theoretical, empirical, and practical contributions to the field of developmental psychology and is expected to improve services aimed at adolescent development by examining the relationship between adolescents' psychological well-being and their attachment to mothers, fathers and peers.

This study contributes to the advancement of theories of adolescents' growth and development by expanding understanding on how socio-emotional bond functions in influencing adolescents' psychological well-being. While attachment theories have long focused on the significance of early emotional connection with primary care givers, especially with mothers, the current study moved the mono-dimensional viewpoint by examining multiple sources of attachment (father, mother and peers). In doing so, it provided insight into how adolescents' relationships functioned and its connection to their psychological well-being.

The study believed to widen the theoretical horizon in adolescents' attachment dynamics by examining whether attachment relationship functions independently, interactively or cumulatively in predicting adolescents' psychological well-being. By considering adolescents' sex and family structure, the study also made clear the context in which attachment relationship

induces weaker or stronger influences. This helps to get insight into the specific circumstances under which adolescents' attachment patterns contribute to positive developmental outcomes.

Furthermore, the study corresponds with and builds on the Positive Youth Development (PYD) perspective by considering adolescents' attachment relationships as developmental assets and their psychological well-being as a key developmental outcome. In this way, it supports linking adolescents' relational context and strengths-based perspectives helping teens to grow.

Empirically, this study addresses key gaps in the existing psychological literature at two primary junctures. Prior research has predominantly examined the influence of single attachment figures, particularly mothers, on adolescent development, with limited attention to the comparative and combined roles of peers and fathers. Moreover, earlier studies have tended to emphasize deficit-based approaches over positive developmental indicators, such as psychological well-being. By addressing these shortcomings, this study provides integrated empirical evidence through the simultaneous examination of multiple attachment figures' relative influences on adolescents' psychological well-being.

In practice, findings of this study could help pertinent actors working in the field of adolescents' development at different levels. Given that research and practices on adolescents' positive psychological functioning in Ethiopia remain in nascent stages, this study provides valuable insights to advance the field by paving the way for further research, informing related policy development or revision, and promoting contextualized family counseling services.

The researchers in the field of psychology and related social science fields can use findings of this study as a springboard to address more positive youth development variables which would further expand the knowledge and practices of seeing and nurturing adolescent development from their strengths point of view.

Different youth and adolescents program policy and strategy developers can use the present study findings as an input for guiding different community and school level implemented policies and strategies in such a way as it encompasses positive adolescents' functioning schemes. Moreover, further studies in positive youth development, complementing this research, will equip youth and adolescent policymakers and strategists with the contemporary adolescent positive development issues.

The implications drawn from the present study findings can serve parents and teachers, who are involved in the adolescent development matters on daily basis, as an input for various guidance and decisions they make in the developmental trajectory of adolescents. In this regard, the findings of this study are expected to assist stakeholders in promoting adolescents' strengths while addressing and preventing potential problem behaviors in their lives. Moreover, the findings of this study can guide interventions targeting adolescents through their parents and school teachers, thereby contributing to the promotion of their psychological well-being.

1.7 Delimitation of the Study

The present study delimited itself to examine how adolescents' socio-emotional connection with their parents and peers (communication, trust and alienation), with due consideration of family structure and sex, relates to their psychological well-being. Although other adolescent related factors like adolescents' self-knowledge, identity status, resilience, spirituality and social competence; and social factors like family functioning, and teacher-school adolescent socio-emotional ties may influence adolescents' psychological well-being, the present study is delimited to assess the role of the aforementioned study variables in predicting adolescents' psychological well-being. In terms of study area or participants, the current study delimited itself to school adolescents (in the age range of 14-20 years) found in Jimma town, southwest Ethiopia.

1.8 Limitations of the study

Despite its valuable contributions to understanding adolescents' attachment relationships and psychological well-being, the present study is subject to several methodological limitations that should be considered when interpreting the findings. First, the use of a cross-sectional survey design precludes the establishment of causal relationships among the study variables. Second, the reliance on self-report measures may have introduced response biases, such as social desirability and recall bias. Third, because the study was conducted exclusively among adolescents residing in Jimma Town, the generalizability of the findings to adolescents in other geographical and sociocultural contexts may be limited. Moreover, the exclusive use of a quantitative research approach may have constrained a more nuanced understanding of adolescents' lived experiences and the contextual factors shaping their attachment relationships and psychological well-being. Furthermore, data were collected solely from adolescents, without obtaining corresponding reports from mothers, fathers, or peers. Consequently, the findings reflect only adolescents' perceptions of these relationships and do not allow for the corroboration of perspectives across multiple informants. Therefore, these methodological constraints were considered while interpreting the results, drawing conclusions, forwarding recommendations and implications.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter presents a review of local and international research works portraying different findings and assertions on adolescents' psychological well-being, the essence of adolescent attachment, and how adolescents' attachments to parents and peers relate with their psychological well-being. Besides, the theory used to guide the study, and the conceptual framework are presented.

2.1. Historical Roots of Psychological Well-being

In psychology, the study of wellness did not get as much attention as the study of psychological dysfunction. Although psychology emerged as an independent field of study in the 19th century, the study of healthy psychological functioning was initiated in the 20th century, among others, with Maslows' works of self-actualization, Carl Jung's formulation of individuation, Allports' conception of maturity and Carl Roger's view of fully functioning person (Kobak et al., 2007; Waterman, 2013). Later on, the creation of positive psychology as a separate field of study in the mainstream psychology, with the work of Seligman, caught attention of different psychologists and led to development of psychological well-being theory, measures and positive human behavior development promoting schemes. Hence, it is imperative to see arguments of different scholars on how psychological wellness should be understood, psychological well-being dimensions and how psychological well-being differently impact human development during the period of adolescence.

In well-being research, two broad approaches of defining the concept of wellness have frequently been described and researched by scholars. The first approach, referred to as the Subjective Well-being approach, which was coined by the American Psychologist Ed Diener

(1946-2021) (cited in Deci & Ryan, 2008). From this perspective, well-being is considered as subjective with the premises that people judge the degree to which they experience a sense of cognitive and affective wellness for themselves (Michael Eid & Larsen, 2008). The cognitive appraisal refers to how one considers overall and specific (e.g. career, family life) life satisfaction and the affective appraisal is concerned with one's emotional experiences (Kashdan, 2004). In affective terms, high subjective well-being is believed to correlate with frequent and intense positive states like hope, joy and pride, and in contrast the general absence of negative feelings like disappointment, anger and jealousy (Kashdan, 2004). The concept of wellness, as stated in the subjective well-being approach, has frequently been used with "happiness" interchangeably. Linking the two, Deci and Ryan (2008) argued that maximizing one's well-being correlates with one's feelings of happiness.

The understanding of happiness as index of well-being had long been stated in the Asitippus's philosophy of Hedonism in which well-being was equated with hedonic pleasure or happiness (4^{th} C. BC, cited in Ryan & Deci, 2001). The humans attempt to experience pleasure to the maximum possible is considered as the goal of life in the hedonistic view of well-being. In this sense, it is crystal clear that the subjective well-being perspective shared the hedonistic view that well-being is a function of experiencing state of happiness.

Scholars in the field of positive psychology asserted that subjective well-being has three underlying components (life satisfaction, positive affect and negative affect) describing the construct (Busseri & Sadava, 2011; Tov & Diener, 2013). According to this tripartite model of subjective well-being, wellness is defined as infrequent unpleasant affect, frequent pleasant affect and cognitive evaluations such as life satisfaction (Tov & Diener, 2013). Hence, people strive to achieve enjoyment, pleasure and comfort, and avoid pain, dissatisfaction and sadness

(Ryan & Deci, 2001). Later on, the understanding of wellness in terms of subjective well-being was critiqued for its explanation of psychological wellness as absence of mental illness (Burns, 2015), as psychological healthiness goes beyond the absence of mental illness or presence of happiness. To complement the shortcoming of the subjective well-being approach to well-being research, advocates of positive psychology introduced the second approach of well-being called eudaimonic perspective.

The root of eudaimonic model to well-being resided in Aristotle's formulation of the highest human good, which he termed eudaimonia. The term eudaimonia is derived from the Ancient Greek *eu* meant goodness or well-being and *daimon* for spirit, and hence, eudaimonia is interpreted as the focus on living the good life or with a good spirit (Burns, 2015). According to this perspective, well-being is referred to as the highest of all goods achievable by human action (Ryff, 2018). According to the same source, the eudaimonic model of wellbeing focuses on realization of human potential; underscoring that wellness surpasses the absence of mental illness or presence of mental healthiness. According to this model, not all outcomes that a person might value would yield well-being when achieved (Ryan & Deci, 2001). It broadly characterizes well-being as one's ways of thinking and behavior that would lead to fulfillment in life (Oades & Mossman, 2017), not solely to one's access to pleasant life experiences. The focus of attention is on autonomy, self-acceptance, intentional commitment, and personal fulfillment (Charry et al., 2020).

Unlike the subjective well-being approach which uses clinical definition of mental health as indicator of wellness, the eudaimonic approach to well-being conceptualizes personal growth and development as important constructs of well-being (Burns, 2015), which are among the building blocks of positive human psychological functioning. The human beings' strive for

realization of naturally endowed potential is at the heart of eudaimonic model of well-being (Ryff, 2018). The model was accompanied by extensive psychometric evaluations on the premises that how well-being can objectively be measured. Among others, Carol Ryff used the eudaimonic perspective to well-being as a springboard and come up with a model of well-being called psychological well-being comprising six different aspects of positive functioning that include personal growth, self-acceptance, positive relation with others, environmental mastery, autonomy and purpose in life (Ryff, 1989).

2.1.1. The Concept of Psychological Well-being

Although conceptualization of well-being based on eudaimonic approach was originally formulated to challenge the prevailing hedonistic view of well-being, and further paved ways for other scholars in the field of psychology to capitalize on it. Among others, Ryff's (1989) formulation of psychological well-being was informed by the earlier work of Aristotle's eudaimonic perspective to well-being (Deci & Ryan, 2008). According to her, psychological well-being is conceptualized to represent optimal human functioning (Diener, 2009). In a similar fashion, Burns (2015) defined psychological well-being as intra and inter-individual levels of positive functioning that comprises relatedness with others and self-referent attitudes that could be explained in terms of environmental mastery and personal growth. In broader terms, Vinothkumar (2015) referred to psychological well-being as representing lives going well indicated by combination of feeling better and functioning effectively. In sum, the tenets characterizing psychological well-being are associated with positive psychological functioning and one's optimal psychosocial development.

Ryff (1989) developed one construct approach to psychological well-being through conducting a gerontological and life-span research on young, middle-aged, and older members of

the general population (Burns, 2015). The six dimensions (self-acceptance, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, positive relationship with others and personal growth) Ryff used to represent psychological well-being stemmed from Maslow's notion of self-actualization, Rogers' concept of fully functioning individual and Allport's assertion of mature personality (Waterman, 2013). In broader terms, the foundation of psychological well-being is positive psychology of individuals characterized by the six latent variables (Muqodas et al., 2020). In the following section, review of literature pertaining to those dimensions indexing the psychological well-being status of individuals is presented.

2.1.2. Components of Psychological Well-being

2.1.2.1. Autonomy

This dimension of psychological well-being subsumes qualities like independence, self-determination and self-regulation of individuals in itself (Ryff & Singer, 1998). Substantial exercise of autonomy confirms individuals' self-determination and independence, resistance to potential social pressures to think and act in some ways, behavioral regulation from within, and evaluation of oneself by own set of personal standards (Ryff, 2013). In contrast, individuals' inadequate or no rehearsal of autonomy was reported to indicate reliance on judgments of others to pass crucial decisions, giving in to social pressure to execute some social expectations, and concerned with others evaluations. Within Ryff's conceptualization of psychological well-being, autonomy is regarded as a key component, implying that individuals with greater self-determination are likely to report better psychological well-being.

The importance of individuals' autonomy has also been stated in Ryan and Deci's (2001) theory of self-determination (SDT) as one of psychological needs (autonomy, competence and relatedness) needed for healthy psychological development. The theory underscores that

fulfillment of these needs is essential for psychological growth and psychological health, and in contrast results in diminished motivation and mental health, if thwarted (Burns, 2015; Ryan & Deci, 2001). In SDT too, individuals' exercise of autonomy in different contexts and situations is justified to account for better well-being and vice versa. In line with this, it has also been evidenced in a study (Patrick et al., 2007) that giving autonomy support was strongly related to individuals' well-being. Hence, it is imperative to argue that facilitation of enabling social or family conditions for individuals' autonomy exercise would promote psychological well-being of a person.

2.1.2.2. Self-Acceptance

In Ryff's thought of psychological well-being, self-acceptance is referred to as one's having positive attitude toward himself/herself and past experiences with recognition and acceptance of one's own strengths and weaknesses (Burns, 2015; Matud et al., 2019). According to Páez-Gallego et al. (2020), taking Ryff's model as a reference, self-acceptance was stated as individuals' assessment of themselves (either positively or negatively), and their level of satisfaction with their self-concept. A common thread among these scholars is the emphasis on one's ability to look inward, celebrating strengths while accepting limitations, as a vital factor accounting for psychological well-being.

Self-acceptance is the central characteristic among psychological theories devoted to explain human psychology focusing on potential for self-actualization, optimal functioning and maturity (Burns, 2015). Similarly, in her psychological well-being model, Ryff (1989) also stated self-acceptance as a recurrent criterion for individuals' positive psychological functioning and identified it as a central feature of mental health (Seymour, 2015). A study indicated that better self-accepting individuals have a positive attitude toward themselves and feel positive about their

past good and bad life experiences, which in turn positively accounts for their psychological well-being (Ryff, 2013). In contrast, in the same source, less self-accepting individuals were felt dissatisfied with themselves, troubled about some of their personal qualities, disappointed with their past life and wish to be different than what they actually are; which in turn would negatively impact their psychological well-being. The finding highlights the pivotal role of self-acceptance in either facilitating or hindering positive psychological functioning, emphasizing the importance of fostering a positive and accepting view of oneself.

2.1.2.3. Positive Relations with Others

Across human developmental stages, all relationships described as positive are evidenced to be positively correlated with well-being of individuals in various ways (Mertika et al., 2020). In line with this, three decades before this finding was documented in the body of literature, Ryff (1989) identified individuals' positive relations with others as one of the defining and measuring variables of psychological well-being. She characterized positive relations with others as having trusting, satisfying and warm relationship with others, which she believed positively influence one's psychological well-being. Páez-Gallego et al. (2020) stated positive relations with others as individuals' ability to establish stable and satisfying long-term social connections. In the strive toward establishment of positive relationship with others, individuals' social competency for identification with friends and families, and aspiration for socio-emotional connection with significant others remain so crucial in enabling positive relationship building (Seymour, 2015).

The role of having positive relations with pertinent others in one's circle of social horizon is so immense in guiding positive psychosocial development to the fullest possible. In this regard, a study indicated that a positive relation with others was a strong predictor of people's tendency for self-actualization (Kaufman, 2020). In the same vein, it was argued that

development of mutually adaptive and beneficial relations between youth and their context (peer group, family, school, community, culture, etc.) forms the defining characteristics of positive youth development (Lerner et al., 2005). Moreover, the relational development system theories of positive youth development shows that the bidirectional individual-context relation as a regulating force of the pace, direction, and outcomes of development (Geldhof et al., 2015). This underscores that the nature of relationship formed between individuals and the surrounding context plays a determinant role in influencing how the developmental milestones unfold in one's developmental trajectory.

2.1.2.4. Environmental Mastery

Environmental mastery is defined as individual's ability to either choose or create an environment that best fits one's psychological state (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Taking Ryff's basic tenet of the variable as a reference, different scholars have differently stated one's mastery over the environment. Among others, environmental mastery was understood as one's ability to manage life events (Gao & McLellan, 2018), tendency to monitor, manage and effectively model demands of life activities, and live in harmony with one's goals, needs and values (Ryff, 1989), ability of self to manipulate and function within constraints (Burns, 2015), effectively managing one's own life and the world around (García-Alandete, 2015), and one's feeling of competence to deal with the life challenges that the world brings (van Dierendonck & Lam, 2022). In these explanations of what individual's environmental mastery should be about, individual's effort and ability to ensure one's positive psychological functioning across contexts are at the heart of the proposed definitions.

People's active participation in and mastery over their environment are evidenced to be important ingredients of an integrated framework of positive psychological functioning. For

instance, study findings revealed that individual's environmental mastery has solely predicted targeted participants' tendency of self-actualization (Kaufman, 2020). Similarly, meta-analytic review of Ryff's psychological well-being model in intervention based studies that aimed to enhance psychological well-being indicated that individuals' environmental mastery was found to be among the strongest influence inducing dimension of the construct (van Dierendonck & Lam, 2022). Another scholar contended that individuals' mastery over their environment as a building dimension of psychological functioning (Burns, 2015). In sum, it is imperative to infer that individuals' mastery over their environments, to their maximum potential, could positively affect their aspiration for positive psychological development.

2.1.2.5. Purpose in Life

Purpose in life dimension of Ryff's psychological well-being model entertains concepts related to positive psychological functioning in light of a person's sense of purpose and direction in life (Ryff 1989). The meaning individuals attach to life, intended and achieved goals of life, and paths followed to one's desired end are central features in ones sense of having purpose in life. It has long been argued that all people have a potential to find out meaning in life, even in seemingly meaningless situations (Bronk & Kendall Cotton, 2014). In developmental trajectory, it was suggested that purposeful activity often launched in childhood, becomes intentional and meaningful in the period of adolescence and early adulthood, and evolves throughout middle and later adulthood (Bronk & Kendall Cotton, 2014).

It has been argued that a strong sense of purpose in life is an essential component of psychological well-being and plays an important role in the development of resilient characteristics when faced with challenges in life (Feder et al., 2008). Supporting this contention, a study revealed that purpose in life is an important predictor of physical and psychological well-

being (McKnight & Kashdan, 2009). Furthermore, Bronk and Kendall Cotton (2014) highlighted purpose commitment during adolescence as a vital source of support for positive youth development across multiple key developmental domains. When young people have a clear purpose, they are more likely to demonstrate persistence in the face of challenges, make future-oriented decisions, and experience higher levels of life satisfaction.

Although it is such an essential ingredient of positive development of youth, study evidenced that only about 25% of young people commit to a clear purpose in life (Moran, 2020). suggesting that the majority are still in an exploratory stage, where goals and life direction are not yet fully formed. It raises concerns, as lacking purpose has been associated with lower motivation, higher risk behaviors, and reduced psychological well-being. This calls for supportive action from pertinent bodies (like parents, teachers, peers and youth service providing institutions) such that the youth sense of purpose in life could be enhanced, which would positively influence their positive development.

2.1.2.6. Personal Growth

Personal growth is referred to as one's sense of continuous development and openness to new life experiences helping to maximize, expand and improve one's potential (Ryff, 1989). According to Robitschek and Keyes (2009), initiative for personal growth has cognitive and behavioral components. The cognitive domain comprises self-efficacy, beliefs, attitudes and values that support personal growth. On the other hand, changing the cognitions into practice in different growth domains is the behavioral component. Moreover, the initiative for personal growth has been asserted to dictate individual's strive for self-improvement in a variety of life domains (Zaman & Naqvi, 2018).

The tendency of people to have sense of personal growth appears to fertilize individual's chance of achieving the other components (autonomy, self-acceptance, purpose in life, positive relations with others and environmental mastery) of Ryff's psychological well-being model. According to Ryff, achievement of the other five dimensions of psychological well-being is nurtured through individual's continual commitment to his/her personal growth, which in turn contributes for sustained optimal psychological functioning (Mustafa, 2020). In line with this, another study also indicated that personal growth initiative is a critical predictor of psychological well-being (Shahina & Parveen, 2022). The importance of personal growth initiative in one's positive psychological functioning is so immense and demands curiosity to exercise consistently. The findings of a study suggest that personal growth initiative is positively associated with psychological well-being and negatively associated with psychological distress among adolescents (Robitschek & Keyes, 2009).

Furthermore, research indicates that an individual's sense of personal growth plays a significant role in fostering healthy psychological development and overall well-being. For instance, studies indicated that college students with higher levels of personal growth initiative tend to have higher level of psychological, emotional, and social well-being (Ayub & Iqbal, 2012; Robitschek & Keyes, 2009; Zaman & Naqvi, 2018). In contrast, personal growth initiative was negatively associated with adolescents' psychological distress (Ayub & Iqbal, 2012; Zaman & Naqvi, 2018). Promotion of young people's sense of personal growth appears essential as it has paramount importance in ensuring healthy development and diminishing the youngsters exposure to psychological problems.

2.1.3. Psychological well-being during adolescence

Adolescent well-being is a personal and societal good in and of itself, at the same time it is a critical period of life when many of the factors that contribute to lifelong well-being are acquired or solidified (Ross et al., 2020). In line with this, scholars have asserted that this stage of life establishes the foundation for future personality development and is a crucial period for personal growth whereby life goals, values, direction, and purpose are formed (Berman et al., 2006; Savage, 2011). Hence, being in the state of good psychological well-being would have valuable contributions in helping adolescents to deal with pertinent developmental milestones as successful as possible (WHO, 2016). Given the strong importance of adolescents' psychological well-being in shaping their integrated development, it is highly commendable to facilitate enabling social and psychological environment in which adolescents are able to maintain wellness in their psychology to the maximum possible.

Different scholars have stated the characterizing features of adolescents' psychological well-being by using various psychosocial factors. For instance, Avedissian and Alayan (2021) forwarded autonomy, optimism, connectedness and competency as defining attributes of adolescent well-being. Feldman et al. (2021) stated it as adolescents' internal harmony that stemmed from self-awareness, self- knowledge, and self-regulation, as indicator of adolescents' psychological wellness. On the other hand, Savage (2011) has described adolescents' psychological well-being as one's contentment and satisfaction with life, and understanding an abundance of positive emotions in her/himself. In broader terms, Antaramian et al.(2010) defined adolescents' psychological well-being as individuals' condition of experiencing their lives positively. Across these conceptualizations, all factors stated as defining features of adolescents'

psychological well-being are important inputs needed for positive evolvement of individuals in adolescence stage.

Páez-Gallego et al. (2020) contended that the period of adolescence is an evolutionary stage in life during which all components of Ryff's psychological well-being (autonomy, self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, positive relationship with others and environmental mastery) are developed, exercised in routine life, and contrasted individually and socially. The social and psychological self of adolescents appear to indicate the degree to which they have realized different dimensions of psychological well-being in their life. In this regard, Loera-malvaez et al.'s (2008) study showed that psychological well-being is an excellent indicator of adolescents relationship within themselves (self) and their environments (interpersonal relationships). In another study, school adolescents with high psychological well-being were found to frequently use adaptive decision-making strategies in their life (Páez-Gallego et al., 2020). Moreover, resilience and empathetic feelings were found to positively correlate with adolescent's psychological well-being (Vinayak & Judge, 2018). Adolescents' tendency to exercise indicators of healthy development appears to rely on the degree of their psychological well-being, which underscores importance of the construct in dictating positive adolescent development. In this regard, Perez (2012) asserted that psychological well-being serves as one of the important aspects in life in leading to adaptive human functioning and positive life experiences.

Among others, studies have reported that the status of good psychological well-being has positive influences on adolescent's academic achievement (Adu & Mpuangnan, 2022; Mubarok & Pierewan, 2020) social competence (Gómez-López et al., 2022), positive thinking and self-efficacy (Alkhatib, 2020), pro-social behavior (Rosli & Perveen, 2021), identity achievement

(Sandhu et al., 2012), and self-esteem (Singhal & Prakash, 2021). Ryff (2013), in broader terms, asserted that psychological well-being has a considerable impact on the overall health of individuals. In the same vein, greater psychological well-being was positively associated with enhanced physical and mental health, formation of better social relationship, and individuals' happy and balanced life (Singhal & Prakash, 2021). Different from other stages of human development, the period of adolescence appears to demand substantial psychological well-being such that adolescents' age-appropriate developmental milestones could be achieved to the fullest possible.

In contrast, adolescents who experience state of low psychological well-being tend to face various challenges while flourishing through the period of adolescence and would be subjected to achieving inadequate developmental competencies expected of the ages and different problem behaviors. For instance, lower levels of psychological well-being was significantly associated with adolescents drug abuse (Visser & Routledge, 2007), high and negative relationship was found to exist between psychological well-being and maladaptive decision-making tendency of adolescents (Páez-Gallego et al., 2020), and being in the state of low psychological well-being was found to correlate with adolescents' identity diffusion (Sandhu et al., 2012). Most importantly, these findings indicate the significance of one's psychological wellness in negatively affecting adolescent development particularly if it does not exist to the level required for healthy psychological functioning. Admittedly, poor psychological well-being appears to hamper adolescents' healthy development.

2.2. Attachment

In human developmental dynamics, attachment to key figures is critical to one's successful achievement of social, psychological, and physical developmental milestones throughout one's

life. Bowlby (1969), the leading attachment theorist, defined attachment as long-term "psychological connectedness between human beings" (cited in Wright et al., 2015). Unpacking Bowbly's definition of attachment, McLeod (2017) referred to attachment as a deep and enduring emotional bond between two people in which each seeks closeness and feels more secure upon presence of the attachment figure. Furthermore, Lacasa et al. (2015) defined attachment as the ability to lead oneself to form and maintain emotional bonds with other humans throughout one's life. In all cases, attachment is commonly referred to as a bonding tie connecting the seeker of attachment and the attachment figure, and vice versa, for the purpose of creating safe and secured psychosocial relationships among humans. In the following section, review of literature on the conceptualization of attachment is presented.

2.2.1. The Concept of Attachment

Attachment has long been discussed by developmental psychologists as an important component in the human development trajectory. Firstly, Bowlby (1973) proposed the concept of attachment to describe the fundamental bond between parent and infant as a requirement for survival and development (Moretti & Peled, 2004). Based on the broad premise that humans are biologically driven to form affectionate bonds with others and its universality in nature, he developed an attachment theory to explain the dynamics of attachment in human relationship (Lee & Lok, 2012; Shumaker et al., 2009). According to this theory, a person who is cared for in a responsive and consistent manner tends to develop the expectation that others will be available and supportive when needed (Fraley et al., 2011). Originally, attachment research was primarily concerned with the study of attachment bonds in early childhood (Bowlby, 1969). Later, Bowlby himself argued that the theory is broad and comprehensive, encompassing personality and social development "from the cradle to the grave" (Bowlby, 1979; Freeman & Brown, 2001). Hence,

attachment was re-conceptualized to include other significant relationships, such as those with peers and romantic partners (Guarnieri et al., 2010). The attachment concept, in this sense, encompasses why and how people think, feel, and behave in specific ways within relationships at various stages of their lives.

In attachment theory, proximity seeking, secure base effect, and separation protest are central features evident in the attachment behavior of the attached (Freeman & Brown, 2001). The attachment figure's accurate understanding of the attached emotional needs and tendency to be sought for emotional support is referred to as proximity seeking. The second feature, separation protest, describes how physically separating from the attachment figure causes anxiety and protest in the attached. The secure base effect, contributed by Aisworth (Rosmalen, 2015), captures the degree to which the attached feels confident to explore knowing that the attachment figure is committed and ready to help when needed. The secure base allows the individual to explore the world and develop greater autonomy, growth, competence, eventually resulting in better self-regulation and psychological development (Simpson et al., 2020). Building on Bowlby's pioneering work, researchers in the field of psychology have broadened attachment theory's original focus to include a greater emphasis on adult relationships.

Scholars have debated whether attachment is stable or not across different developmental stages. Some asserted that, once attachment is formed with attachment figures (especially with primary attachment figures like parents and guardians) in the early years of life, the attached tend to form mental representation of attachment experiences and use it in the rest of their life (Flansburg, 2016; Waters et al., 2022). This notion stems from Sigmund Freud's assertion that the child is the father of the man, which Bowlby also supported and argued that early attachment experience has effects on later relationships with others; both as a source and seeker of

attachment (Crowell et al., 2002). Although Bowlby does not assert that early experience is destiny, he contended that the change to mental representation of attachment experience formed during infancy and early childhood is less likely as the longer it is maintained (Waters et al., 2022). Other scholars, on the other hand, have argued that as time passes, individuals' later attachment experiences gradually overwrite earlier attachment experiences, making prior attachment history and an increasingly poor predictor of subsequent attachment in life (Fraley et al., 2011; Jones et al., 2018). Both paradigms have made an immense contribution to the body of research on attachment in developmental psychology.

In the attachment literature, two perspectives (prototype and revisionist) evolved and explained how attachment experience works in human life development (Fraley, 2002). The prototype is defined as a composite of non-linguistic representations, information processing procedural rules, behavioral strategies, and physiological regulatory processes that emerged during early interactions with attachment figures (Cassidy & Sherman, 2015; Fraley, 2002). Proponents of the prototype perspective contend that early experience representations are retained over time and continue to influence attachment behavior throughout life. The revisionist viewpoint, on the other hand, contends that early representations are subject to change as a result of new experiences and thus may or may not reflect attachment patterns later in life. According to this perspective, changes in attachment representations have the potential to dilute or even override early representations (Jones et al., 2018).

2.2.2. Attachment during Adolescence

Although attachment is an important component of the human development process throughout life (Shumaker et al., 2009), it has a distinct impact on the period of adolescence, which undergoes rigorous developmental changes that influence later life. In adolescence, the

need and seek for attachment bond formation remains as important as it was in childhood stage of life, though there would be changes in its modality and the tendency to prefer one attachment figure over the others. For instance, while young children require close proximity and physical availability of their parents to provide comfort when they are distressed, adolescents do not require the same level of proximity and can find comfort in knowing their parents are supportive even when they are not present (Moretti & Peled, 2004). In line with this, Nickerson and Nagle (2005) contended that adolescent-parent attachment relationships shift from direct interactions to relationships primarily based on mental representations, beliefs and expectations, with a sense of security being at the center. In terms of attachment figure preference, while the initial attachment relationships are formed with parents, individuals could indeed form long-lasting attachment bonds with people outside of their family later in life (Gorrese & Ruggieri, 2012). Multiple attachment sources appear to come across adolescents as they flourish through this stage of life.

In adolescence, potential attachment figures include parents, friends, romantic partners, or siblings (Bohn et al., 2021). Each attachment figure has its own contribution in the smooth transitioning of adolescents through the period of adolescence. Parents are key figures of attachment during infancy and pre-school, providing security and companionship, whereas peers appear to replace parents as major sources of companionship and acceptance during adolescence. Similarly, Crittenden and Villegas Torras (2001) contended that adolescence marks a transition from attachment relationships and behaviors that center around family members to those that involve a number of other individuals including peers and romantic partners. To this end, adolescents struggle to become more autonomous from parents, and tend to turn more to peers for support and guidance (Markiewicz et al., 2006). In this regard, parents are expected to grant their children more autonomy (Collins et al., 2002). Adolescents who have the opportunity to

form close friendships with their peers are privileged to enjoy extensive self-disclosure and validation of one's perspectives and values (Markiewicz et al., 2006), which will positively impact their development to the greatest extent possible. Yet, the shift in point of attachment from parent to peer does not imply disruption of attachment relationships with their parents and exclusively connect with their peers only (Devi & Baruah, 2017). This is due to the fact that continued adolescent attachment to parents and other adults during adolescence has arguably been extremely beneficial in adolescent development (Moretti & Peled, 2004).

Adolescents do not simply disengage from parental influence and enter a world of decision-making on their own. However, adolescents' struggle for autonomy and some parents clinging to maintain the type of attachment formed during infancy and childhood years tends to characterize the period of adolescence. The renown developmental psychologist, Santrock (2016), asserted that it is psychologically healthy for adolescents to remain connected to their parents as they grow more autonomous. According to Hoang (2015), parents continue to empower adolescents to exercise autonomy by assisting them in improving their understanding, managing, expressing themselves, acknowledging others' perception, and accepting the feelings and emotions of others. Arguably, parents may serve adolescents as a secure base in situations where they have instrumental knowledge or expertise, such as learning to drive, getting a job, or making plans for the future (Scharf et al., 2004). Moreover, it was asserted that using parents as a secure base while continuing autonomous exploration would even allow adolescents to form relationships with peers and romantic partners, regulate their own behavior, and affective states (Hoang, 2015). In conclusion, continued parental support and adolescents' socio-emotional connection to their parents would maximize successful integrated development.

Without denying the continual significant contribution of parents, studies have amplified the importance of peers in adolescent development. For example, Rajendran et al. (2023) reported that adolescents' proclivity toward peer for social bonding is critical in the development of emotional and social competence, particularly in the school setting. In the same vein, adolescent attachment to their peers was found to be an important source of affection, intimacy, feelings of inclusion, dependable alliance and enhancement of self-worth (Oberle et al., 2010). A study also showed that peer attachment has a significant relationship with adolescents' social and emotional competence (Laible, 2007). Given its importance in their thriving, peer attachment was also asserted to uniquely relate to adolescent adjustment. In contrast, poor peer attachment was found to associate with adolescents' engagement of property related crimes, drug use and people related crimes such as assault, molestation and rape (Rajendran et al., 2023). Admittedly, while acknowledging the importance of peer attachment during adolescence, it is also critical to be aware of and work to minimize the potential negative consequences of improper adolescent attachment with their peers.

Studies of adolescent attachment dynamics, whether it be with parents or peers, confirmed that there are gender differences in the desire for attachment formation among adolescents. For instance, a study that examined the nature of adolescent attachment to parents and peers conducted on grade eleven and twelve students indicated that attachment secure adolescents significantly favored mothers over best friends, boy/girlfriends, and fathers (Oberle et al., 2010). In terms of attachment hierarchies, research findings show that female adolescents position mothers higher in their hierarchies than male adolescents, who put fathers higher in their hierarchies than female adolescents (Kobak et al., 2007; Markiewicz et al., 2006). Based on the tendency of adolescents' attachment formation with peers, a meta-analytic review of 19 studies

revealed that female adolescents were significantly more attached to their peers than male adolescents (Gorrese & Ruggieri, 2012). Taken together, differences in attachment formations are observed among adolescents based on their gender, and attachment bonds appear to vary based on the gender of attachment figures as well.

2.3. Attachment during Adolescence and Psychological Well-being

Evidence from a body of attachment literature indicates that the received or perceived attachment bonds from significant others during adolescence plays a determinant role in fostering adolescents' psychological well-being. A study on the correlates of positive youth development, for example, discovered that familial and social relationships are important sources of positive development in adolescents (Youngblade et al., 2007). Adolescent adjustment, academic success, self-esteem, social competence, and a decrease in both externalizing and internalizing problems were found to be associated with such familial and social relationships (Bornstein et al., 2010). Furthermore, it has been theorized and empirically confirmed that adolescents' access to social and emotional support from their family, peers, school, and community plays an important role in their developmental transition to adulthood (Lee & Lok, 2012). Similarly, Arulsubila and Subasree (2017) asserted that adolescents are constantly renegotiating their relationships with family, friends, school, and community as they experience multifaceted developmental changes at this stage of development. Another study also indicated that adolescent development is a function of their relationships with their peers, family, and members of their social spheres (Jacob, 2018). In sum, the adolescents' socio-emotional bond to potential attachment figures appears to relate with psychological well-being of adolescents, whereby, better attachment fosters their psycho-social development to the fullest possible.

2.3.1. Attachment with Parents and Adolescents' Psychological Well-being

Parents play an important role in guiding the developmental process during adolescence, and thus the nature of attachment between parents and adolescents has implications for adolescents' psychological well-being. The parental socio-emotional bond was asserted to play a critical role in the development and expression of self-determination in adolescents' psychological well-being (Kocayoruk, 2012). Supportive, accepting and supervising parents were found to facilitate positive developmental outcomes, positive adolescent self-evaluations, higher levels of adolescent self-esteem and adjustment, and also appeared to positively influence adolescents' levels of intrinsic motivation for learning (Cripps & Zyromski, 2009). The quality of attachment relationship between parents and adolescents, in terms of communication, trust and alienation, has been linked empirically and theoretically to adolescents' psychological well-being.

2.3.1.1. Parental Communication and Adolescent Psychological Well-being

Parents play an important role in their children's healthy development while they communicate their views and expectations for appropriate behavior to them directly (Bireda & Pillay, 2018). Healthy parent-adolescent attachment, which in turn would influence adolescents' well-being, is contended to be the function of effective communication between the two (Ishak et al., 2010). A meta-analysis of 23 studies revealed that the pattern of communication between parent and adolescent affects adolescents' psychological well-being (Wahyuningsih et al., 2020). Hence, it is imperative to argue that good quality parent-adolescent communication fosters adolescents' psychological well-being (in terms of autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relationships with others, purpose in life and self-acceptance).

Parent-adolescent communication characterized by warmth and supportive features appears to positively impact adolescent positive development whereas lose communication relationship between the two negatively influences adolescent development toward the desired direction. According to Mohan et al. (2022), parent-adolescent communication was positively correlated to adolescent self-esteem, and it was suggested that parents should cultivate good parent-adolescent communication to ensure a positive psychological impact on their adolescents. Similarly, parent-child interaction with warmth was found to predict an increase in adolescents' self-esteem while also predicting a decrease in adolescents' ability to externalize problems (Cripps & Zyromski, 2009). Another study revealed that better quality adolescent-parent communication significantly promoted adolescents' development of autonomy and future orientation, and thereby enhanced their life satisfaction (Bi & Wang, 2021). In contrast, poor communication between youth and parents was identified as one of the family risk factors leading to internalized outcomes such as depression and suicidal behavior (Eberhart & Hammen, 2006). Hence, researchers in the field recommend open and supportive communication among parents and adolescents in order to maximize positive adolescent development (Bireda & Pillay, 2018; McLean et al., 2007).

2.3.1.2. Parental Trust and Adolescent Psychological Well-being

In the context of a parent-child relationship, trust refers to a confident belief in each other's dependability, emotional trustworthiness, and honesty (Rotenberg, 2010). The parent-adolescent relationship evolves from a more hierarchical to a more mutual relationship during the process of adolescents' self-governing person journey (Smetana, 2004). Parental bonding was contended to serve as the source of love, trust, intimacy and security for adolescents, and the degree of this relationship either flourishes adolescents' well-being or may cause scar in their life

course (Indumathy & Ashwini, 2017). Adolescents' perceived trust in their parents helps to smooth the parent-adolescent interaction and fosters a supportive relationship between the two.

Parents, being the source of trust, must in turn show their trust in adolescents to be responsible, follow their rules, and share information about their plans, activities, and companions (Smetana, 2004). On the other hand, adolescents' trust in their parents is also important in the dynamics of the child-parent relationship. In this regard, a study found that adolescents' trust in their parents was positively related to parent-adolescent communication and parental monitoring (Ying et al., 2015). Similarly, an open and disclosure relationship between parents and children whereby adolescents freely disclose information about themselves, their whereabouts and so forth are most likely to foster parent trust, which potentially leads to further positive developmental outcomes (Williams, 2003). In the parent-adolescent relationship dynamics, the mutual trust between adolescents and the parents plays a crucial role in helping positive evolvement of adolescents.

2.3.1.3. Parental Alienation and Adolescent Psychological Well-being

Parental alienating behaviors are considered a complex cluster of strategies used by alienating parents to damage and sever the relationship between the child and the parent (Verhaar et al., 2022). Such parents tend to engage in behaviors and processes that prioritize their own needs over and above the child's interest (Harman et al. 2022). The alienating parents appear to withdraw from their child after realizing that the child cannot meet the alienating demands (Haines et al., 2019). Adolescents living in the context of an alienating parental relationship tend to face difficulties in their urges for positive psychological development.

The psychological consequences of parental alienation for adolescents seem to be clear, with both short- and long-term developmental consequences. Among others, self-esteem issues,

substance use, anxiety, depression, school-related difficulties, increased suicidality and a greater risk of being alienated from their children in the future are the major social, academic and psychological problems facing alienated children (Verhaar et al., 2022). Moreover, the child in the context of parental alienation family environment was reported to face the loss of individual self, childhood experiences, extended family, community, and activities and relationships that are essential for healthy development (Harman et al., 2022). Hence, it is very likely that adolescents under alienating parental care tend to be challenged in the successful achievement of developmental milestones during adolescence and thereby experience low psychological well-being.

2.3.2. Attachment with Peers and Adolescent Psychological Well-being

Essentially, adolescents' attachment to their peers can be divided into two categories: secure attachments and insecure attachments. Adolescents secure attachment to their peers is characterized by trust, mutual understanding and good communication quality (Theisen et al., 2018), whereas the insecure attachment to peers is symbolized by the feeling of alienation from the peer group, poor communication and mistrust (Roelofs et al., 2013).

During adolescence, quality peer attachment is associated with optimal development in adolescents. In light of this notion, Wilkinson (2004) asserted that quality peer attachments are just as important as quality parental relationships to adolescent psychological well-being and adjustment. In the same vein, Armdsen and Greenberg (1987) found that both peer and parental attachment were significant predictors of psychological well-being, including self-esteem and life-satisfaction in adolescents. Likewise, Laible et al. (2000) asserted that peer attachment may be more important than parental attachment for psychological health outcomes of adolescents. Moreover, Lin and Mar's (2012) study revealed that quality of parent and peer attachments in

adolescence was highly related to well-being, particularly to life satisfaction and optimal development in adolescents.

Studies corroborate this perspective, show that adolescents' attachment to peers is a strong predictor of positive well-being, driven by reliable relationships and effective communication that promote resilience and satisfaction with life (Abubakar et al., 2014; Schoeps et al., 2020). Besides, adolescent attachment to peers was discovered to be a predictor of adolescent positive well-being (Rajendran et al., 2023). Furthermore, there is evidence that shows adolescents' strong attachment to their peers is positively correlated to better self-perceived strengths (Raja et al., 1992). In the same vein, research has reported a negative relationship between adolescents' attachment to peers and their likelihood of experiencing conduct problems and emotional difficulties (Schoeps et al., 2020).

Moreover, adolescents' established sense of trust with their peers and good communication were significantly associated with positive sense of self and perceived social competence whereas adolescents' alienation from peers was correlated with increased emotional distress (Hellenthal, 2006). This would imply that psychological well-being of adolescents could be influenced by the degree of attachment to their peers in terms of trusting each other, understanding in communication and potential emotional detachments.

On the other hand, insecure or unhealthy peer attachment could also yield different psychological problems in adolescents. For example, Allen et al. (2003) indicated that insecure adolescents' peer attachment is associated with depression, anxiety, and other health problems. In the same vein, Dagan et al. (2018) revealed that insecure or unhealthy peer attachment is associated with higher levels of depressed mood in early adolescence.

From the literature reviewed, it is easy to discern that adequate peer attachment during adolescence is related with optimal development in adolescents, whereas unhealthy peer attachment yields different health related problems in adolescents. However, whether these findings also applies to Ethiopian adolescents was an issue the present study addressed.

2.3.2.1 Peer Communication and Adolescent Psychological Well-being

In the context of adolescent interaction with peers, communication was defined as adolescents' perceptions of peers being sensitive and responsive to their emotional states, as well as assessing the extent and quality of involvement and verbal communication with them (Armsden & Greenberg 1987; Gorrese, 2016). Literature has shown that healthy peer communication has a positive impact on adolescents' positive developmental functioning. For instance, a study showed that adolescents with high peer communication were found to have higher levels of empathy (in terms of cognitive and affective) and pro-social behaviors (Schoeps et al., 2020). Furthermore, peer communication was found to improve individual proactive socialization behavior through enhancing core self-evaluation (Nie et al., 2022), which relates to positive relations with other dimension of psychological well-being.

The degree of adolescents' attachment with their peers was investigated to be a function of the level of their communication. According to Situmorang et al.'s (2016) study on the influence of communication and adolescents' attachment with peers on their character, low communication was associated with low attachment with peers. In turn, a study found that low peer attachment leads to poor adolescent adjustment, whereas close relationships with peers were found to promote healthy adolescent adjustment (Laible et al., 2000). This would imply that better adolescent-peer communication is likely to nurture better adolescent-peer attachment which in turn accounts for adolescents' psychosocial adjustment.

Previous studies have disproportionately focused on the relationship between peer communication and adolescent psychopathology, compared to how adolescent-peer communication would support positive outcomes such as strengths, well-being, or resilience. For instance, low adolescents' communication with their friends has been linked to higher social anxiety (Starr & Davila, 2008), while peer communication has been found to be only weakly associated with depression (Gorrese, 2016). Lower levels of conduct problems and emotional difficulties have been related to higher levels of peer communication and stronger peer attachment (Schoeps et al., 2020), and low-quality or limited peer communication has been shown to contribute to, rather than fully account for, adolescent depressive symptoms (Ruijten et al., 2011). Much remains to be done to investigate how adolescent–peer communication contributes to adolescents' psychological well-being.

Some research indicates that adolescent peer communication varies by gender while others do not. According to the findings of Gorrese and Ruggieri's (2012) study, there is a significant gender difference in peer communication, with female adolescents reporting higher communication than male adolescents. Similarly, in another study, female adolescents had higher quality peer attachment than their male peers, demonstrating confidence in their friendships and deep communication with them (Jones et al., 2018). On the other hand, in a study that explored mentalization, trust, communication quality, and alienation in adolescents, no gender difference in peer communication was found (Clarke et al., 2020). So, this points to the need for further investigation to examine whether the results obtained elsewhere hold in the Ethiopian context.

2.3.2.2 Peer Trust and Adolescent Psychological Well-being

Peer trust refers to the degree of mutual understanding and respect in the peers' attachment relationship (Gorrese, 2016). Trust was found to represent a distinct dimension of

peer attachment and has an immense importance over time for adolescents' psychological adjustment changes, and caring and trustworthy peers can be sources of support (Gorrese, 2016; Garriott et al., 2010). The impact of caring and trusting peer relationships on adolescents' psychological adjustment was reported to be explained by feelings of self-worth (Garriott et al., 2010). In contrast, adolescents who feel detached and isolated from their peer group appear to struggle more with behavioral and emotional problems (Schoeps et al., 2020). Thus, establishment of trusting peer relationships among adolescents would have a positive effect in enhancing their psychological well-being which in turn fosters positive development.

According to related theories and empirical studies, adolescents' trust in their peers is mediated by their level of trust in their parents. Bowlby's (1969/1982,1973) attachment theory explained pathways from parenting to peer trust, and Erickson's (1950) psychosocial theory of development explained the role of parents in the development of a child's sense of trust (Erek, 2016). Similarly, studies have revealed that individuals who had a warm trust of their parents are more likely to trust their peers (Laible et al., 2004; Richaud de Minzi, 2007). A study also demonstrated longitudinal positive relation from adolescents' trust in parents to their later trust in peers (Umemura & Šerek, 2016). Taken together, adolescents' portrayals of parental trust play important roles in extending their trust in their friendships.

The development of trustful peer relationships during adolescence is crucial for adolescents' successful transition to adulthood. Studies indicate that teenagers who trust their peers are more self-assured and content with their lives (Matsushima & Shiomi, 2003; Nickerson & Nagle, 2005). Trust among peers was also significantly correlated with adolescents' interpersonal characteristics or expressivity (D'Urso et al., 2018). Furthermore, adolescents who positively trust and communicate with their peers were found to thrive and develop positively

(Mohamed et al., 2017). The same study discovered that trust in peers positively correlated with encouraging positive youth development and prevention of adolescents' engagement in risky behaviors.

Studies on adolescents' ability to build trust with their peers have found that female adolescents are more skilled and superior to male adolescents in this regard (D'Urso et al., 2018; Gullone & Robinson, 2005; Ruijten et al., 2011). As a result, female adolescents are able to obtain more support and care from peers and satisfied with their peers than male adolescents (Perez, 2012). However, in another study, boys were found to be more trusting than girls, despite the fact that no gender difference was found in trustworthiness (repaying the person who trusted oneself) (Derks et al., 2014). Such inconsistent study results would suggest the importance of considering the socio-cultural context in the study of trust among male and female adolescents.

2.3.2.3 Peer Alienation and Adolescent Psychological Well-being

Peer alienation refers to adolescents' feelings of isolation, anger, and detachment experienced in attachment relationships with peers (Armsden & Greenberg 1987). Alienation is manifested in social distance adolescents' are forced to maintain from peers who appear un-empathetic to them (Ardiana, 2017). A study showed that alienating peer relationship would have bad effects on adolescent development (Dmitrieva et al., 2004). In the same vein, the feeling of social isolation from peers was asserted to contribute to the occurrence of adolescents' poor psychological health and harms healthy development (Hall-Lande et al., 2007; Rayce et al., 2018). In light of evidence in the literature, it is sound to infer that a series of negative developmental implications appears to accompany adolescents who were subjected to peer alienations.

According to psychological theory of alienation, the need to belong is one of the most powerful human needs, and stifling the need to belong and find meaning can have disastrous consequences for one's own well-being (Ifeagwazi et al., 2015). In line with this, alienation among adolescents has been found to be predictive of deviant behaviors, like drug usage, truancy, crime, and suicide, as well as health-related outcomes, such as symptom load, drunkenness, alcohol use, less exercise, and daily consumption of unhealthy foods (Rayce et al., 2018). Emotional difficulties and conduct problems were found to positively correlate with adolescents high score in peer alienation (Schoeps et al., 2020). Furthermore, the literature shows that alienated individuals lack the necessary competencies to function effectively in various spheres of life such as home, school, community, workplace, and society at large (Tomé et al., 2016).

Studies associated adolescents' alienation by their peers with prior established parental relationships and indicates that female adolescents are more at risk of peer alienation compared to male adolescents. Sentse et al. (2010) found, for example, that higher parental rejection is associated with lower peer acceptance in a study of 3145 young adolescents from 122 schools. Other studies have found that children who perceive high levels of parental rejection report higher levels of peer rejection and lower levels of friendship satisfaction (Kim & Kim, 2019; McLachlan et al., 2010). Inconsistent study results have been documented in the body of literature whether peer alienation differs by adolescents' gender. In a study by Tomé et al. (2016), female adolescents reported higher feelings of alienation in contrast to male adolescents, whereas, in another study adolescent boys reported higher perception of peer alienation than adolescent girls (Wang et al., 2021). Supporting the latter gender difference, Gorrese and

Ruggieri's (2012) meta-analytic review showed that males reported slightly higher scores than females on their perception of alienation.

2.4 Sex and Adolescent Psychological Well-being

The psychological well-being of adolescents of both sexes is essential for their optimal development. Despite this, there is no conclusive evidence as to which sex group is more psychologically well-adjusted. In other words, there are research findings that suggest that male adolescents have a better psychological well-being than female adolescents; however, there is also research evidence that suggests the opposite - female adolescents have a better psychological well-being than male adolescents.

In her study based on the six dimensional psychological well-being model (autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, purpose in life, positive relations with others and self-acceptance), Ryff (1995) reported that women of all ages scored higher than men on positive relations with others and personal growth, and with no differences between the two sexes on the four remaining aspects of psychological well-being. Moreover, Perez's (2012) study evidenced gender differences in three of the six psychological well-being aspects (i.e., autonomy, positive relations with others, and purpose in life), with male adolescents scoring higher than females on autonomy, and female adolescents scoring higher than males on purpose in life and positive relations with others.

Furthermore, Chraif and Dumitru (2015) reported that in four of the six components of psychological well-being (i.e., environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others and self-acceptance) female adolescents were found to score higher than their male counterparts except on the environmental mastery. Similarly, some studies have shown that girls demonstrated greater psychological well-being than boys (Chen et al., 2018; Liu & Zhao, 2016).

There are also research findings that support that male adolescents are better in their psychological well-being than female adolescents. For example, Savoye et al.(2015) have suggested that female adolescents have lower level of psychological well-being during adolescence than male adolescents. In the same vein, Jiang (2020) revealed higher levels of psychological distress among girls than boys. Moreover, a study by Lucktong et al. (2017) found that males exhibited higher levels of psychological well-being compared to females.

On the other hand, studies also showed no differences among male and female adolescents across all the six dimensions of psychological well-being (Francis et al., 2021; Páez-Gallego et al., 2020; Vinayak & Judge, 2018). Likewise, other studies (Chen & Chan, 2016; To et al., 2017) have reported no sex difference in adolescents' psychological well-being. In the face of such mixed findings, it is difficult to take a stance that one sex is better than the other.

Possibly, differences in culture and other contextual factors may help explain why the findings on gender differences in adolescents' psychological well-being are so inconsistent, with some studies reporting differences between male and female adolescents and others finding no differences (Matarazzo et al., 2017). Given the important role of socio-cultural context in shaping potential differences in psychological well-being between male and female adolescents, conducting a study such as the current one in the Ethiopian context is imperative.

2.5 Family Structure and Adolescent Psychological Well-being

Due to the shifting social ideals and customs over the last few decades, family patterns have become very diverse (Bianchi & Casper, 2000). Different family structures may have different economic situations, which may affect family climate (Thomson et al., 1994). These changes in family structures may affect the psychological well-being of adolescents. The existing research is far from conclusive regarding how family structure impacts adolescent psychological well-being.

For example, Demo and Acock (1996) reported that adolescents in intact families have slightly higher levels of well-being than adolescents from single-parent families or stepfamilies. In the same vein, Amato (2005) showed that children growing up with two continuously married parents are less likely to experience a wide range of cognitive, emotional, and social problems than their peers from households with only one biological parent.

Furthermore, Bass (2011) has demonstrated that adolescents who did not live in nuclear families, and in particular those who did not live in two-parent families, reported more health issues, chronic illnesses, and a lower quality of life related to their health, as well as had a lower parental assessment of their health.

In contrast to the previously mentioned studies, Vandewater and Lansford (1998) found no well-being differences among adolescents from different family structures. In the same vein, Adler-Baeder et al. (2009) revealed that family structure of adolescents had no effect on adolescents' well-being. Likewise, Singh and Udainiya (2009) asserted that family structure has no effect on adolescent's psychological well-being. Moreover, Ongaro and Meggiolaro (2012) revealed that family structure had no effect on adolescent psychological well-being except for adolescents from stepparent families. According to Pappa's (2013) study, relationships within the family are more important in determining the psychological well-being of adolescents than the structure of the family. That means, optimal relationships among family members would serve to nurture psychological well-being in adolescents irrespective of the type of family structure they are living with.

Furthermore, even though knowing a child's living arrangement alone tells us little about the family environment in which they live, family researchers frequently overlook the complexities of family life when comparing the psychological well-being of children in intact versus single-

parent families (Videon 2002). Amato et al. (1995) asserted that parental separation does really remove children from a high-conflict environment when there is intense marital disagreement, which in turn improves their well-being. This emphasizes situations where parental separation is advantageous for children's well-being, raising concerns about whether children's well-being is affected more by a dysfunctional family setting than by residential separation from a parent. Considering such controversial research findings, it is difficult to attribute psychological well-being in adolescents to one family structure and not to the other. Thus, this study aims to contribute to the clarification of the above inconsistent research findings in this field of research.

2.6 Theoretical Framework

This study was primarily guided by the ecological systems perspective of Urie Bronfenbrenner (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), supplemented by attachment theory developed by John Bowlby (Bowlby, 1969) and expanded through the work of Mary Ainsworth (Ainsworth et al., 1978), as well as the psychological well-being model proposed by Carol Ryff (Ryff and Keyes, 1995).

Attachment theory posits that interpersonal relationships foster internal models of self and others that shape socio-emotional behavior (Bowlby, 1969). While the prototype perspective emphasizes the enduring influence of early attachment experiences (Fraley, 2002), the revisionist perspective views attachment as malleable and responsive to later experiences and environmental changes (Zimmermann, 2004; Pinquart et al., 2013). Guided by the revisionist perspective, this study conceptualizes attachment to mothers, fathers, and peers as a dynamic developmental process, particularly salient during adolescence when peer relationships gain importance and parent–child relationships continue to evolve. Secure attachment bonds characterized by trust, open communication, emotional closeness, and support are expected to enhance psychological

well-being by promoting positive self-regard, social competence, and adaptive coping, whereas insecure attachments may undermine socio-emotional development and contribute to psychological difficulties (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Allen & Tan, 2016).

Ecological systems theory conceptualizes human development as the result of interactions among multiple nested environmental systems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). These include the microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, macrosystem, and chronosystem, which range from immediate settings such as family and peers to broader cultural and historical contexts. The theory posits that development emerges through dynamic interactions across these systems, with the individual embedded within a complex environment. In this light, adolescents' psychological well-being is influenced by multiple interrelated social contexts. This study therefore applies Bronfenbrenner's framework to capture the individual and combined effects of factors in microsystem (adolescents' interaction with mothers, fathers and peers) on adolescent psychological well-being.

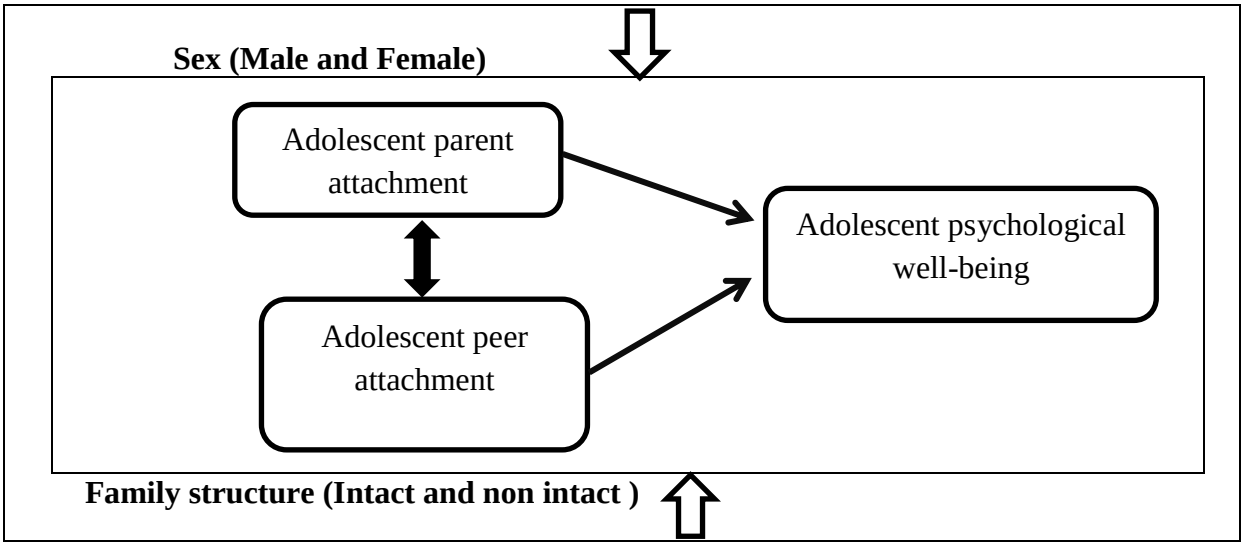
Furthermore, these systems or contexts interact bi-directionally with individuals, that is, individuals play a significant role in how their environment affects them. According to this model, any developmental outcome, such as adolescent psychological well-being, is influenced by multiple variables from multiple levels of influence such as individual, familial, and peer levels. In this study, the effects of microsystem factors, namely adolescents' attachment to parents and peers, on psychological well-being were examined. Given its relevance to the study variables, Bronfenbrenner's ecological model was considered an appropriate framework for guiding the study.

Based on previous research findings, insights from the literature on family systems theory as well as conceptualizations from attachment theory and Bronfenbrenner's ecological model, the

following conceptual framework is developed to describe the relationships among the study variables.

Figure 1

Conceptual framework of the study



Informed by the reviewed literature on factors shaping adolescents' psychological well-being, the current study expected that adolescents' attachment to their parents would have a significant impact on their psychological well-being. Besides, adolescents' peer attachment is forecasted to have a significant effect on adolescents' psychological well-being. Moreover, adolescents' family structure and sex are hypothesized to have a significant influence on the relationship between adolescents' psychological well-being and their attachment to parents and peers.

2.7 Summary of Literature Review

In the world full of dynamism, several factors appear to influence adolescents' optimal development. In developing countries such as Ethiopia, adolescents' healthy development is challenged by multiple physical, psychological, social, and environmental risk factors. Rather

than focusing solely on deficit-based issues, such as problem behaviors, it is important to emphasize positive personal attributes, particularly psychological well-being, that can help adolescents cope with and overcome difficult life circumstances. However, it is unfortunate that previous research on adolescents, both local and international, has given much emphasis to the deficit model under-researching how such developmental assets like adolescents maternal and peer attachment related to positive developmental outcomes (psychological well-being). In order to contribute to narrowing this gap, the present study aimed to examine how attachments to parents and peers influence adolescents' psychological well-being.

Even though this area of research has not been adequately explored locally and internationally, the limited research reviewed above indicated that positive parental attachment is associated with better psychological well-being among adolescents. Adolescents with positive and optimal attachments to their peers are also more likely to be psychologically well. On the other hand, unhealthy adolescents' attachment to their parents and peers results in different problem behaviors in adolescents, including delinquent behaviors, loss of meaning in life, substance use and abuse, employability issues, depression, and anxiety, to mention a few.

With regard to sex and psychological well-being in adolescents, the results of research studies conducted in this field reported conflicting results particularly regarding as to whether male or female adolescents have better psychological well-being. Some claimed that male adolescents have superior psychological well-being than female adolescents, but others disagreed. Because it is challenging to adopt a solid position in the face of such contentious research findings, the present study intends to contribute its part by examining sex differences in the Ethiopian context.

In terms of family structure and adolescent psychological well-being, previous research studies in this field have not gone far enough to determine which family structure is better for fostering adolescent psychological well-being. Some research studies asserted that adolescents from intact families had better psychological wellness than those from single-parent or stepparent families. Others reported no significant difference between adolescents from single parent family and intact family in their psychological well-being. Because the existing research findings are inconsistent and make it difficult to take a clear position, the present study aimed to contribute to clarifying and addressing the issue.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODS

This section discusses research design, study setting, population, and samples of the study, followed by, reflections and lessons learned from pilot study, methods and procedure of data collection, methods of data analysis, and ethical considerations, respectively.

3.1. Study Design

A cross-sectional survey research design was employed to address the objectives of the present study. This design was selected because it enables the collection of relevant data from participants necessary to achieve the study's aims. In support of this, Dulock (1993) argued that descriptive research is suitable for systematically and accurately describing the characteristics of a population or area of interest, as well as for examining relationships among selected variables. In support of the preceding notion, Cohen et al. (2018) stated that descriptive survey research design helps to gather data at a particular point in time with the intention of describing the nature of existing conditions or identifying standards against which existing conditions can be compared or determining the relationship that exists between specific events. Therefore, given its theoretical and practical feasibility, descriptive research design was used in the present study.

3.2. Study Site

The current research took place in Jimma town. Jimma, one of Ethiopia's oldest and most well-known cities, is located 353 kilometers (km) southwest of Addis Ababa, the country's capital. It lies at an elevation of 5,740 feet (1,750 meters) in a forested region known for its coffee plantations. With a total size of 50.52 square kilometers, Jimma town is home to an estimated 195,288 people (97,259 male and 97,969 female) (CSA, 2017). The town is often

known for its warm climate, with a mean annual maximum temperature of 30°C and a mean annual minimum temperature of 14°C. The annual rainfall ranges from 1138-1690 mm. The maximum precipitation occurs during the three months period from June through August, with minimum rain occurring in December and January (Dibaba, 2018).

As a study site, Jimma town was selected for three reasons. The researcher has come to know the research site while coordinating multifaceted community development projects (in the sectors of education, health and livelihoods) in different districts of Jimma zone for over eight years. The first reason is that as a member of local NGO established to empower youth and adolescents in the Zone, the researcher and his team conducted rapid survey research in 2014 E.C. to assess adolescents' and youths' satisfaction with their lives. Surprisingly, out of the 624 youth and adolescents who participated in the survey, 579 (92.78%) of them were not happy with their lives and reported factors like inadequate social ties with parents and friends, fear of success in schooling, employability issues, social unrests, political instability, and inflated living cost as sources of frustration with their lives. Thus, given the survey findings, the researcher considered it worthwhile to study the extent to which parental and peer attachment influence the psychological well-being of Jimma town adolescents and come up with implications for potential intervention.

Another reason is that adolescents in Jimma Zone, and especially in Jimma Town, experience high levels of exposure to khat use, which seems to hinder their healthy development. In the Jimma area, khat chewing is widely regarded as a normative behavior, to the extent that even underage children engage in it, partly due to the locality being one of the major khat-producing regions in Ethiopia. According to community-based study conducted in Jimma town, the prevalence of khat use was 37.8% (Damena et al., 2011), which is two times higher than the

national khat chewing prevalence of 15.3% in Ethiopia (Haile & Lakew, 2015). Among school adolescents in Jimma town, 46.8% of them were found to chew khat (Damena et al., 2011).

The use of Khat has several repercussions on psychological well-being of the users. Although Khat induces short term alerting effects, study report indicates that it is followed by excessive anxiety, restlessness, tension, emotional instability, and irritability (Hoffman & Al'Absi, 2010). The same study indicated that unpleasant after-effects feelings like low mood, numbness, lack of concentration, sluggishness, and insomnia were evident in the psychological state of khat chewers. So, young people dependent on such psychostimulant (i.e., working well upon having and declining of elated psychological state sooner in the post substance intake) would be negatively affected in their developmental journey to the fullest physical, psychological and social development. Hence, it is imperative to study how adolescents' psychological well-being could be influenced by their attachment to parents and friends in such setting (like Jimma town) where young people are highly involved in the use of khat.

Thirdly, young people in Jimma Zone, particularly those in Jimma Town, are frequently observed sacrificing their academic pursuits in favor of migrating to Middle Eastern countries in search of employment opportunities. Parental pressure and having migrated friends (peers) abroad were among the pushing factors to quit their schooling for migration (Fojo & Allais, 2019). A participant involved in illegal migration study described parental pressure as "… *My father and mother encouraged me to migrate and help them as many youths in the community were doing" (Fojo & Allais, 2019, p.21).* This appears to thwart personal development dream of adolescents for short-term economic benefit by taking associated potential risks of illegal migration. Given this, it is worthwhile to examine the extent to which parents and peers' socio-emotional attachment would affect targeted adolescents' positive psychological functioning.

These factors triggered the researcher to study how adolescents' attachment to their parents and peers contribute to their psychological well-being among adolescents residing in Jimma Town.

3.3. Study population

This study involved adolescents in Jimma town who are between 14 and 20 years old. A total of thirteen high schools are found in Jimma city (8 public and 5 private). In these schools, a total of 14,745 adolescents (males = 6574 and females = 8171) were registered to attend formal education during the 2015 E.C. Out of the total 14,745 students attending their formal education in Jimma city, 12,801 of them are students from government schools whereas the remaining 1,944 are private school students. Students from both types of schools were included in the present study.

3.3.1. Sample size and sampling procedures

A lottery method was employed to select three public high schools and two private high schools, a total of five high schools from thirteen schools in Jimma town. Within each selected school, participants were chosen proportionally using simple random sampling, taking into account school type, sex, and grade level.

Based on Drapper and Smith's (1998) formula for non-single populations, the study sample size was determined. According to Drapper and Smith, the sample size (n) determined based on the variables (or factors) (Xi) and categories (Ck) that are involved in the study, such that for each category of a factor n= (Cfn1 x Cfn2 x Cf3x....Cfn), a minimum of 10 observations are required. In this study, the researcher deliberately set a minimum of 15 observations for each factor category to enhance statistical accuracy.

Where:

n = sample

C_{f1} = number of categories of factor 1

C_{f2} = number of categories of factor 2

C_{f3} = number of categories of factor 3

C_{fn} = number of categories of factor n

In the present research, there are four variables (i.e., sex, school type, family structure, and grade level) such that there are two categories in the first factor [male and female), two categories in the second factor (private and government school), two categories in the third factor [Intact and Non-intact] and four categories in the third factor (grades 9, 10, 11 and 12). Hence, the minimum size the researcher should draw was 2 x 2 x 2 x 4 x 15 = 480. Thus, the required sample size to achieve the desired level of precision is 480. Assuming possible non-response rate (10%), incomplete responses (10%) and missing data (5%) that could hinder achievement of the desired precision, the researcher increased the sample by 25%. Accordingly, the total sample size for this study consisted of 600 adolescents pursuing their education in high schools and preparatory schools from grades 9-12 in Jimma town.

Proportionate stratified random sampling was used to draw samples of the study from the respective grade levels. To this end, first, the schools were categorized into private and government schools. Then, from five privately owned high schools in Jimma town, two (i.e., SOS Academy and Tesfa Tewahido senior secondary schools) were selected through lottery method. Likewise, out of eight government high schools in the town, three (i.e., Mole, Jiren, and Jimma senior secondary schools) were selected following the same procedure. After that, two classes from each grade levels (9-12) were randomly selected. Subsequently, participants from each class were categorized based on their sex to guarantee equal opportunities for both males and females. A systematic random sampling method was then applied, ensuring that both male

and female adolescents had an equal likelihood of being selected as study participants. As a result, a total of 600 participants, comprising 323 female and 277 male adolescents, were randomly selected. Table 1 below summarizes the study participants by their school's name, type, and sex.

Table 1

Summary table of the sample by school type

SN	School name	School type	Sampling Frame(N)			Sample(n)		
			Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
1	Mole S.S school	Government	1046	855	1901	52	42	94
2	Jiren S.S school	Government	1924	1317	3241	94	65	159
3	Jimma S.S school	Government	1121	1095	2216	55	54	109
4	SOS Academy	Private	202	170	372	61	52	113
5	Tesfa Tewahido	Private	197	214	411	60	65	125
	Total		4490	3651	8,141	323	277	600

Although it was originally proposed to collect data from 600 adolescents, practical challenges during data collection—such as incomplete responses, duplicate entries, and unanswered items—led to the exclusion of 59 participants. The excluded participants comprised 22 individuals (9 females, 13 males) from private schools and 37 (21 females, 16 males) from government schools. Consequently, the analysis utilized data from 541 adolescents (292 females, 249 males).

3.4. Instruments of data collection

Three instruments were employed to collect the required data from the participants. These included Socio-demographic Questionnaire (to collect data about the participants' age, sex, grade level, family structure), Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWB), and Inventory of Parents and Peer Attachment-Revised version. Each is briefly described below.

3.4.1. Socio-demographic Questionnaire

The Socio-demographic Questionnaire was administered to gather detailed information on the respondents' socio-demographic characteristics. These included age, sex, and grade level, as well as family-related factors, specifically the structure of the family, categorized as intact or non-intact.

3.4.2. Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scale

To assess adolescents' psychological well-being, the study employed the adolescent self-report version of Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scale (RPWB), originally developed by Ryff (1989) and subsequently revised by Ryff and Keyes (1995). This scale was selected for its comprehensive coverage of multiple dimensions of well-being, allowing for a reliable evaluation of adolescents' positive psychological functioning. The scale has 42 items. It measures six aspects of well-being and happiness: autonomy, environmental mastery, personal growth, positive relations with others, purpose in life, and self-acceptance (Ryff et al., 2007). The Ryff Psychological Well-Being Scale is one of the most commonly used measures of well-being, particularly in studies of adolescents, and has been found to strongly relate to other well-being constructs (Keyes et al., 2002; Ryff, 1989; Ryff & Keyes, 1995). Regarding the scoring of the scale, participants indicated their level of agreement with each statement using a six-point scale, ranging from strong disagreement to strong agreement. Sample items of the scale included (1)

Autonomy *(e.g., "I am not afraid to voice my opinions, even when they are in opposition to the opinions of most people"), (2)* Environmental Mastery – *(e.g., "In general, I feel I' m in charge of the situation in which I live"), (3)* Personal Growth - *(e.g., "I am not interested in activities that will expand my horizons"), (4)* Purpose in Life – *(e.g., "I live life one day at a time and don't think about the future"), (5)* Positive Relations – *(e.g., "Most people see me as loving and affectionate"), and (6)* Self-Acceptance – *(e.g., "When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out").*

In terms of its psychometric properties, the scale has produced encouraging results, demonstrating strong reliability and validity in studies with adolescents (e.g., Fernandes et al., 2010). All dimensions of the scale had good reliabilities: Autonomy (0.71), Self-acceptance, (0.79), Positive relations with others (0.78), Environmental mastery (0.68), Purpose in Life (.82), Personal growth (0.71) and total psychological well-being scale (0.82) Ryff (1989). The scale has been extensively utilized in various countries worldwide to examine adolescents' psychological well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995; Gómez-López et al., 2019). The scale has also been used for the same purpose by Ethiopian researchers, and its internal consistency has been in the acceptable range. For instance, Aregash (2010) used the scale to assess psychological well-being and reported an internal consistency (Cronbach alpha) coefficient of α=0.74. Similarly, Berhe (2020) reported a Cronbach alpha of 0.84 for the entire scale.

In terms of validity, Ryff's psychological well-being scale validation study showed that the scale is positively correlated with measures of positive functioning and negatively correlated with measures of negative functioning (Tay, 2023). In its test of validity with positive function measures, RPWS is positively correlated with Affect Balance scale ranging from r=0.25 with personal growth to r=0.62 with environmental mastery, Rosenberg Self-esteem Scale ranging

from r=0.29 for personal growth to r=0.62 for self-acceptance, and Life Satisfaction Index ranging from r=0.28 with autonomy to r=0.73 with self-acceptance. In contrast, RPWS is negatively correlated with Self-rating Depression Scale ranging from r = -0.60 with environmental mastery and purpose in life to r = -0.33 with positive relationships with others.

Given its well-established and reliable psychometric properties in both local and international studies, the Ryff Psychological Well-Being Scale was deemed suitable for collecting the data required to address the present study's research questions. The scale appears to effectively measure key dimensions of well-being, including autonomy, self-acceptance, environmental mastery, positive relations with others, personal growth, and purpose in life.

3.4.3. Inventory of Parents and Peer Attachment (IPPA)

The study employed the revised Parent and Peer Attachment Inventory (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987) to assess attachment relationships between adolescents and their parents and peers. This scale measures various qualities of adolescents' relationships with parents (mother, father, or guardians acting in these roles) and peers, such as trust, quality of communication, and feelings of anger and alienation. Each questionnaire (mother version, father version, peer version) has three subscales: trust, communication, and anger and alienation. The scale consists of 75 items, 25 for each of the attachments to father, mother, and peer. Respondents were required to rate the degree to which each item is true for them on a five-point scale ranging from 'Almost never or never true=1' to 'Almost always or always true=5'. Sample items of the scales include: *my mother accepts me as I am, I wish I had a different father, and my friends can tell when I'm upset about something.*

Regarding psychometric properties of the scale, Armsden and Greenberg (1987) reported good internal consistency for the scale (with Cronbach's alpha coefficients: Mother attachment,

α = .87; Father Attachment, α= .89; and Peer attachment α= .92). Good test-retest reliability for a sample of 18–20-year-olds over a three-week period was also reported with correlation coefficients ranging between 0.86 for peer attachment and 0.93 for parent attachment (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). Convergent validity has been reported on the basis of moderate correlations between the IPPA and other measures, including the Family Self-Concept subscale of the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (r = 0.78 with parent attachment; r = 0.28 with peer attachment) and the Social Self-Concept subscale (r = 0.46 with Parent attachment; r = 0.57 with Peer attachment). Also, significant positive correlations between parent attachment and the Cohesion (r = 0.56), Expressiveness (r = 0.52), and Organization (r = 0.38) subscales of the Family Environment Scale (FES) have been reported. In addition, significant negative correlations with the Conflict (r = -0.36) and Control (r = -0.20) subscales of the FES were reported (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987). The scale has been used for the same purpose by Ethiopian researchers, and the items have been shown to be internally consistent. For example, Tegegne et al. (2020) used the scale to determine adolescents' attachments to their parents and peers, and found acceptable internal consistency across all dimensions of the scale. More specifically, he reported Cronbach alpha of 0.76, 0.81, and 0.79 for mother, father, and peer dimensions, respectively.

Hence, the revised Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPP) was deemed suitable and utilized in this study due to its demonstrated psychometric properties in assessing adolescents' attachment to parents and peers, particularly in terms of communication, relationship trustworthiness, and the alienating aspects of these bonds.

3.5. Validation of Instruments

For the objective of obtaining reliable and ecologically tenable results, it is imperative to validate the measures in the context of research prior to using for the intended purpose. In this

regard, Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008) contended that validating the tools of data collection is crucial for establishing evidence of the scales' validity and reliability that would help to confirm the integrity and quality of the measurement instrument. Common validation procedures, such as assessing face validity, content validity, and internal consistency, were applied to the study tools. In accordance with Turocy's (2002) suggestion, face and content validity of the study scale items were reviewed by a panel of experts in terms of its appearance, relevance, and representativeness of the contents it purports to assess. Cronbach alpha coefficient was employed to assess internal consistency of the study scale items (Rattray & Jone, 2007). Moreover, exploratory factor analysis was used to assess the underlying factor structures of the data collection tools-the Ryff's Psychological well-being scale and the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment. In line with this, Pallant (2020) notes that this technique is the most effective approach for evaluating a scale's factor composition.

As part of validating the study instruments, a pilot study was carried out using a sample of adolescents from schools in Jimma town who were not included in the main study sample. It was conducted with the purpose of examining the feasibility of the study design, confirming the clarity of data collection scale items, estimate the time needed to complete the questionnaires, and identify any items that might cause discomfort among respondents. As anticipated, the pilot study offered important findings that guided the successful execution of the main study.

The pilot study was conducted in two randomly selected schools in Jimma town, one public and one private, both of which enrolled adolescent students who were eligible to serve as sources of data for the study. Catholic Secondary School was chosen from the private schools, while Sato Senior Secondary School represented the government schools. The procedure for identifying participants in the pilot study began with obtaining lists of all students in grade nine through

twelve from the administrative offices of the selected schools. The students were then categorized by grade level (9, 10, 11, and 12) and further grouped according to sex. Having decided the number of participants from each school and corresponding grade levels through proportional stratification approach, a systematic random sampling method was applied within each stratum to select participants, ensuring proportional representation by sex. This procedure was uniformly followed for both sample schools.

Accordingly, a total of 350 adolescents (Female=177, Male=173) participated in the pilot study. Whereas 237 of them were from Sato Senior Secondary School (Female=131, Male=106), 113 of them were from Catholic Secondary School (Female=46, Male=67). In the course of the data collection process, on top of the instructions provided in the survey questionnaire, the researcher and data collection assistants provided oral instructions for the participants to ensure that appropriate data are collected to serve the desired purpose to the fullest possible. While the survey questionnaire was distributed to 350 participants, the pilot study analysis utilized data from 340 individuals (Females=182, Male=158). This adjustment was necessary because questionnaires from 10 respondents (Female=3 and Male=7) were excluded due to instances of duplicate responses to single items and unanswered questions in different sections of the questionnaire.

3.5.1. Translating the measures into the local languages

The measures were translated into the local languages (Amharic and Afan Oromo) using a two-stage procedure. The first phase involved forward translation, in which language experts translated the instruments into the local languages. The second phase consisted of backward translation, where the translated versions were translated backward into the original language to

ensure equivalence with the original measures. The two phases of the translation process employed in the current study are described in detail below.

Phase I: Forward translation

The emphasis of this phase was the translation of the English version measures into Amharic and Afan Oromo languages. To serve the intended purpose, two bilinguals were selected. Their educational qualifications were Assistant professor having master's degree in English with a good understanding of Amharic language and the second translator was Assistant Professor with a master's degree in Afan Oromo and Literature with a good command in English. They were asked to translate the items from the English version as accurately as possible. Accordingly, the original English versions of the measures were translated into Amharic and Afan Oromo languages. The goal of this translation was to properly convey the meaning of the items from the original English version as accurately as possible while keeping the contextual meaning intact and to make understanding of the items easier for the study participants. This translation was then evaluated by two PhD students in psychology to check whether the translation was made without missing its conceptual meanings. Through their assessment only minor mistakes including terminology inconsistencies, grammatical errors, ambiguous phrases, and spelling mistakes were identified while translating the tools into Afaan Oromoo, and corrections were made accordingly.

Phase II: Backward translation

The measures were translated back into English to verify the translation accuracy of the Amharic and Afan Oromo versions. Backward translation was done to reduce errors and identify points of equivalence and discrepancy between the two versions so that the final output would be comparable. For the intended purpose, two bilingual experts who have good command of the

English language were selected. Their educational qualification was PhD student in English language and literature having a good command in English language and PhD student in Afan Oromo and literature having a good command in English language. These experts were not familiar with the original English versions of the scales. The scales that had been translated into Amharic and Afan Oromo were provided to the experts for backward translation, which they subsequently completed. The conceptual equivalency of the backward translated instruments into English was assessed by two PhD candidates who are bilinguals (in Amharic and Afan Oromo), one in Language and Literature, and the other in Psychology. Minor discrepancies observed during backward translation were corrected in consultation with the experts who were involved in the forward and backward translation of the scales. Consequently, forward and backward translated Amharic and Afan Oromo versions of the scales were ready for data collection.

3.5.2. Face Validity Assessment of suggested Data collection Tools

As stated by Netemeyer et al. (2003), researchers should consult subject-matter experts to verify the instruments' linguistic clarity, organization, appropriateness, and logical scale item arrangement. To this end, after reviewing the instruments, a total of five experts provided their feedback: two PhD-holding psychologists, two doctoral students in applied developmental psychology, and one doctoral student in language and literature.

The experts were asked to provide suggestions on how to make items clearer, better, or best fit with the dimensions in which it was placed. After carefully examining the face validity of the items, the experts sent the following feedback: (1) all scale items were deemed appropriate, with the exception of four items that required paraphrasing for language clarity; and (2) all items from the two scales that were suggested for use in this study, the Inventory Parent-Peer

Attachment and Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scale, were found to be appropriate for the intended purpose.

Thus, following the comments received from the experts, all the tools of data collections were made ready for further tool validation processes (i.e., content validity and factor analysis).

3.5.3. Content Validity Assessment of Data collection Tools

The content validity index (CVI), which is the commonly used method for assessing the content validity of data collection measures (Polit & Beck, 2006) was employed to assess the content validity of the proposed tools of data collections. The content validity index (CVI) allows a panel of content experts to independently review and assess the relevance of each scale item to the domain of contents represented in an instrument.

Scholars support the assumption that an instrument's content validity index (CVI) should be examined at least by three to ten experts (Lynn, 1986), to come up with convincing content validity indexes. Accordingly, six experts were invited to review the content validity of the data collection instruments, including Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWB) and the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA). The experts comprised one PhD holder in psychology who was teaching at Haramaya University, one PhD holder in psychology who was teaching at Mizan Tepi University, one assistant professor in psychology who was teaching at Ambo University, and three PhD students in psychology at Addis Ababa University. Reviewers were informed of the purpose of the study and the operational definitions of the constructs during this process. In order to make sure that each instrument comprised a suitable sample of items to represent the construct of interest, the invited experts were asked to assess appropriateness of scales' content on a 4-point scale. They were asked to rank the relevance of each item (1 = Not relevant; 2 = Slightly Relevant; 3 = Relevant; 4 = Highly Relevant). These four rating alternative

phrases were developed based on Lynn's (1986) suggestion of scale items relevancy assessment by a panel of content experts.

Responses to each item were then dichotomized in accordance with the recommendations of Schilling et al. (2007) and Lynn (1986): items that obtained a score of 1 or 2 were given a zero, while items that were scored 3 or 4 were given 1 point. The sum of all the points for each item was used to compute the Item-level Content Validity Index (I-CVI). The total number of weights given by the expert on each item of the scale was divided by the total number of points earned for each item. For example, if an item was marked as relevant or very relevant by 5 of the 6 experts, the item had a total score of 5, then divided by the number of experts (i.e., 5/6 giving rise to I-CVI= .83). Thereafter, the Item-level Content Validity Indexes of the instrument were averaged to produce the Scale level Content Validity Index (S-CVI), which is equal to the sum of the I-CVI divided by the total number of items.

When there are five or less experts, an Item-level Content Validity Index (I-CVI) of 1.00 is optimal, while an I-CVI of 0.83 or above is advised when there are more experts (Lynn, 1986; Polit & Beck, 2006; Schilling et al., 2007). However, in the same sources it was also evident that an I-CVI larger than 0.78 would be considered generally acceptable. Accordingly, the Content Validity Indexes of Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scales (PWB) and Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA) by six experts are presented below.

3.5.3.1. Content Validity Index of Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scales (42 items)

The content validity indexes for Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scale of 42 items were calculated and are shown in Annex D. According to the suggested criterion for item acceptability of greater than 0.78 (Polit & Beck, 2006; Lynn, 1986; Schilling et al., 2007), all the 42 items were found to be relevant with an I-CVI of 0.83 or above. As recommended by Polit and Beck

(2006), the psychological well-being scale level content validity index (S-CVI =0.955) was also found to be satisfactory in terms of representing the content validity of the measure (Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scale). Thus, the scale was used as it is.

3.5.3.2. Content validity index of Adolescent Mother Attachment (25 items)

The content validity indexes for Adolescent Mother Attachment scale comprising 25 items were calculated and are shown in Annex E (Mother- version). All items were found to be good with I- CVI of 0.83 or higher, which met the suggested criteria for item acceptability of greater than 0.78 (Polit & Beck, 2006; Lynn, 1986; Schilling et al., 2007). This means, at least five of the six experts rated the items as relevant or highly relevant. Scale level content validity index (S-CVI =0.97) obtained for content validity assessment of adolescent mother attachment scale was also found to be satisfactory in line with Polit and Beck's (2006) recommendation of S-CVI should at least possess coefficient of 0.83) for reflecting content validity of a particular measure. For this reason, the scale was used as it is.

3.5.3.3. Content validity index of Adolescent Father Attachment (25 items)

The content validity indexes for Adolescent Father Attachment Scale of 25 items were calculated and are shown in Annex E (Father- version). According to the suggested criterion for item acceptability of greater than 0.78 (Lynn, 1986; Polit & Beck, 2006; Schilling et al., 2007), all 25 items were relevant with an I-CVI of 0.83 and above. As recommended by Polit and Beck (2006), the scale level content validity index (S-CVI =0.96) was also found to be satisfactory in terms of representing the content validity of the measure (Adolescent Father Attachment scale). Thus, the value of the content validity index indicated that the items on the scale are representative of the construct to be used for the intended purpose.

3.5.3.4. Content validity index of Adolescent Peer Attachment *(25 items)*

Content validity indices of Adolescent Peer Attachment (25 items) were generated and are shown in Annex E (Peer- Version). According to the suggested criterion for item acceptability of greater than 0.78 (Lynn, 1986; Polit & Beck, 2006; Schilling et al., 2007), all of the scale's items were found to be satisfactory with I- CVI of 0.83 and higher. As recommended by Polit and Beck (2006), the adolescents peer attachment scale level content validity index obtained (S-CVI =0.97) was also found to be satisfactory in terms of representing the content validity of this particular measure. As a result, the content validity index scores obtained from the panel of experts suggested that the scale's items represent the construct being used for the intended purpose.

3.5.4. Factor Analysis

Commonly, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is used for scale development and data reduction (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). However, when it came to instrument validation process in the present study, the researcher decided to start with factor analysis to evaluate the scales' underlying structures, with the following rationales: 1) Basically all scales planned to be used for the present study are designed in the western world and imported for use in Ethiopia. Given the differences in cultural and societal contexts between these two setups, it is not feasible to conduct confirmatory factor analysis before learning whether the scales retain their original factor structures in Ethiopia context through exploratory factor analysis. 2) In the process of validating this instrument into the study setting, the instruments were translated into the local languages. The translation of the instruments was done having the research context in mind. This process could bring some changes in the meaning of the items of the scales. 3) There were also some items that were perceived as poorly fitted to measure the dimensions of interest and

appeared as unfit to the study context, and hence modified as part of the validation procedure. For these reasons, it was considered appropriate to begin with exploratory factor analysis before proceeding to confirmatory factor analysis.

Therefore, for the further refinement of the instruments used in data collection, EFA was done for all tools of data collection, with the findings presented one by one below.

3.5.4.1. Factor Analysis of Psychological well-being Scale [42 items]

A widely used exploratory data analysis tool, Principal Component Analysis (PCA), was applied to reduce dimensionality of the pilot study data set. PCA was recommended over other types of dimension reduction methods (e.g. maximum likelihood factoring, image factoring, alpha factoring, and unweighted and generalized (weighted) least squares factoring, and principal axis factoring) for its ease of interpretability and minimizing the loss of information (Jolliffe & Cadima, 2016). Before performing PCA, the suitability of data for factor analysis was assessed.

Principal components estimate method with varimax rotation was applied to the pilot data set as the data satisfied the Tabachnick and Fidell's (2007) recommendation of using varimax over oblique rotation method where the factors correlation matrix is less than 0.32. Moreover, the inspection of the inter-item correlation matrix revealed the presence of many inter-item relationship coefficients of 0.30 and above, which is theoretically suggested correlation coefficient index for running EFA (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007). On the other hand, the Kaiser Meyer-Olkin value was 0.83, exceeding the recommended value of 0.60 (Revelle, 2016) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (0.89) reached statistical significance, p= .000, supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix. Given the suitability of the data for factor analysis, all the forty-two items of psychological well-being scale were subjected to principal components analysis (PCA) using SPSS version 24.

Unlike the original structure of the scale (six factors), principal components analysis revealed the presence of eight components with many items cross loaded on different factors. Therefore, removing the items with low loading effect and cross loaded on more than one factor was an option to get the items load on a single factor following Worthington and Whittaker' (2006) recommendation to obtain a clearer and more interpretable factor structure. Accordingly, from one to three items were reduced from some dimensions of psychological well-being scale. Three items (#1, #31 & #37) from Autonomy, three items (#2, #26 & #38) from Environmental mastery, two items (#33 & #39) from personal growth, one item (#40) from positive relationship, two items (#23 & #41) from purpose in life and two items (#36 & #42) from self-acceptance were removed. After the removal of the aforementioned items, six components (fitting to the original underlying factor structure) with eigenvalues exceeding 1, whereby the components explained more than 56% of the total variance in the construct was obtained. Table 2 below presents the details.

Table 2

Total Variance Explained for psychological well-being Scale

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.838	16.58	16.58	4.838	16.58	16.58	3.353	11.82	11.82
2	3.274	11.39	27.97	3.274	11.39	27.97	2.857	10.43	22.25
3	2.496	8.71	36.68	2.496	8.71	36.68	2.845	10.27	32.52
4	2.392	8.15	44.83	2.392	8.15	44.83	2.727	9.25	41.77
5	1.834	6.42	51.25	1.834	6.42	51.25	2.456	7.79	49.56
6	1.526	5.13	56.38	1.526	5.13	56.38	2.122	6.82	56.38

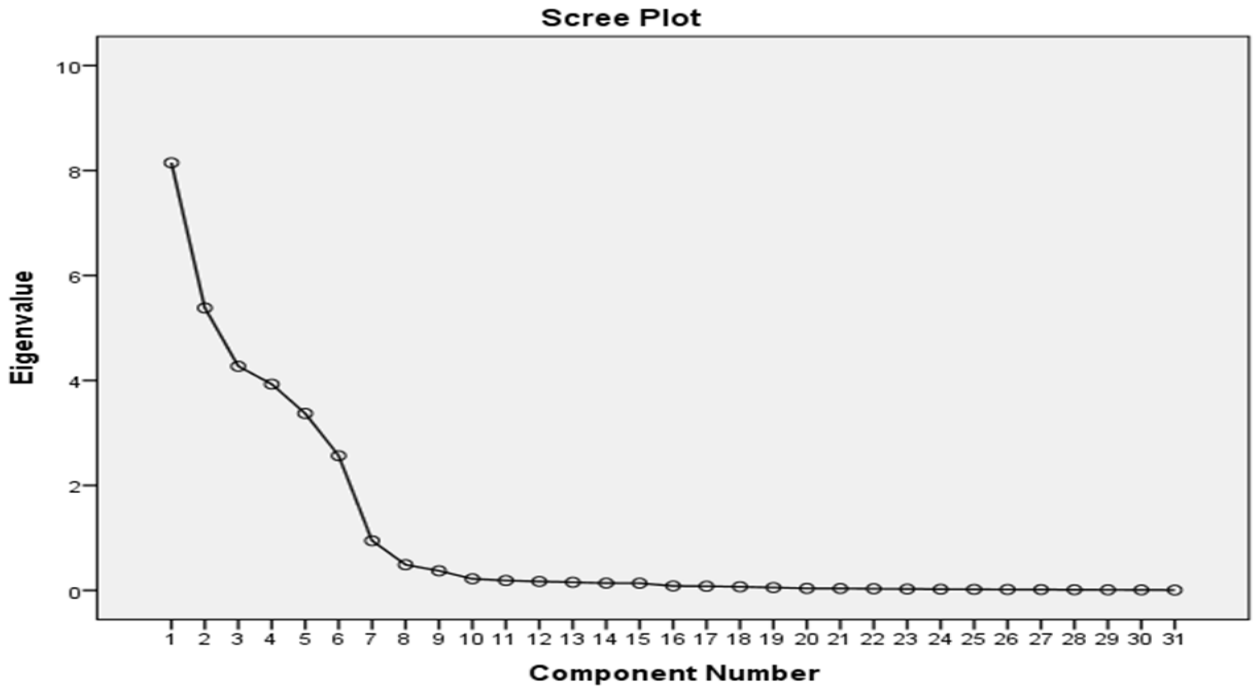
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 3 clearly shows that the contribution of the six dimensions to the total variance varies from one factor to the other. Factor 1 (positive relationship) contributed 16.58 percent to the scale, followed by Factor 2 (Personal growth = 11.39 percent), Factor 3 (self-acceptance = 8.71 percent), factor 4 (Environmental mastery =8.15 percent) and Factor 5 (purpose in life =6.42 percent), and factor 6 (Autonomy= 5.13 percent). In sum, the six components accounted for 56.38% of the total variance. Given this result, it is reasonable to assume that the items assess the construct to the desired level.

Moreover, it was also evident by an elbow at the six factors in the scree plot which indicated the presence of six factor structures (see Fig 2).

Figure 2

The Scree Plot of the Components of the psychological well-being scale



The reliability coefficients for the six factors were calculated using Cronbach's alpha after incompetent items were eliminated from the scale with the EFA procedure. Table 3 displays the results of this computation.

Table 3

Internal consistency of psychological well-being scale and its subscales after factor analysis

Scale/Subscale	No of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Psychological well-being	29	.89
Personal growth	5	.90
Positive relationship	6	.92
Autonomy	4	.81
Environmental mastery	4	.87
Purpose in life	5	.86
Self-acceptance	5	.88

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients, as shown in Table 3, demonstrated good internal consistency ($\alpha = 0.81–0.92$) across the cluster of items that were supposed to assess the multiple dimensions of the construct (psychological well-being). The subscales of positive relationships with others (6 items, $\alpha = 0.92$) and personal progress (5 items, $\alpha = 0.90$) showed high internal consistency, while the overall psychological well-being scale (29 items, $\alpha = 0.89$) showed strong reliability. The other subscales, autonomy (4 items, $\alpha = 0.81$), environmental mastery (4 items, $\alpha = 0.87$), purpose in life (5 items, $\alpha = 0.86$), and self-acceptance (5 items, $\alpha = 0.88$), also showed acceptable to good reliability, suggesting that all subscales are appropriate for assessing underlying dimensions of the psychological well-being.

3.5.4.2 Factor Analysis of Adolescent Father Attachment Scale [25 items]

Exploratory factor analysis was run to check the underlying structure of Adolescent-Father Attachment version of the Inventory of Adolescent Parent Attachment (IPPA). Before running the factor analysis, appropriateness of the pilot study data for running exploratory factor

analysis was checked. All required preliminary tests preceding factor analysis was performed one after the other.

Inspection of the correlation matrix among items of the scale indicated that most of the inter-item correlation coefficients were 0.3 or above, which assured factorability of the data set. The analysis of measure of sampling adequacy and partial correlations showed that the value of Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin (KMO/MSA) was 0.879. This exceeded the commonly recommended minimum threshold of 0.6 and fell within the range of 0.8–0.9, confirming suitability of the data for factor analysis. To assess the intercorrelation among the variables, Bartlett's test of sphericity was conducted and yielded a value of 0.91, indicating a highly significant relationship ($p < .000$). Echoing the original three-dimensional structure of the scale (communication, trust, and alienation), the pilot data principal components analysis also revealed the presence of three components with an eigenvalue exceeding 1. However, because of their inadequate loading or cross-loading on multiple dimensions, items #1, #2, #3, #12, and #22 on the trust dimension and items #5 and #7 on the communication dimension were removed from the scale. Following the removal of these items, the scale items clearly loaded on the three respective dimensions of the scale (See Annex G for the details). Table 4 below shows the total variance explained in terms of the three dimensions of the adolescent-father attachment.

Table 4

Total Variance Explained for the Adolescent-Father Attachment Scale

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.425	38.442	38.442	7.425	38.442	38.442	5.416	29.449	29.449
2	3.368	17.631	56.073	3.368	17.631	56.073	4.624	25.563	55.012
3	2.821	15.576	71.649	2.821	15.576	71.649	3.573	16.637	71.649

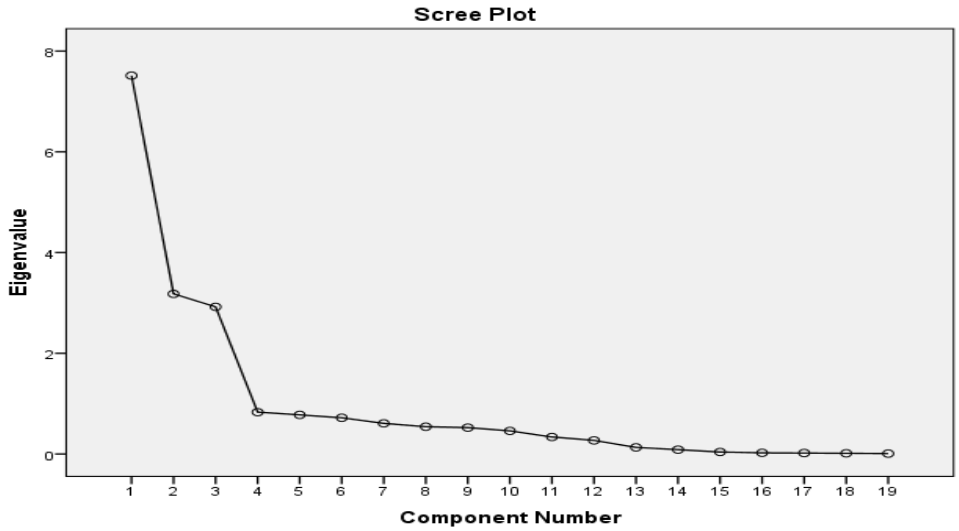
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

As can be observed in Table 4 above, the respective components contribution to the total variance in adolescent father attachment varies from one to the other. Component 1 (Communication dimension) contributed 38.442% to the scale, followed by Component 2 (Trust) which contributed 17.631%, and Component 3 (Alienation) which contributed 15.576% to the scale. Together, the three components explained 71.649% of the total variance in adolescent father attachment and hence was accepted for use in the present study context.

Moreover, the scree plot below (Figure 4) indicated the presence of three factors structure by the elbow at three.

Figure 3

The Scree Plot of the Components of the Adolescent father Attachment scale



Cronbach's alpha was used to calculate the reliability coefficients for the three dimensions (Communication, Trust & Alienation) adolescent father attachment scale after poor items were removed from the scale. The outcome of this computation is shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Internal consistency of Adolescent father Attachment scale after factor analysis

Type of instrument	**N^{o} Items**	**Cronbach's Alpha**
Adolescent father Attachment scale	18	.89
Trust	5	.90
Communication	7	.92
Alienation	6	.81

The Cronbach’s alpha coefficients, as indicated in Table 5 above, showed strong (r=0.81-0.92) internal consistency among the cluster of items purported to measure respective

dimensions of the construct (adolescent father attachment), suggesting that all subscales are suitable for measuring the intended dimensions of adolescent–father attachment.

3.5.4.3 Factor Analysis of Adolescent Mother Attachment Scale [25 items]

Exploratory factor analysis was run to check the underlying structure of the Adolescent-Mother Attachment version of the Inventory of Adolescent Parent Attachment (IPPA). Before performing the factor analysis, the factorability of the data collected for pilot study was assessed by using KMO test, inter-items correlations, and Bartlett's test of sphericity. Accordingly, the inspection of the correlation matrix among many items of the scale revealed the presence of many coefficients of 0.30 or above, which satisfied the recommended coefficients of correlation for the data factorability. The Kaiser Meyer-Olkin value was .886, exceeding the recommended value of 0.60 (Revelle, 2016) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was statistical significant, ($p = .000$), supporting the factorability of the correlation matrix.

Having verified factorability of the data set, principal components analysis with varimax rotation was applied. Low and cross loaded items were detected and removed during the analysis. These items were items #1, #2 and #21 from trust dimension and items #6 and #14 from communication dimension of the scale. Following the removal of poorly functioning items, the factor analysis was re-run, and the remaining items of the scale clearly loaded on the three dimensions of the adolescent mother attachment construct (*See Annex H for the details*). Table 6 below shows the total variance explained in terms of the three dimensions of the adolescents' attachment to their mothers.

Table 6

Total Variance Explained for Adolescent mother attachment scale

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.581	40.671	40.671	6.143	40.671	40.671	5.526	32.983	32.983
2	2.543	16.68	57.351	2.29	16.68	57.351	3.773	20.696	53.679
3	1.358	6.472	63.823	1.049	6.472	63.823	1.216	10.144	63.823

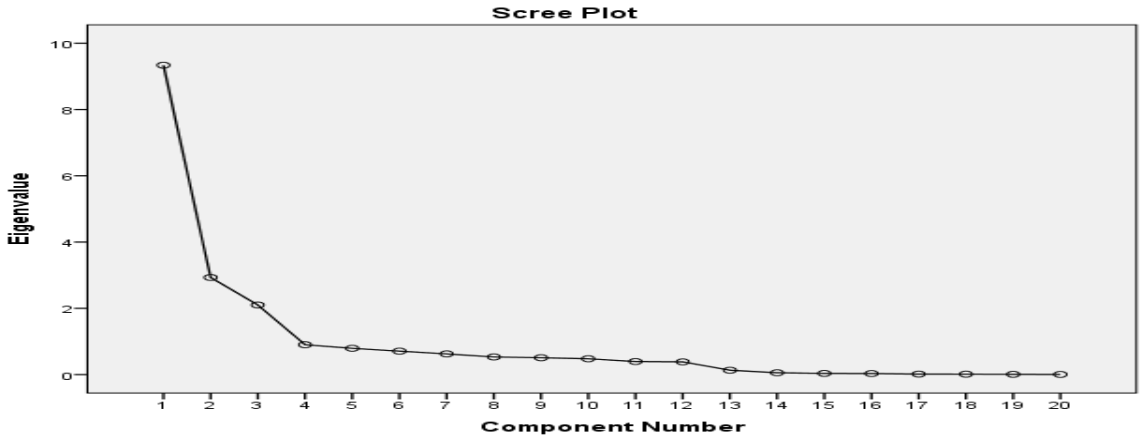
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 6 above shows that each component contributes differently to the overall variance in adolescent mother attachment. Component 1 (the dimension of trust) accounted for 40.671% of the scale's total contribution, with Component 2 (communication) coming in second at 16.68% and Component 3 (alienation) at 6.472%. When taken as a whole, the three components explained 63.823% of the variance in adolescent-mother attachment and was accepted to for use in the current study setting.

Furthermore, the three-factor structure was also verified by an elbow of the scree plot at the third factor as could be observed in Figure 5 below.

Figure 4

The Scree Plot of the Components of the Adolescent mother attachment scale



Going forward, Cronbach's alpha was used to determine the reliability coefficients for the three dimensions (Communication, Trust, and Alienation) of the adolescent mother attachment scale. This was done after discarding the poor items. The outcome of this computation is shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Internal consistency of Adolescent mother attachment after factor analysis

Type of instruments	No items	Cronbach's Alpha
Adolescent mother attachment	20	.91
Alienation	6	.78
Communication	7	.89
Trust	7	.92

As shown in Table 7, the full adolescent–mother attachment scale (20 items, α = 0.91) and the communication (7 items, α = 0.89) and trust (7 items, α = 0.92) subscales demonstrated very good reliability, whereas the alienation subscale (6 items, α = 0.78) showed acceptable but somewhat lower internal consistency. Overall, the pattern of coefficients indicates that the instrument and its main subscales are reliable and suitable for measuring the intended dimensions of adolescent–mother attachment.

3.5.4.4 Factor Analysis results of the Adolescent-Peer Attachment Scale [25 items]

To examine the underlying structure of Adolescent Peer Attachment, exploratory factor analysis was performed. Prior to conducting the factor analysis, the KMO test, inter-item correlations, and Bartlett's test of sphericity were used to evaluate the factorability of the data gathered for the pilot study. The inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the presence of many inter-item correlation coefficients of 0.30 or above, meeting the recommended threshold for coefficient relationships between the scale's items. The Kaiser Meyer-Olkin test value was 0.86, exceeding the recommended value of 0.60 (Revelle, 2016) and Bartlett's test of sphericity (0.86) was statistically significant (p = .000), supporting the factorability of the data set.

Going forward with the analysis, the principal components analysis with varimax rotation revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1. Whereas the loading distribution of the items showed some poorly functioning items of the scale, two items (#9 and #18) from alienation dimension of the scale and one item (#8) from trust dimension, were found to load low on the scale and/or cross-loaded on at least two components of the construct. To assure interpretability, increase reliability, and lessen misleading results, these incompetent items were eliminated. The factor analysis was repeated after the incompetent items were eliminated, and the remaining scale items were found to clearly load on each of the three dimensions

(Communication, Trust, and Alienation) of the adolescent peer attachment construct (*See Annex I for details*). Table 8 below shows the total variance explained in terms of the three dimensions of the adolescent peer attachment.

Table 8

Total Variance Explained for Adolescent Peer Attachment scale

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.579	28.807	28.807	6.579	28.807	28.807	5.751	25.154	25.154
2	4.781	20.927	49.734	4.781	20.927	49.734	5.314	23.310	48.464
3	1.499	8.777	58.511	1.499	8,777	58.511	1.782	10.046	58.511

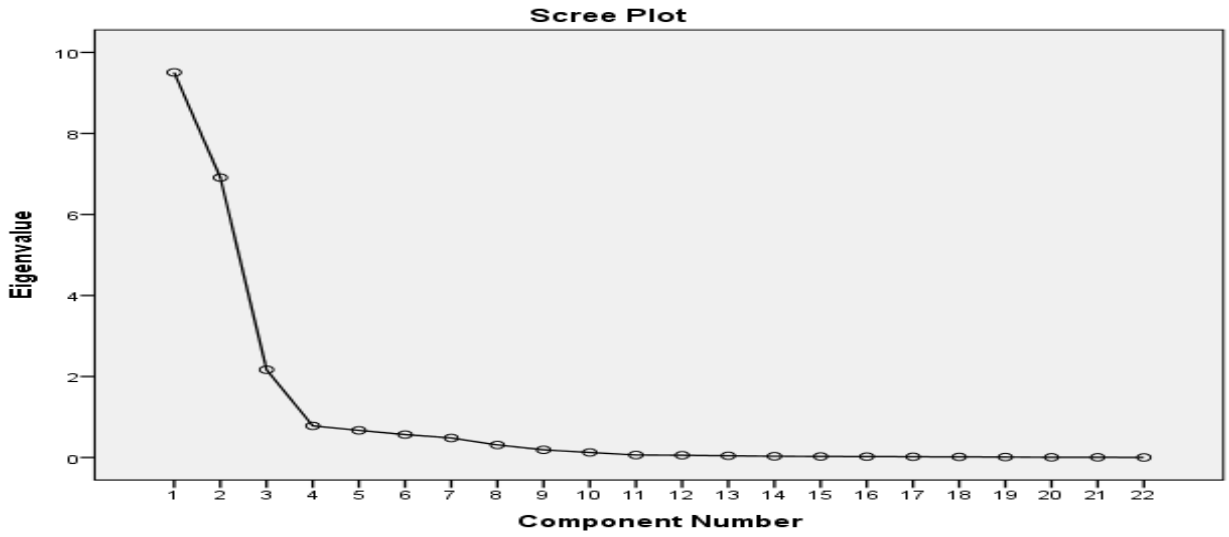
Extraction Method: Principal Components Analysis.

Table 8 above shows that each component contributed differently to the overall variance in adolescent peer attachment. Component 1 (Communication dimension) accounted for 28.8% of the scale's total contribution, with Component 2 (Trust) coming in second at 20.93% and Component 3 (alienation) at 8.77% as the third contributor to the total variance in adolescent peer attachment. In sum, the three components explained 58.51% of the variance in adolescent-peers attachment and are accepted for use in the current study setting.

Moreover, the scree plot was also generated from the factor analysis results to visualize the eigenvalues associated with each factor and confirmed retaining the three factors by an elbow of the scree plot at the third factor as could be observed in Figure 6 below.

Figure 5

The Scree Plot of the Components of the Adolescent peer attachment scale



Next, Cronbach's alpha was computed for the three dimensions of the adolescent peer attachment scale: alienation, trust, and communication. This was carried out after the poor items were taken off the scale. The outcome of this computation is shown in Table 9 below.

Table 9

Internal consistency of Adolescent peer attachment after factor analysis

Type of instruments	No items	**Cronbach's Alpha**
Adolescent peer attachment	22	.92
Alienation	5	.74
Communication	8	.91
Trust	9	.90

As shown in Table 8, the full adolescent–peer attachment scale (22 items, α = 0.92) and the communication (8 items, α = 0.91) and trust (9 items, α = 0.90) subscales demonstrated very good reliability, whereas the alienation subscale (5 items, α=0.74) showed acceptable but

somewhat lower internal consistency. Overall, the results indicate that the instrument and its main subscales are reliable and appropriate for measuring the intended dimensions of adolescent–peer attachment.

3.6. Reflections and Lessons Learned from the Pilot Study

The pilot study provided valuable experiences and lessons that contributed to the successful achievement of the study objectives. This section summarizes the key lessons and experiences gained from the pilot study.

Feasibility of the intended Purpose and Research Questions: The pilot study data were analyzed to evaluate all research questions using statistical methods such as Pearson's correlation coefficient, MANOVA, ANOVA, and regression. Prior to applying these tools, pertinent statistical assumptions including multicollinearity, linearity and homogeneity of variance were tested using the pilot data and were found to be tenable. All proposed research questions were assessed using the pilot data and deemed viable. For instance, family structure was found to moderate the relationship between adolescents' attachment to mothers and their psychological well-being. Furthermore, statistically significant relationships were found among the dimensions of predictors and outcome variables of the study. Thus, all the proposed study variables were retained for the final data collection and analysis. Accordingly, the main study thoroughly examined the research questions using newly collected data to address intended objectives.

Scope of the study and operationalization of variables: In this study, adolescents pursuing their education both in government and private high schools found in Jimma town were proposed as data sources. In this regard, the pilot study revealed that using school adolescents (aged 14–20) as data sources was feasible, and the study location was also found to be appropriate. Hence, no alteration to the data sources and location of the study were made for the

main study. But the adolescents in the pilot study sample were not included in the main study. Moreover, the operational definitions proposed for key study variables were confirmed viable during the pilot study. Hence, no revisions were made to these definitions, and all operational definitions were retained for the final study.

Study Population and Sampling Technique: One of the purposes of conducting the pilot study was to examine whether the proposed population for the study were appropriate for answering the research questions. In this regard, the pilot study results demonstrated that this group is certainly suitable for accomplishing the study's aims. Consequently, the researcher decided to make no changes to the selected population for the main study's data collection. Furthermore, the pilot study provided critical insights into the sampling method used during data collection, which informed the approach for the final study's data gathering process. Choosing participants for the pilot study was not free of difficulties. For instance, translating theoretical sampling plans into practical implementation was found to be challenging. Going forward, assembling participants chosen on paper in a single location to administer questionnaires was also a challenging task. With crucial assistance from the sample school administrative offices, these challenges were mitigated, and the sampling techniques were implemented as planned to the greatest extent possible. This highlighted the importance of utilizing the support of the school administration in the main study particularly in identifying study participants and administering the survey questionnaire.

Additionally, the study participants and data collection supporting teachers' demand for incentive in exchange for their participation in filling the questionnaire or supporting the data collection was another notable challenge encountered during the pilot study. This issue was addressed by informing participants and data collection supporters that the study was conducted

solely for academic purposes, not a business project. Insight gained during the pilot phase allowed the researcher to thoroughly inform participants and relevant school administrators about the study's objectives, stressing its academic intent.

Instruments of Data Collection and its Administration Procedure: The tools of data collection were subjected to different validation measures including checking the face and content validity, testing internal consistency, and analysis of the factor structures. The experts' professional feedback was valuable in improving the quality and feasibility of some of the items of the tools. The internal consistency test and factor analysis confirmed viability of the study tools, discarding some cross-loaded and low loaded items. Moreover, selected scale items were reworded to improve socio-cultural appropriateness and ensure clarity for participants. Consequently, all instruments were retained for the main study, except for a small number of items that were excluded because they were found to be unsuitable during the adaptation process.

Furthermore, the data collection procedure during the pilot study began with an introduction to the study's objectives, followed by verbal instructions on survey completion. The researcher and assistants read each questionnaire aloud and provided clarifications as participants responded, which helped to avoid potential confusion and ensured collection of relevant data. The same procedure was applied for the main study data collection due to its demonstrated practicality and good results in obtaining relevant data.

3.7. Data Collection Procedures

The data gathering procedure was initiated by obtaining a letter of support from the School of Psychology, Addis Ababa University, asking for collaborative response from any institution the researcher approaches for data collection. This letter was then presented to the principals of the selected sample schools, including Mole, Jimma, Jiren, Tesfa Tewahido, and SOS Academy

secondary and senior secondary schools. Furthermore, the researcher provided a clear and detailed explanation of the study's purpose and objectives. Following this, the principals consulted with their respective school administrative teams and demonstrated their interest and commitment to assist the researcher in facilitating the planned data collection process. Subsequently, the researcher collected data on the count of students enrolled in grades 9–12 across all five sample schools, categorized by sex, as well as the number of classes per grade level. First, classes were proportionally selected from grades 9–12 in each school based on student numbers through simple random sampling. Following this, student lists from the sampled classes were obtained from school administrative offices, and participants were systematically selected at random, with gender-specific lists maintained to guarantee equitable sex representation.

At the request of the researcher and data collection assistants, the school administration organized students from various grade levels to participate in the study, grouping them in a single classroom to streamline the data collection process. Once all selected participants were gathered in convenient classrooms, the researcher and two assistant data collectors introduced themselves to them. The researcher then explained the study's purpose to the participants. Following their consent to participate, a suitable time for completing the survey questionnaire was determined in collaboration with the students. Each item was read aloud to participants to prevent misunderstandings and ensure accurate data collection. The entire data collection process, including administration, was closely supervised by the researcher to minimize disruptions.

3.8. Data Analysis

Once the data needed for this study were collected, all scale items were coded into SPSS version 24. Negatively phrased items on the scale were reverse-coded. The data were then entered into the specified SPSS version for analysis. Once the data entry was complete, the researcher checked for missing values, errors, or duplicate entries, cleaned the dataset, and made it ready for analysis.

Prior to analyzing the study data, key assumptions for parametric statistics including normality, homogeneity of variance, linearity of relationships among the study variables, and absence of multicollinearity were assessed. Normality of the data was examined by using 5% trimmed mean, kurtosis, skweness and Kolmogorov Smirnove tests. Linearity was tested by examining the scatter plot and significance correlation indices among the predictor and outcome variables of the study. Levene's test was employed to test homogeneity of variance, and multicollinearity was analyzed by reviewing Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) values.

To ensure the validity of the data collection instruments, multiple validation procedures were employed. The instruments were evaluated for both face and content validity. In addition, the internal consistency of the tools was examined using Cronbach's alpha, while factor analysis was conducted to determine the replicability of the scales' factor structures.

Descriptive statistics were used to summarize the study data and served as an input for other subsequent methods of data analysis. The levels of adolescents' attachment to their parents and peers, as well as their levels of psychological well-being were analyzed by using one sample t-test. A two-way ANOVA was used to test whether adolescents' psychological well-being differs as a function of their family structure and sex. The correlation between adolescents' quality of attachment to parents and peers (in terms of communication, trust and alienation) and their

psychological well-being (in terms of self-acceptance, positive relation with others, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life and personal growth) was examined using Pearson's correlation coefficient. Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was employed to examine potential variance in adolescents' attachment to their mothers, fathers and peers due to sex and family structure. Multiple regression analysis, using the PROCESS macro model number 1, was used to examine both the direct and moderating effects of family structure, on the relationship between adolescent parent and peer, and their psychological well-being. An alpha (α) value of 0.05 was used for all tests of statistical significance run in this study.

3.9. Ethical considerations

The study first obtained approval from the Ethical Committee of the School of Psychology (reference: SoP-Eth-Co/23/2023), ensuring full compliance with ethical standards throughout the research process. As the participants included were minors under the age of 18, their consent was preserved, and additional consent was obtained from school administrators acting in loco parentis, confirming that the study posed no harm to the adolescents.

Throughout this study, all necessary steps and research ethical protocols were duly considered. Initially, the letter of support for data collection obtained from the School of Psychology, Addis Ababa University, was presented to principals of sample schools and granted approval to proceed. Ethical considerations, including obtaining informed consent from participants, ensuring confidentiality and anonymity of personal data, guaranteeing voluntary participation, and maintaining respect for all individuals involved in the study, were thoughtfully upheld.

On all data collection sessions, prior to administering the survey questionnaire, the researcher briefed participants on the purpose and procedure of the study. Meanwhile, all participants were asked for their consent to participate in the study. Fortunately, all identified participants agreed to take part in the study. Additionally, participants were informed that their

participation in the data collection process was voluntary and that they had the right to revoke their consent at any time. Furthermore, participants were explicitly informed that their input into the study would remain confidential and anonymous, and they were also instructed not to write their names in any part of the questionnaire. Most importantly, participants were assured that the data collected from them would be used solely for the purposes of this study and would not be shared with third parties. During all data collection sessions, participants were treated with respect, greeted warmly, and verbally appreciated for their time and effort in completing the questionnaire.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

In this chapter, the analysis and interpretation of the data collected using the study's data collection instruments are presented. The first section is dedicated to preliminary analyses, which include providing details about the demographic characteristics of the study participants, verifying the assumptions required for inferential statistics, and offering a descriptive overview of the study variables. In the subsequent sections of the chapter, the study's key findings are presented, with particular emphasis on addressing each of the research questions.

4.1. Data screening and testing parametric test assumptions

Prior to analyzing the data collected from the study participants, preliminary data screening was performed to check whether the data entry was completed accurately, and whether there are outliers. The frequency distribution analysis revealed no missing values in the data, indicating accurate entry of the data. Subsequently, the data were screened for outliers, confirming no extreme responses across all dimensions of the study variables. Thus, all responses, excluding those with incomplete entries, duplicates, or unanswered items, were retained for analysis. Moreover, the data collected were tested to examine whether they meet the assumptions of normality, linearity, homogeneity of variance and multi-collinearity.

The normality of the study dataset was assessed using statistical methods, including the 5% trimmed mean, kurtosis, and skewness, following Pallant’s (2020) recommendations for evaluating data normality. Closeness of the 5% trimmed mean and observed mean has been used to ascertain normality of the data. The Kurtosis and Skewness values were checked against Hair

et al.'s (2022) assumptions of respective values falling between the ranges of -1 and +1 sufficiently meets the normality of data. The table below summarizes the results of the current study dataset normality assessment.

Table 10

Assessment of Normality of the Data

Variable	No of items	Min	Maxi	Mean	SD	5% Trimmed mean	Skewness	Kurtosis
PW	29	29	174	98.06	24.03	97.90	.048	-.363
AAM	20	20	100	62.06	16.20	62.16	.143	-.505
AAF	18	18	90	51.62	15.09	52.09	-.487	-.136
AAP	22	22	110	59.66	17.79	59.31	.278	-.486

PW=Psychological Well-being; AAM= Adolescent Attachment to Mother; AAF=Adolescent Attachment to Father; AAP= Adolescent Attachment to Peer

As shown in Table 10, the 5% trimmed mean and the observed mean for adolescents' psychological well-being, attachment to mother, attachment to father, and attachment to peers were very close in numerical value. The differences between the means were minimal, ranging from 0.1 for adolescent attachment to mother to 0.47 for adolescent attachment to father. Furthermore, consistent with Hair et al.'s (2022) guideline of an acceptable range from -1 to +1, the table above reveals that the skewness and kurtosis values for each variable lie within the recommended limits. This confirms that the study data meets the normality assumption, thereby supporting the use of the proposed parametric tests for data analysis.

In addition to the 5% trimmed mean and skewness and kurtosis tests, a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was conducted to determine the statistical significance of the difference between the observed data and a theoretical normal distribution. For this test, the significance value of

$p>0.05$ confirms normality of the data and $p<0.05$ indicates non-normality of the data. In this regard, for the current data, Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests of normality was found to be non-significant for adolescents' psychological well-being (KS = 0.035, p= 0.33), attachment to mother (KS = 0.044, p=0.09), attachment to father (KS = 0.039, p=0.21) and attachment to peer (KS = 0.042, p=0.16), thereby confirming that the normality assumption is met for these variables.

The linearity assumption for the study data was tested by using scatter plot, multi-collinearity indices checking and the statistical significance assessment of the correlation coefficients among the predictor variables (adolescents' attachment to their mothers, fathers and peers) and the outcome variable (i.e., adolescents' psychological well-being). The scatter plots showed linear relationships between the predictor and outcome variable(s). Furthermore, the absence of multicollinearity among all the predictor variables was confirmed, with variance inflation factor-VIF<5 and close to 1.

Moreover, the homogeneity of variance assumption across different groups of the study participants was examined using Levene's test. In this regard, the Levene's test results were found to be non-significant (i.e. $p> 0.05$) for adolescent sex (male, female) and family type (intact, non-intact) across the study scales (adolescent psychological well-being, attachment to mother, attachment to father and attachment to peer). This confirms that the assumption of equal variances is tenable for the scales and subscales used in the study.

4.2. Demographic information of the study participants

This section presents an overview of the study participants' backgrounds, including their age, sex, grade level, school type, and family structure. In particular, the descriptive measures of the participants' background characteristics are summarized in Table 11 below.

Table 11

Demographic background of the study participants

Variables of the study	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Sex	Female	292	54
	Male	249	46
Total		541	100
Grade level	9	191	35.3
	10	138	25.5
	11	131	24.2
	12	81	15.0
Total		541	100
Family structure	Intact	356	65.8
	Non intact	185	34.2
Total		541	100
School type	Government	325	60.1
	Private	216	39.9
Total		541	100.0
Age	Range: 14-20		$\bar{X}$=17 (SD =1.396)

As shown in Table 11, female adolescents account for more than half (54%) of the study participants. In terms of grade level, adolescents in their secondary school grades (9-12) were targeted to solicit the data used for the study. As indicated in Table 11, there is a decreasing proportion of participants as grade level progresses from 9 to 12, largely due to the decreasing number of students in each successive grade. Regarding family structure, a significant majority of the participants (356 individuals, 65.8%) reported coming from intact families, while slightly more than one-third (34.2%) of them identified their family structure as non-intact, which includes those living with stepparents, single parents, relatives, or others. In terms of age, participants ranged from 14 to 20 years, with a mean age of 17. Regarding school type, the sample included 325 adolescents (60.1%) from government schools and 216 adolescents (39.9%) from private schools, totaling to 541 adolescents.

4.3. Adolescents' Level of Psychological Well-being

One of the major interest in this research is to learn about adolescents' level of psychological well-being. For this purpose, one- sample t-test was employed. Thus, adolescents who scored lower and higher than the expected mean score (otherwise called test value in statistics) are believed to possess a subordinate and privileged amount of the indices of the variables of interest, respectively. That means a high score above the expected mean on the psychological well-being scale suggests higher/better psychological well-being whereas scoring below the expected mean implies poor/weak psychological well-being. In doing so, the researcher set the reference following the rating scale presented to participants. Participants were asked to rate their perceived level of psychological well-being along a six-point Likert-type scale. Given the lack of established population mean for Ryff's psychological well-being scale and absence of benchmarks from previous research in Ethiopian context, scholars' recommendation (Field, 2018; Green and Salkind, 2017; Harpe, 2015) for the use of theoretical mid-point as a test value was considered. Accordingly, a benchmark of 3.5 was applied to the scale, establishing a total test value of 101.5 (3.5 × 29 items). This approach was also used to determine subscale benchmarks: 17.5 each for Personal Growth, Purpose in Life, and Self-Acceptance (3.5 × 5 items); 14 each for Autonomy and Environmental Mastery (3.5 × 4 items); and 21 for Positive Relations with Others (3.5 × 6 items). These findings are detailed in Table 12.

Table 12

Adolescents' Level of Psychological Well-being

Variables	# of items	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Test- value	t	Df	p
PWB	29	29	174	98.06	24.03	101.5	-3.33	540	.001
PG	5	5	30	15.34	5.67	17.5	-8.95	540	.000
PiL	5	5	30	16.06	7.34	17.5	-4.52	540	.000
SA	5	5	30	18.91	8.04	17.5	4.07	540	.000
AuT	4	4	24	12.72	6.01	14	-4.93	540	.000
EM	4	4	24	13.13	4.40	14	-4.58	540	.000
PrO	6	6	36	21.89	6.69	21	2.14	540	.033

PWB= Psychological well-being; PG=Personal Growth; PiL=Purpose in Life; SA=Self-Acceptance; AuT=Autonomy; EM=Environmental Mastery; PrO=Positive relations with others; SD=Standard Deviation, Df=Degree of Freedom

Overall, as shown in Table 12 above, statistically significant mean difference was found between the expected adolescents' level of psychological well-being (Mean=101.5) and the reported perceived level (Mean=98.08), with ($t(540) = -3.33$, $p < .001$). On average, the result indicates that the current study adolescents' psychological well-being is lower than the test value. However, in two of the six dimensions, namely, self-acceptance and positive relations with others, the study participants were found to possess better psychological wellness than the test value with statistically significant mean differences, with ($t(540) = 4.07$, $p < .001$) and ($t(540) = 2.14$, $p < .033$), respectively.

4.4. Adolescents' Level of Attachment to their Fathers

Adolescents' attachment to their fathers was assessed in terms of the qualities of relationship they have developed with their fathers' overtime. The level of trust, essence of communication and the degree of alienation were used to examine adolescents' level of attachment to their fathers. The test value(tv) was set at the midpoint, following scholars' recommendations for instruments lacking established cut-off points or benchmarks in the study context (Field, 2018; Green & Salkind, 2017; Harpe, 2015). Given that the IPPA uses a 5-point Likert scale to assess attachment levels, a midpoint of 3 was applied, yielding test value of 54 for total scores (3 × 18 items), 15 for Trust (3 × 5 items), 21 for Communication (3 × 7 items), and 18 for Alienation (3 × 6 items). The results are summarized in table 13 below.

Table 13

Adolescents' Level of Attachment to their Fathers

Variables	# of items	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Test- value	t	Df	Sig
AAF	18	18	90	51.62	15.09	54	-3.67	540	.000
Trust	5	5	25	15.97	6.59	15	3.42	540	.001
Communication	7	7	35	21.03	8.92	21	.082	540	.935
Alienation	6	6	30	14.61	5.78	18	-13.62	540	.000

Based on the data obtained from the study participants, the analysis of adolescents attachment to their fathers, as presented in Table 13, yielded significant mean differences between the expected level of attachment (Mean=54) and the reported level, with ($t(540) = -3.67$, $p < .000$), which indicates that the level of adolescents' attachment to their fathers is less than the test value, which represents the assumed level of their relationships. While the overall attachment of adolescents to their fathers (considering trust, communication, and alienation) was

lower than expected, a notable exception was observed in terms of trust alone. Specifically, adolescents reported significantly higher levels of trust than anticipated, as evidenced by the statistical results ($t(540) = 3.42$, $p < .001$). No statistically measurable significant difference from the benchmark was observed on communication subscale ($t(540) = .082$, $p < .935$), suggesting that adolescents' level of communication with their fathers is moderate confirmed with the observed value falling near to the theoretical midpoint of the scale. Thus, the adolescents' level of communication with their fathers is neither lower nor higher than the benchmark.

4.5. Adolescents' Level of Attachment to their Mothers

Adolescents' attachment to mothers is one of the pillar variables of interest in this study which the researcher examined its correlation with other variables of study. In this section, the study participant adolescents' level of attachment to their mothers in terms of trust, communication and alienation dimensions was analyzed. The same procedure followed while analyzing adolescents' level of attachment to their fathers in establishing test values for overall scale and subscales. Accordingly, test value of 60 for total scores (20 items x 3), 21 each for trust and communication subscales (7 items each x 3) and 18 for alienation subscale (6 items x 3) was obtained used for analysis as presented in table 13 below.

Table 14

Adolescents' Level of Attachment to their Mothers

Variable	# of items	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Test- value	t	Df	Sig
AAM	20	20	100	62.06	16.20	60	2.956	540	.003
Trust	7	7	35	22.62	9.21	21	4.093	540	.000
Communication	7	7	35	22.88	7.45	21	5.869	540	.000
Alienation	6	6	36	14.69	5.42	18	-14.193	540	.000

The data analysis, as shown in Table 14, revealed statistically significant mean differences between the expected (Mean=60) and actual (Mean=62.06) levels of adolescents' attachment to their mothers, with ($t(540) = 2.956$, $p < .003$). It underscores that adolescents in this study have higher levels of attachment to their mothers than the assumed threshold for positive attachment. Furthermore, this result was confirmed in all the three dimensions (trust, communication and alienation) assessed; with adolescents reporting higher levels of trust and communication, and lower level of alienating attachment than assumed.

4.6. Adolescents' Level of Attachment to their Peers

The scholars in the field of psychology concur that peers play a pivotal role in influencing adolescents' psycho-social development, with the effect varying according to the strength of mutual attachment. To test this notion, the present study examined the degree to which adolescents form attachments with their peers by employing the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA). Accordingly, adolescents' attachment to peers was assessed by the dimensions of IPPA including the quality of communication, trust and the degree to which they experience alienation from each other in their social interactions. To examine adolescents' level

of attachment to their peers, the same procedure used for testing adolescents' level of attachment to their fathers and mothers was applied. Accordingly, test value of 66 for total scores (22 items x 3), 27 for trust subscale (9 items x 3), 24 for communication subscale (8 items each x 3) and 15 for alienation subscale (5 items x 3) was obtained and used for analysis as presented in table 13 below.

Table 15

Adolescents' Level of Attachment to their Peers

Variable	# of items	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Test- value	t	Df	p
AAP	22	22	110	59.66	17.79	66	-8.289	540	.000
Trust	9	9	45	24.17	10.01	27	-6.580	540	.000
Communication	8	8	40	23.08	11.73	24	-1.822	540	.069
Alienation	5	5	25	14.69	5.42	18	-14.193	540	.000

AAP=Adolescents attachment to peer

As shown in Table 15 above, there is an overall statistically significant difference between the reported (Mean=59.66) and assumed (Mean=66) level of adolescents' attachment to their peers, with ($t(540) = -8.289$, $p < .000$). This result signals weaker social bond among adolescents than expected. Furthermore, the result clearly indicates measurably suboptimal level of trust in adolescents' attachment to their peers, highlighting inadequate adolescents' reliance on their friends for socio-emotional support and responsiveness to their needs and feelings. In terms of communication, though not significantly low, the result still shows lower mean value than the theoretically expected level of adolescents' communication with their peers. Despite adolescents exhibiting significantly low trust in their peers and communication levels that were below average but not statistically significant, the alienation dimension revealed notably lower-

than-expected scores. This confirms minimal isolation, anger, or emotional detachment in their peer relationships.

4.7. Adolescents' psychological well-being, attachment to parents (mothers, fathers), and peers by sex

Adolescents' psychological well-being as well as their attachment patterns between male and female adolescents across the three attachment domains (i.e., attachment to their mothers, attachment to their fathers, and attachment to their peers) were analyzed by using descriptive statistics. Table 16 below provides a summary of the mean, standard deviation, and number of respondents categorized by the sex of the adolescents.

Table 16

Descriptive Statistics of Adolescent mother attachment, adolescent father attachment, adolescent peer attachment and psychological well-being by Sex

Sex		PWB	AAM	AAF	AAP
Female	Mean	101.81	61.52	52.64	60.07
	N	292	292	292	292
	Std. Deviation	23.53	16.39	14.43	18.40
Male	Mean	93.66	62.69	50.49	59.18
	N	249	249	249	249
	Std. Deviation	23.89	15.99	15.81	17.06
Total	Mean	98.06	62.06	51.65	59.66
	N	541	541	541	541
	Std. Deviation	24.02	16.20	15.10	17.79

PWB: Psychological well-being; AAM=Adolescent Attachment to Mothers; AAF= Adolescent Attachment to Fathers; AAP= Adolescent Attachment to Peer

The data analysis result presented in table 16 indicates that female adolescents' psychological well-being ($\bar{x}$=101.81, SD = 23.54) was found to be higher than that of their male

counter parts ($\bar{x}$=93.66; SD = 23.89). Regarding adolescents' attachment to their mothers (AAM), females have an average score of 61.52 (SD = 16.39), while males have an average score of 62.69 (SD = 15.99), with no such discernible differences between both sexes. In terms of adolescents' attachment to their fathers (AAF), females score an average of 52.64 (SD = 14.43), while males have a slightly lower mean of 50.49 (SD = 15.81). Lastly, in terms of adolescents' attachment to their peers (AAP), females recorded an average score of 60.07 (SD = 18.41), while males had an average score of 59.18 (SD = 17.06), indicating only minor differences between the two sexes. Overall, the data show a relatively consistent pattern with female adolescents' generally scoring higher than males in their state of psychological well-being and attachment to their peers and fathers, while males tended to score marginally higher in their attachment to their mothers.

4.8. Adolescents' psychological well-being, attachment to parents (mothers, fathers), and peers by their family structure

The descriptive statistics on adolescents' psychological wellbeing, attachment to mothers, fathers and peers for adolescents from intact and non-intact families are shown in Table 17 below.

Table 17

Adolescents' psychological well-being, attachment to mother, attachment to father, and attachment to peers by their family structure

Family structure		PWB	AMA	AFA	APA
Intact	Mean	100.47	62.61	54.93	60.11
	N	356	356	356	356
	Std. Deviation	21.83	15.67	12.78	17.63
Non-Intact	Mean	93.41	61.00	45.34	58.79
	N	185	185	185	185

	Std. Deviation	27.22	17.17	17.14	18.10
Total	Mean	98.06	62.06	51.65	59.66
	N	541	541	541	541
	Std. Deviation	24.02	16.20	15.10	17.79

PWB=Psychological Well-being; AMA=Adolescent-Mother Attachment; AFA=Adolescent-Father Attachment; APA=Adolescent-Peer Attachment

As shown in Table 17 above, adolescents from intact families have an average psychological well-being score of 100.47 (SD = 21.84), while those from non-intact families have a lower average score of 93.41 (SD = 27.23). In terms of Adolescent-Mother Attachment (AMA), adolescents from intact families scored a mean of 62.61 (SD = 15.67), slightly higher than those from non-intact families, who have a mean of 61.00 (SD = 17.18). For Adolescent-Father Attachment (AFA), the mean for intact family members is 54.93 (SD = 12.78), while non-intact family members score a mean of 45.34 (SD = 17.14). Lastly, for Adolescent-Peer Attachment (APA), individuals from intact families score a mean of 60.11 (SD = 17.63), while those from non-intact families score slightly lower with a mean of 58.79 (SD = 18.11). Overall, individuals from intact families generally show higher scores across all measures (PWB, AMA, AFA and APA) compared to those from non-intact families.

4.9. Adolescent perceived quality of attachment to fathers, mothers, and peers as a function of their sex and family structure

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to examine whether adolescents' perceived levels of attachment to their mothers, fathers, and peers differ or not depending on their sex and family structure. Prior to conducting the MANOVA, key assumptions were verified. Levene's test confirmed homogeneity of variances (p = .352), and no multi-collinearity issues were detected, supporting the appropriateness of the statistical model. Table

18 below shows the results of the multivariate tests regarding the study participants' background characteristics, specifically adolescents' sex and family structure, in relation to their attachment to mothers, fathers, and peers.

Table 18

Multivariate test results for adolescent attachment to their father, mother, and peer as a function of their sex and family structure

Effect		Value	F	df	Error df	p	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.956	3832.598[b]	3.000	535.000	.000	.956
	Wilks' Lambda	.044	3832.598[b]	3.000	535.000	.000	.956
	Hotelling's Trace	21.491	3832.598[b]	3.000	535.000	.000	.956
	Roy's Largest Root	21.491	3832.598[b]	3.000	535.000	.000	.956
Sex	Pillai's Trace	.005	.823[b]	3.000	535.000	.481	.005
	Wilks' Lambda	.995	.823[b]	3.000	535.000	.481	.005
	Hotelling's Trace	.005	.823[b]	3.000	535.000	.481	.005
	Roy's Largest Root	.005	.823[b]	3.000	535.000	.481	.005
Family structure	Pillai's Trace	.091	17.955[b]	3.000	535.000	.000	.091
	Wilks' Lambda	.909	17.955[b]	3.000	535.000	.000	.091
	Hotelling's Trace	.101	17.955[b]	3.000	535.000	.000	.091
	Roy's Largest Root	.101	17.955[b]	3.000	535.000	.000	.091
Sex * Family structure	Pillai's Trace	.002	.363[b]	3.000	535.000	.780	.002
	Wilks' Lambda	.998	.363[b]	3.000	535.000	.780	.002
	Hotelling's Trace	.002	.363[b]	3.000	535.000	.780	.002
	Roy's Largest Root	.002	.363[b]	3.000	535.000	.780	.002

As shown in Table 18, MANOVA yielded that family structure has significant contribution (effect) to the model (Wilks' Lambda=.909, F (3, 538) = 17.95, P <.05). In contrast, sex has no significant contribution (or effect) to the model (Wilks' Lambda=.995, F (3, 538) = .823, P>.05). Moreover, no significant (sex by family structure) interaction effect on the dependent variables was found (Wilks' Lambda=.998, F (3, 538) = .363, P>.05).

Table 19 below presents the follow-up test of between subjects' effects based on the sex (Male, Female) and family structure (Intact, Non-Intact) of adolescents against their attachment to their mothers, fathers and peers

Table 19

Summary of Tests of Between-Subjects Effects for adolescent attachment to their father, mother, and peer as a function of their sex and family structure

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	AAM	538.531[a]	3	179.510	.682	.563	.004
	AAF	11709.865[b]	3	3903.288	18.790	.000	.095
	AAP	309.923[c]	3	103.308	.325	.807	.002
Intercept	AAM	1849351.356	1	1849351.35	7030.92	.000	.929
	AAF	1211653.576	1	1211653.57	5832.61	.000	.916
	AAP	1707581.511	1	1707581.51	5374.74	.000	.909
Sex	AAM	211.097	1	211.097	.803	.371	.001
	AAF	134.940	1	134.940	.650	.421	.001
	AAP	56.537	1	56.537	.178	.673	.000
Family Structure	AAM	353.865	1	353.865	1.345	.247	.002
	AAF	10776.948	1	10776.94	51.87	.000	.088
	AAP	188.807	1	188.807	.594	.441	.001
Sex * Family Structure	AAM	1.378	1	1.378	.005	.942	.000
	AAF	210.543	1	210.543	1.014	.315	.002
	AAP	13.829	1	13.829	.044	.835	.000

As can be observed from Table 19, adolescents' sex has no significant effect on adolescents attachment to their mothers (F (1,540) =.803, P >.05), their fathers (F (1,540) =.650, P >.05), or their peers (F (1,540) =.178, P >.05), suggesting that how adolescents attached to their mothers, fathers and peers do not vary based on their sexes. Family structure also had no significant effect on adolescents' attachment to their mothers (F (1,540) =1.345, P >.05) and their peers (F (1,540) =.594, P >.05), suggesting that how adolescents are attached to their

mothers and peers do not vary based on family structure. However, family structure has had a significant effect on adolescent attachment to their fathers (F (1,540) = 51.878, p <.05), suggesting that how adolescents attached to their fathers, do vary due to family structure. Adolescents from intact families are more attached to their fathers (Mean= 54.93) than adolescents from non-intact families (Mean= 45.34).

4.10. Adolescents' Psychological Well-being as a function of their Sex and Family Structure

The effect of sex and family structure on adolescents' psychological well-being (in terms of autonomy, positive relations with others, self-acceptance, purpose in life, personal growth, and environmental mastery) was tested by applying two-way ANOVA. Table 20 below presents summary of the results.

Table 20

Two-way ANOVA Tests of Between-Subjects Effects result of Adolescents' psychological well-being as a function of their sex and family structure

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	14622.862[a]	3	4874.287	8.809	.000	.047
Intercept	4518824.471	1	4518824.471	8166.351	.000	.938
Sex	5825.925	1	5825.925	10.529	.001	.019
Family	4912.649	1	4912.649	8.878	.003	.016
Sex * Family	682.189	1	682.189	1.233	.267	.002

As shown in Table 20, family structure was found to have a statistically significant effect on adolescents' psychological well-being (F (1, 540) = 8.87, P <.05). This suggests that adolescents from intact families have higher psychological well-being (Mean = 100.47 and SD = 21.83) than those adolescents from non-intact families (Mean = 93.41 and SD = 27.22). The results presented in Table 20 also show statistically significant sex differences in adolescents'

psychological well-being F (1,540) =10.52, P<.05). This indicates that compared to their male counterparts (Mean=93.66 and SD = 23.89), female adolescents (Mean=101.81 and SD = 23.53) have higher psychological well-being. However, no significant interaction effect between sex and family structure was observed in relation to adolescents' psychological well-being (F (1, 540) = 1.233, p > .05).

4.11. Bivariate relationship among Adolescents' Sex, Family Structure, Psychological Well-being, and Attachment to Fathers, Mothers and Peers

Pearson's product-moment correlation was computed to assess the relationships between predictor variables (sex, family structure, and attachment to fathers, mothers, and peers) and the criterion variable (psychological well-being) in terms of autonomy, positive relations with others, self-acceptance, purpose in life, personal growth, and environmental mastery. The results are presented in Table 21 below.

Table 21

Intercorrelations of the Study Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Sex	1					
2. Family structure	.077	1				
3. Psychological well-being	-.169**	-.140**	1			
4. Adolescent mother Attachment	.036	-.047	.177**	1		
5. Adolescent father Attachment	-.071	-.302**	.279**	.330**	1	
6. Adolescent peer Attachment	-.025	-.035	.226**	.298**	.237**	1

*Note. Sex (Female=1, Male=2); Family structure (Intact=1, Non-intact=2) **p<.01*

As shown in Table 21, there is a statistically significant but weak association between psychological well-being and sex ($r = -.169$, $p < .01$). This indicates that female adolescents (coded as 1) are found to be better in their psychological well-being than their male counterparts (coded as 2). Similarly, family structure was found to have a statistically significant but weak negative correlation with psychological well-being ($r = -.140$, $p < .01$). This suggests that adolescents living in intact families (coded as 1) tend to report better psychological well-being than those from non-intact families (coded as 2). Furthermore, psychological well-being (PW) was found to have a significant positive correlation with adolescent attachment to mothers (AAM) ($r = .177$, $p < .01$), adolescent attachment to fathers (AAF) ($r = .279$, $p < .01$), and adolescent attachment to peers (AAP) ($r = .226$, $p < .01$. These correlations suggest that higher psychological well-being is associated with stronger attachment to mothers, fathers, and peers.

Similarly, AAM exhibited significant positive correlations with AAF ($r = .330$, $p < .01$) and AAP ($r = .298$, $p < .01$), indicating that stronger attachment to mothers is related to stronger attachment to both fathers and peers. In other words, adolescents who report higher levels of closeness, trust, and communication with their mothers also tend to report more positive and secure attachment experiences with their fathers and friends.

Finally, AAF was positively correlated with AAP ($r = .237$, $p < .01$), indicating that stronger attachment to fathers is associated with stronger attachment to peers. This further suggests that adolescents who report higher levels of trust, communication, and closeness with their fathers also tend to experience more secure and supportive relationships with their friends. In other words, positive father–adolescent bonding appears to extend into the peer domain, reinforcing the idea that secure family relationships contribute to healthier social connections outside the family.

4.12. The predictive effects of attachment to Fathers, Mothers and Peers on psychological well-being of adolescents

A multiple linear regression analysis was performed to examine how adolescents' attachment to parents and peers influence their psychological well-being. Specifically, the study explored how each sub-dimension (trust, communication, and alienation) of attachment to fathers, mothers, and peers relates to adolescents' psychological well-being. Tables 22 below present a model summary and multiple linear regression results, showing how adolescents' attachments to their mothers, fathers, and peers predict their psychological well-being.

Table 22

Multiple regression analysis: Attachment to mother, attachment to father and attachment to peers as predictors of psychological well-being

Model			B	SE	β	t	p
1	(Constant)		65.263	4.944		13.202	.000
	Mother Attachment	Trust	.296	.137	.113	2.159	.031
		Communication	.699	.167	.217	4.173	.000
		Alienation	-.205	.217	-.046	-.945	.345
	Father Attachment	Trust	.917	.165	.252	5.545	.000
		Communication	.229	.126	.085	1.826	.068
		Alienation	-.325	.192	-.078	-1.692	.091
	Peer Attachment	Trust	.012	.099	.005	.122	.903
		Communication	.336	.089	.164	3.763	.000
		Alienation	.347	.251	.067	1.382	.168

Model Summary: R=.44, R^2=.196; Adjusted R^2=.183, SE=21.720, F(9, 531) =14.43, p=.000.

Dependent variable: Adolescents' Psychological well-being

The regression model summary presented in Table 22 above indicate that the predictor variables (adolescents' attachment to mother, father and peer) significantly predicted and contributed to the variance in the outcome variable (adolescents' psychological well-being), with

$R^2 = .196$, $F(9, 531) = 14.43$, $p < .001$. The adolescents' attachment to the three attachment figures accounted for 19.6% of the total variance in psychological well-being.

Moreover, Table 22 demonstrates that regression analysis identified multiple significant associations between adolescents' attachment dimensions (to parents and peers) and their psychological well-being. Specifically, of the three dimensions (i.e., trust, communication and alienation), the trust dimension in both adolescent-mother attachment (β=.113, p=.031) and adolescent-father attachment (β=.252, p<.001) was a significant predictor of psychological wellbeing. Most importantly, trust in the adolescent-father attachment is a stronger predictor of psychological wellbeing than trust in the adolescent-mother attachment. In addition, the communication dimension in the adolescent-mother attachment (β=.217, p<.001) and adolescent-peer attachment (β=.164, p<.001) was a significant predictor of adolescents' psychological wellbeing. Taken together, both trust and communication emerged as significant predictors of adolescents' psychological wellbeing. In contrast, alienation from father, alienation from mother, alienation from peers, and trust in peers did not emerge as significant predictors, suggesting that these variables did not have meaningful influence on adolescents' psychological well-being.

4.13. The moderating effect of Family Structure on the Relationship between Adolescents Attachment to their Mothers and their Psychological Well-being

To assess how family structure (Intact, Non-intact) and attachment to mother individually and collectively predict adolescents' psychological well-being, a moderated multiple regression analysis (using the PROCESS macro model number 1) was conducted. Both a separate and interaction effect of the predicting variables on the outcome variable was analyzed and presented in Tables 23 and 24 below.

Table 23

Regression Model Summary

R	R^2	MSE	F	Df1	DF2	p
0.2398	0.0575	547.29	10.92	3	537	.000

R=Correlation Coefficient; MSE=Mean squared error; F= F value; DF= Degree of freedom.

As can be seen in Table 24, the predictor variables (adolescents' family structure and attachment to mothers in terms of trust, communication, and alienation) significantly contributed for the variance in adolescents' psychological well-being ($R = 0.2398$, $F(3, 537) = 10.92$, $p < .001$). The model accounted for 5.75% of the variance in psychological well-being ($R^2 = 0.0575$), indicating that while the predictors have a statistically significant effect, the proportion of variance explained is relatively small.

Table 24

Multiple regression analysis of Adolescents' family structure moderation effects on the relationship between adolescents' attachment to mothers and their psychological well-being

Predictors	β	S. E	t-value	p
Constant	115.66	12.04	9.60	.000
AAM	0.1409	.1876	.7512	0.45
Family structure	-24.23	8.16	2.97	.003
AAM * Family structure	-0.2854	.1279	2.23	.026

β=Beta, S. E=Standard Error, AAM=Adolescents Attachment to Mother

As can be seen in Table 24, adolescent attachment to mothers alone was not a statistically significant predictor of adolescents' psychological well-being (β=0.14, P>.05). This indicates that, after controlling for the effects of family structure and the interaction term, attachment to

mother did not independently contribute significantly to variations in adolescents' psychological well-being. In contrast, the moderating variable, family structure, was found to significantly contribute to adolescents' psychological well-being ($\beta = -24.23$, $p < .05$). This indicates that family structure (coded as 1 = intact and 2 = non-intact) has a statistically significant inverse effect such that adolescents from intact families reported higher levels of psychological well-being compared to those from non-intact families. Furthermore, the moderation effect of family structure on the relationship between adolescents' attachment to their mothers and their psychological well-being was statistically significant ($\beta = -0.285$, $p < .05$). This indicates that the association of adolescents' maternal attachment and their psychological well-being was found to be weaker in non-intact families (coded as 2) than in intact families (coded as 1). It highlights that intact family structures promote the role of maternal attachment in adolescents' psychological development.

4.14. The moderating effect of Family Structure on the Relationship between Adolescents Attachment to their Fathers and their Psychological Well-being

The researcher employed a moderated multiple regression analysis (using the PROCESS macro model number 1) to determine whether or not the adolescents' family background (intact, non-intact) moderates the association between the adolescents' attachment to their fathers and their psychological well-being. Tables 26 and 27 below show the results of the independent and interaction effects of the predictor variables (family structure and attachment to fathers) on the outcome variable (adolescents' psychological well-being).

Table 25

Model Summary of Regression Analysis

R	R-square	MSE	F	Df1	DF2	p
.2856	0.0812	553.43	15.82	3	537	.000

R=Correlation Coefficient; MSE=Mean squared error; F= F value; DF= Degree of freedom

As shown in Table 25 above, the predictor variables (family structure and adolescent attachment to father) significantly accounted for the variance in adolescents' psychological well-being ($R = .28$ $F (3, 537) = 15.82$, $P < .001$). The model indicates that the predictors collectively explained 8.12% of the variance in adolescents' psychological well-being ($R2=0.082$).

Table 26

Multiple regression analysis of Adolescents' family structure moderation effects on the relationship between adolescents' attachment to father and their psychological well-being

Predictors	β	S.E	t-value	p
Constant	77.65	11.83	6.55	.000
AAF	.4755	.2160	2.20	.028
Family structure	1.0147	7.24	-.1402	.088
AAF*Family structure	.1416	.1381	.3010	.7635

β=Beta, S. E=Standard Error, AAF=Adolescents Attachment to Father

As can be seen in Table 26 above, attachment to fathers significantly contributed to adolescents' psychological well-being ($\beta = 0.47$, $p < .05$), indicating that stronger paternal attachment is associated with higher levels of psychological well-being among adolescents. The moderating variable, family structure, did not demonstrate a statistically significant direct effect on adolescents' psychological well-being ($\beta = 1.01$, $p > .05$), suggesting that differences in

family structure alone do not meaningfully explain variations in psychological well-being. Furthermore, the interaction effect between family structure and adolescents' attachment to their fathers was not statistically significant ($\beta = 0.14$, $p > .05$). This indicates that family structure did not moderate the relationship between paternal attachment and psychological well-being, implying that the positive effect of father–adolescent attachment on psychological well-being remains consistent across different family structures.

4.15. The moderating effect of Family Structure on the Relationship between Adolescents Attachment to their Peers and their Psychological Well-being

To examine whether adolescents' family background (intact vs. non-intact) moderates the relationship between their attachment to peers and their psychological well-being, a moderated multiple regression analysis was conducted using the PROCESS macro (Model 1). The results of the independent and interaction effects of the predictor variables (family structure and peer attachment) on adolescents' psychological well-being are presented in Tables 28 and 29 below.

Table 27

Model Summary of Regression Analysis

R	R-sq	MSE	F	Df1	DF2	p
.263	.069	540.48	13.277	3	537	.000

As can be seen in Table 27, the predictor variables (family structure and adolescent attachment to peers) have significantly accounted for the variance in adolescents' psychological well-being ($R = .263$ $F (3, 537) = 13.27$, $p<.000$). This finding indicates that the predictor variables collectively explained 6.9% of the variance in adolescents' psychological well-being ($R2=0.069$). Overall, the results suggest that although the predictors have a statistically significant impact on the psychological well-being of teenagers, a sizable amount of variance is

still unaccounted for. This alerts existence of additional individual, environmental and psychosocial factors beyond the catchment of the current model.

Table 28

Multiple regression analysis of Adolescents' family structure moderation effects on the relationship between adolescents' attachment to peers and their psychological well-being

Predictors	β	S.E	t-value	p
Constant	82.811	10.52	7.86	.000
AAP	.406	.169	2.40	.017
Family Structure	1.964	7.287	.270	.788
AAP*Family structure	.079	.118	.674	.500

β=Beta, S. E=Standard Error, AAP=Adolescents Attachment to Peers

As shown in Table 28, adolescents' attachment to their peers significantly predicted their psychological well-being ($\beta = 0.40$, $p < .05$), which indicates the importance of peers in influencing psychological wellness during adolescence. In contrast, the moderating variable—family structure—did not show a statistically significant contribution to the psychological well-being of adolescents ($\beta = -1.96$, $p > .05$). Likewise, there was no statistically discernible moderating influence of family structure on the association between teenage psychological well-being and peer attachment ($\beta = .079$, $P > .05$).

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, major findings of the present study are discussed against pertinent existing body of literature. The results obtained following the study's research questions were discussed one after the other by comparing and contrasting them with existing research findings.

5.1. Adolescents' Level of Psychological Well-being

One of the fundamental questions of this study was to explore the extent of the psychological well-being of adolescents in the study area. To measure the level of self-perceived psychological well-being of adolescents, as indicated in the methods section, the present study adopted Ryff's psychological well-being measure, with subscales including self-acceptance, personal growth, purpose in life, environment mastery, autonomy and positive relation with others. In line with this, the study revealed that adolescents in the study area, on average, have suboptimal level of psychological well-being as compared to the expected threshold. However, when examining the specific dimensions, participants demonstrated significantly higher scores than the expected cut-off values in two aspects of psychological well-being: self-acceptance and positive relations with others, indicating stronger traits associated with these domains.

Studies that investigated adolescents' psychological well-being in a diverse socio-cultural context did not find a consistent pattern in the level of adolescents' psychological well-being. For example, according to an Indian study by Arjun et al. (2022), 56% of the school adolescents involved in the study reported having low psychological well-being whereas 44% of them reported better psychological wellness. In contrast, another study reported that about 56 percent of Nigerian adolescents had high psychological well-being (Tosin et al., 2022). In another study conducted in Iran, according to Yasmin et al. (2015), 23.2% of teenagers reported a low level of

psychological well-being. Unlike these findings, with limited portions of adolescents' having low or high psychological well-being, adolescents involved in the current study reported sub-optimal level psychological well-being, highlighting the necessity for pertinent bodies provision of psychosocial support to enhance the adolescents' level of psychological well-being.

5.2. Adolescents' Levels Attachment to Father, Mother and Peers

Adolescents' attachment to their fathers, mothers and peers are the major independent variables of the study considered as potential influencers of their psychological well-being. Thus, the level of adolescents' attachment to these three attachment figures was assessed by using Inventory of Adolescents' Parent-Peer Attachment (IPPA), which purported to measure the quality of attachment in terms of communication, trust, and extent of alienation, in order to determine attachment strength.

5.2.1. Adolescent-Father Attachment

This study revealed that the study participants, on average, have an overall suboptimal level of attachment to their fathers (in terms of communication, trust and alienation). This result highlights a notable gap in the quality of adolescent-father attachment which might have negative implications on adolescents' psychological well-being. Aligning with these results, research confirms weaker father-adolescent attachment bonds, underscoring the vital socio-emotional contributions fathers should offer during adolescence (Williams & Kelly, 2005; Peng et al., 2024). Similarly, according to Mosaad Zaki et al. (2024), the majority of adolescents in Egypt reported experiencing low to moderate attachment with their fathers. The observed low level adolescent-father attachment may be related with adolescents' desire for becoming more independent, which often accounts for a reduction in socio-emotional bonds with parents, particularly with fathers. As adolescents become more independent, they may spend less time

with their parents, which can reduce opportunities to build trust and communication, especially with fathers (Ravindran et al., 2020).

Other adolescent-parent attachment research, however, has found strong bonds between adolescents and their fathers that point to the positive role such patterns of relationships play in supporting healthy developmental outcomes. For example, Doyle and Markiewicz (2015) found that strong adolescent-father attachment, nurtured through fathers' supportive and affectionate emotional interactions, positively influenced their mutual closeness and trust building. In the same vein, a study by Stern et al. (2024) reported strong adolescent-father bond, stemming from fathers' sense of relatedness and striving for promoting psychological autonomy of adolescents. The strong father-adolescent ties were found to correlate with high psychological well-being states of adolescents (Dervishi et al., 2023). These highlight that fathers' level of attachment with adolescents play a crucial role in fostering adolescents' positive developmental outcomes.

5.2.2. Adolescent-Mother Attachment

Adolescent-mother attachment, one of the key factors influencing adolescents' developmental paths, emerged as significant in this study, indicating that better socio-emotional connection flourishes among the adolescents and their mothers. In a similar vein, Wang et al. (2023) found that adolescents and their mothers had moderate-to-high attachment levels, highlighting the significance of fostering adolescent-mother socio-emotional ties that improve teenagers' emotional control and general wellbeing. Similarly, the study by Gómez-Ortiz et al. (2023) revealed a preponderance of strong adolescent-mother attachment levels, characterized by lower alienation ratings and greater communication and trust scores. In another study, Mosaad Zaki et al. (2022), more than half of adolescents exhibited stronger attachment to their mothers than fathers, underscoring the beneficial role of maternal bonds in promoting adolescents' psychological well-being. Although attachment theorists, Bowlby and Ainthworth (Bowlby,

1969), positioned mothers as primary attachment figure from birth through 2-3 years of age, the pattern of maternal-child socio-emotional ties gets stronger during adolescence with adolescents reporting strong attachment to their mothers compared to their fathers.

At this critical stage of life, adolescents' strong socio-emotional connection with their mothers appears to foster optimal developmental thriving characterized by integrated psychosocial development. For instance, a robust adolescent-mother attachment was reported to enhance adolescents' self-esteem and academic achievement through cultivating goal directed behavior and confidence in navigating through challenges (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 2015). Strong bond with mother was also found to support adolescents' identity development serving as a safe base to explore their innermost potential (Guan & Fuligni, 2023) and promote prosocial behavior while fostering resilience, autonomy, and smooth peer transitions (Li et al., 2023; Vagos & Carvalhais, 2020). The remarkable adolescent-mother attachment seems to reward adolescents' developmental journey through fostering a conducive socio-emotional connection environment that encourages adaptive psycho-social interactions in their circle of social networks.

The low adolescent-parent attachment broadly appears to negatively affect overall psycho-social and cognitive development of adolescents, with the extent of impact varying based on individual and contextual factors. In line with this, studies reported that weak adolescent-mother attachment contributes to adolescents' emotional dysregulation (Moretti & Peled, 2004), impaired prosocial behavior and peer relations (Vagos et al., 2020), and maladaptive behavioral practices like substance abuse (Troutman et al., 2017). Such negative consequences accompanying low adolescent-mother attachment clearly underscores how much restricted

mothers' socio-emotional connection accounts for impeding adolescents' developmental trajectory.

5.2.3. Adolescent-Peer Attachment

Adolescents tend to form extrafamilial social bonds beyond family ties, with attachment to their approximately age-matched peers standing out as one of the major social-connection outlets offering diverse opportunities for social development. This notion remains the same, the result obtained in this study revealed no significant difference between the level of observed adolescents' attachment to their peers and expected level of social bonds, signaling suboptimal adolescent-peer attachment. Adolescents' inadequate social skills, particularly communication shortcomings, could have led to weak peer socio-emotional connections restricting optimal and meaningful interactions among adolescents (Nickerson et al., 2018; Schoeps et al., 2020). Furthermore, physical interaction limiting nature of adolescents' excessive reliance on digital outlets was also indicated in a study as a factor contributing to the low adolescent-peer attachment. In this regard, Kring's (2018) study showed that adolescents' prioritization of digital interaction over face-to-face intimate interaction promotes weak peer ties undermining profound relational trust during adolescence.

Consistent with the findings in this study, a study by Adamayora et al. (2024) reported a low adolescent-peer attachment where 92.7% of the adolescents rated their social bond with peers as low, attributing the cause to poor peer communication and heightened internalizing problem symptoms like social withdrawal and anxiety. Similarly, a study by Karataş and Bademcioglu (2025) found that low adolescent-peer attachment was associated with internalizing reactions like anxiety in females and externalizing behaviors like poor emotional regulation and violence in males. These findings would imply that weak adolescent-peer attachment appears to

negatively influence the healthy adolescent development paths. Echoing this notion, a study by Adamayora et al. (2024) found a connection between teenagers' social, behavioral, and emotional problems and low peer attachment. Inadequate relationships between adolescents and their peers may affect their ability to smoothly flourish during adolescence, and makes their strive to make meaningful developmental outcomes from such social ties more difficult.

In contrast, adequate peer attachment has consistently been associated with better adolescents' psychosocial adjustments. For instance, strong peer attachment was found to enhance adolescents' psychological well-being, predict their greater life satisfaction and resilience, and in contrast appear to lower risks associated with behavioral problems (Delgado et al., 2022; Putri &Yendi, 2024;). Moreover, adolescents' critical thinking skills, problem-solving, decision-making abilities, social and academic adaptation were positively associated with strong and healthy peer attachment (Lan et al., 2021; Profe et al., 2021). Thus, promoting formation of better peer attachment and facilitation of enabling social environments enable adolescents to fully benefit from the positive developmental outcomes associated with healthy peer connections.

5.3. Adolescents Attachment to Fathers, Mothers and Peers as a function of their Sex and Family Structure

One of the major research questions of this study was to examine both the main and interaction effects of the adolescents' sex and family structure on their attachment to their fathers, mothers and peers. In this regard, the Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) results are discussed.

5.3.1. Sex Differences in Adolescent-Father Attachment

In this study, the analysis of whether adolescents' attachment to fathers vary between female and male adolescents indicated no statistically significant difference. This implies that adolescents' sex differences do not meaningfully account for the differences in their attachment to fathers. Nonetheless, in the Ethiopian context, fathers have historically been inclined to form closer attachment with sons than with daughters, owing to the alignment of socially prescribed gender role between fathers and sons (Tegegne, 2020). For instance, according to Gebresilase et al. (2025) and Isaboke (2022), traditional norms historically positioned fathers closer to sons, emphasizing masculinity inculcation, preparing them for inheritance and public roles, with daughters primarily cared for by mothers. This dictates male adolescents to be more attached to fathers than their female counterparts.

Over time, this pattern appears to have evolved, given the result obtained in the current study indicating both male and female adolescents' perception of equal or nearly similar attachment bonds with fathers. This could be so for different reasons. For instance, according to Allen and Tan (2016), the fathers' comparable emotional support and involvement with daughters and sons fosters similar levels of attachment security, thereby resulting in a minimal or non-significant gender differences among sons and daughters' attachment to their father. Moreover, supporting fathers' comparable attachment to male and female adolescents, Zhou's (2022) study also showed no significant attachment differences between female and male adolescents, highlighting fathers' balanced emotional support and practical engagement with both sexes. The evolvement of socio-cultural norms, modernization influences, and improved fathers' involvement in children's parenting were also among other contributing factors for the non-significant differences between female and male adolescents' attachment to their fathers (Isaboke, 2022; Gebresilase et al., 2025). Taken together, the more fathers equally serve female

and male adolescents, the less or no discernable differences between them in their attachment to their fathers.

Unlike the finding obtained in this study, some studies reported measurable differences between female and male adolescents' attachment to their fathers. Some have reported that female adolescents are more attached to their fathers than their male counterparts, and vice versa. For instance, Buist et al. (2002) study indicated the presence of significant differences between male and female adolescents in their attachment to their fathers, with female adolescents exhibiting greater emotional closeness and communication with fathers than males. The authors suggested that female adolescents appear to engage in more emotionally expressive interactions with their fathers, which accounted for the perceived stronger attachment compared to male adolescents. Moreover, Yin et al. (2021) also found that female adolescents generally exhibited stronger attachment to both parents compared to males, with higher scores observed specifically on the father–child trust subscale. This highlights how females can be more likely to pursue emotional intimacy with their fathers, who might therefore seem to be more sensitive to their daughters' emotional needs.

In contrast, Emmanuelle's (2009) study reported boys scoring higher than girls on father attachment measure, explained by traditional gender-role socialization where fathers are more engaged with their sons through mentoring, role modeling, and shared activities. Similarly, Asgarabad (2025) reported that boys exceeded girls significantly on the father attachment measures of trust and communication. In connection with fathers' involvement with male adolescents, Luijten et al.'s (2021) study also indicated that fathers tend to spend more time with sons than daughters, strongly linking to boys' well-being. Taken together, greater involvement of fathers with adolescent boys is associated with stronger attachment to their fathers.

5.3.2. Sex Differences in Adolescent-Mother Attachment

As primary attachment figures, mothers often play a central and influential role in shaping an overall child development in the desired path. In this study, the finding showed no statistically significant sex difference in adolescent-mother attachment. This implies that both male and female adolescents experience similar levels of socio-emotional bonds to their mothers, suggesting that mothers offer comparable emotional availability, care and support for adolescents regardless of their gender.

Echoing this study's result, Kerns et al. (2015) asserted that maternal attachment established in childhood continue to promote socio-emotional adjustment during adolescence in a similar fashion for female and male adolescents. Consistent with this notion, Wirth and Pinterits (2019) also found no differences in mother–adolescent attachment between female and male adolescents, suggesting that maternal attachment supports socio-emotional development equally for boys and girls. The similar adolescent-mother social bond, regardless of sex differences, highlights that mothers provide consistent care and emotional support for both female and male adolescents.

In contrast, some studies examining gender differences in mother–adolescent attachment have found that boys and girls differ in their attachment levels to mothers. A study indicated that sex differences in attachment to parents may appear at certain stage of development, oftentimes influenced by the need of adolescents and expectation of the parents, with girls' tendency to seek for closeness and the boys' aspiration for autonomy (Kerns et al., 2015). Nevertheless, research has produced mixed results, with evidence suggesting that either girls or boys may exhibit stronger attachment to their mothers.

For example, the study by Buist et al., (2002) reported that adolescent girls exhibited higher levels of attachment to mothers than boys, particularly in terms of communication and

closeness. Girls' tendency to be more emotionally expressive and consistently turning to mothers for support was identified as a factor that strengthens adolescent girls' attachment with their mother. Similarly, other studies indicated that girls experience greater emotional closeness to their mothers and sustain higher maternal attachment over adolescence, while boys exhibit pronounced declines (Buist & Vermande, 2014; Laible et al., 2000).

Studies also indicate that male adolescents exhibit stronger attachment to mothers than their female counterparts. For example, the study by Emmanuele (2009) reported higher maternal attachment scores among male adolescents compared to females, attributing it to the influence of cultural norms in which mothers promote longer sons' dependency on themselves. Likewise, Asgarabad's (2025) study also indicated that boys exhibited stronger maternal attachment than girls, particularly on maternal trust and communication dimensions, with the difference linked to more restrictive parenting practice toward the daughters. Both findings highlighted that the very nature of maternal attachment expressions appear to account for the difference in social bond between male and female adolescents.

5.3.3. Sex Differences in Adolescent-Peer Attachment

Adolescence is a key developmental period marked by the increasing importance of peers in supporting optimal growth and adjustment. This study disclosed no statistically significant difference between female and male adolescents in their attachment to peers. Given the evidence that peers increasingly become an important source of companionship, emotional support, and identity formation during adolescence (Delgado et al., 20202), it appears that peers are equally important for both female and male adolescents. Hence, no measurable sex difference can be found in their attachment to their peers.

Moreover, irrespective of their sex, adolescents long for acceptance, belongingness, and independence from parents, for which peers are the right perceived attachment figure to satisfy these very demands of adolescents (Lan et al., 2021; Putri & Yendi, 2024;). These common demands tend to lessen the level of gender disparities in peer attachment among adolescents. Besides, the evolving societal norm promoting gender equality and mixed gender interactions seem to contribute to lessening the traditional gender distinction in emotional expression and relational patterns in peer groups (Gorrese & Ruggieri, 2012). Taken together, these findings imply that adolescent developmental dynamics and socio-cultural factors appear to support the existence of no significant difference in peer attachment between female and male adolescents.

In contrast, evidence from the literature indicates that peer attachment can differ between female and male adolescents. While there is a dearth of evidence in the body of psychological literature supporting stronger peer attachment among male adolescents, studies consistently demonstrate that adolescent girls report stronger attachment to peers than their male counterparts.

For instance, in a study by Ma (2008), female adolescents reported higher levels of attachment to peers than their male counterparts. The study noted that girls largely seek emotional validation from friends, which in turn increases the strength of their attachment to peers. Consistent with this finding, other studies also reported female adolescents exhibiting stronger attachment to peers than male adolescents, particularly in terms of dimensions including trust, communication and emotional intimacy (Armsden & Greenberg, 1987; Nickerson & Nagle, 2005; Way & Greene, 2006). In the same vein, Gómez-Ortiz et al. (2023) study indicated that female adolescents reported higher peer satisfaction and intimacy than their male counter parts.

These findings highlight that female adolescents, compared to male adolescents, prioritize peer social bonds to foster enhanced psycho-social development

5.3.4. Family Structure and Adolescent-Father Attachment

Adolescents' family structure background, intact versus non-intact, was examined in this study for its association with father attachment. The analysis showed that adolescents' family structure background has a significant effect on their attachment to father, with adolescents from intact family background reporting better attachment to fathers than those from non-intact family backgrounds. Fathers' availability at home, consistent emotional support, and fewer family disruptions were among factors contributing to adolescents' stronger attachment to their fathers in intact families (Doyle et al., 2005; Laumi & Adiyanti, 2012; Stern et al., 2024). Thus, adolescents living in intact families (both with father and mother), appear to establish a stronger social bond with their fathers than those living in non-intact families (single parent or stepfamily).

This finding aligns with Bowlby's theory of attachment, which posits that strong attachment is evidenced by the attachment figures' persistent availability, supportiveness and responsiveness to the attached individual demands (Bowlby, 1969). Consistent with this notion, Adams and Johnson (2013) showed that adolescents from intact families are more benefited from regular paternal engagement, highlighting that the family intactness directly affects the ties between adolescents and their fathers through daily availability and responsiveness. Moreover, growing up in intact family settings provides adolescents with relational stability that promotes trust, open communication, and emotional closeness, thereby strengthening adolescents' attachment to their fathers (Lamb, 2010).

On the other hand, while acknowledging that family structure can still influence more general relational dynamics, some research has found that adolescents' attachment to their fathers does not vary according to family structure. According to Overbeek et al. (2019) and Keizer et al. (2019), for instance, adolescent-father attachment is dependent on the availability of a strong and supportive relationship rather than whether they come from intact or non-intact families. A study by Erkan et al., (2023) reported that adolescents from intact and non-intact families did not significantly differ on the secure dimensions of father attachment. This highlights that adolescents can form stable attachments to their fathers even in non-intact family conditions (e.g. divorced, separated, or reorganized families) as long as the father is emotionally accessible and encouraging.

5.3.5. Family Structure and Adolescent-Mother Attachment

Mother attachment, an essential social bond impacting adolescents' development, was examined in this study to see if it differs based on family structure (intact versus non-intact). The finding obtained in this regard showed no statistically significant difference in adolescent-mother attachment between adolescents from intact and non-intact family backgrounds. This implies that whether the family is intact (two parents) or non-intact (e.g. single parent, divorced or separated), it does not account for the variation in adolescents' attachment to their mothers. Similarly, related studies have reported that adolescents' attachment to mothers did not vary whether they came from intact or no-intact family structures (Kenny & Sarini, 2006; Laumi & Adiyanti, 2012; Sobolewski & Amato, 2007;). Highlighting the stability of maternal attachment across different family arrangements, these studies show that adolescents' attachment to mothers appears to be shaped by the consistency and quality of maternal care, level of parental conflict, emotional availability, and parental responsiveness.

The result of this study did not support the hypothesis that adolescents who live with both parents, and particularly those living with their mother, are more likely to develop a stronger attachment to their mothers compared to adolescents living with a single parent or neither parent (Allen & Tan, 2016; Lamb, 2012; Steinberg, 2014). This appears to indicate that family structure alone is insufficient to explain variations in adolescent-mother attachment, reinforcing the perspective that prioritizes social and contextual elements over structural family arrangements in shaping adolescent attachment to mothers.

Studies revealing stronger maternal social bonds among adolescents from intact families compared to those from non-intact family structures attribute this difference to the greater social advantages associated with living with both parents. For instance, Steinberg (2014), Lamb (2012), and Amato (2000) identified factors such as the quality of parent–child relationships, socioemotional bonds fostered within intact families, and consistent involvement of both parents as key contributors to stronger adolescent–mother attachment among adolescents living in intact family settings. Taken together, these findings imply that adolescents' attachment to their mothers may be strengthened by the social advantages of living in an intact family, but this effect also depends on wider relationships and contextual factors.

5.3.6. Family Structure and Adolescent-Peer Attachment

In this study, adolescents' attachment to peers was examined in relation to family structure in order to determine whether levels of peer attachment differ between adolescents from intact and non-intact families. To this end, the effect of family configuration on adolescents' closeness with friends was measured using the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA), adolescent version. The finding revealed that adolescents' attachment to their peers do not vary based on family structure, indicating no measurable variation in

attachment levels between adolescents from intact and non-intact families. This implies that adolescents from both types of family configurations appear to similarly form trusting, close and smooth relationships with their friends.

The lack of variation in adolescents' peer attachment due to family structure could be attributed to a range of individual and social factors. Studies suggest that peers play a vital role in adolescents' socialization and serve as a primary source of intimacy, identity formation and emotional support, and this could lessen the relative effect of family structure on peer attachment (Delgado et al., 2022; Rubin et al., 2015). Moreover, adolescents' personal emotional and social competencies, adaptability, self-esteem and peer acceptance are also evidenced as factors contributing to the decreasing tendency of family composition in influencing adolescents' attachment to peers (Meeus, 2016; Mitic et al., 2021; Ragelienė, 2016). Taken together, the absence of statistically detectable effect of family structure on adolescents' attachment to peers seems largely attributable to the over-arching role of peer relationships and adolescents' personal competencies in maintaining stable social bonds.

In contrast, evidence in the body of literature also documented the influence of family structure on adolescent peer attachment, though the findings are mixed. Some studies report that adolescents from non-intact family structure exhibit stronger peer attachment than those from intact families (Amato, 2001; Hetherington & Kelly, 2002; Rejaän et al., 2024), while others indicate that adolescents from intact families tend to have better peer attachment (Crockett, 2006; Zhou et al., 2023). Each set of studies supports its position with distinct explanations.
For instance, studies supporting the notion that adolescents from non-intact families have stronger peer attachment claim that these adolescents tend to long for compensating weakened family relationships by developing closer and more supportive ties with their peers (Delgado,

2022; Jager et al., 2015; Rejaän, 2024). In this sense, adolescents appear to respond to the parental gap resulted from divorce, death of parent(s) or separation through redirecting their attachment bond toward peers. Consistent with this, attachment theorists (e.g., Armden & Greenberg, 1987; Bowlby, 1982) emphasize that when parental attachments are strained for different reasons, adolescents increasingly incline to peers as a key source for socio-emotional support.

On the other hand, studies supporting better peer attachment of adolescents from intact family structure highlight the importance of stable home environment with both parents in cultivating the adolescents' optimism, resilience, trust and emotional skills (Lippold et al., 2022; Zhou et al., 2023). These attributes, in turn, positively affect peer bonds in a way that the adolescents' raise better friendship and fewer fights with peers. In line with this, the Bowen family system theory asserts that intact family context fosters strong peer attachment among adolescents by lowering anxiety and cultivating emotional independence (Bowen, 1978). Likewise, the ecological systems theory posits that intact family structure positively influences adolescents peer attachment, suggesting that stable parent-child bonds foster a solid foundation for forming strong peer bonds (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

5.4. Adolescents' Psychological Well-being as a function of Family Structure and Sex

The Two-way ANOVA results obtained from the analysis of adolescents' sex and family structure effect on their psychological well-being, as measured by Ryff's model (purpose in life, autonomy, self-acceptance, positive relations with others, environmental mastery and personal growth) are discussed in this section against related findings in the literature.

5.4.1. Adolescents' Psychological Well-being as a Function of Family Structure

In this regard, the finding from this study indicates statistically significant difference in adolescents' psychological well-being between those from intact and non-intact families. Specifically, adolescents from intact families reported higher levels of psychological well-being compared to their peers from non-intact family backgrounds. This difference is likely to arise from the greater access adolescents from intact families have to emotional support, responsive caregiving, consistent supervision, and overall stability in dual-parent environments (Kim et al., 2026).

Previous studies have likewise reported higher levels of psychological well-being among adolescents from intact family backgrounds. For example, Zhou et al. (2023) found that adolescents residing with both parents demonstrated higher levels of psychological well-being and resilience, which were attributed to supportive emotional environments and positive family interactions typical of intact families. In the same vein, Amato (2010) and Lansford (2009) indicated that adolescents raised in intact family contexts experience enhanced psychological well-being and emotional stability, as such family structures are more likely to provide shared caregiving, foster secure attachment, ensure consistent parental involvement, and minimize family disruption. Overall, an intact family environment provides a supportive developmental context that promotes adolescents' psychological well-being.

On the other hand, other studies in the body of psychological literature suggest that adolescents' psychological well-being is largely similar regardless of whether they are raised in intact or non-intact family environments (Ayalew, 2018; Láng, 2018; Sobolewski & Amato, 2007; Sun & Li, 2002). These studies emphasize that factors such as parental support, quality of parent-child relationships, parenting style, family functioning, parents' socio-economic condition

and broader social context in the family play a more decisive role in shaping adolescents' psychological well-being. Importantly, Sobolewski and Amato (2007) argue that poor relational quality in intact-family context does not ensure better psychological well-being, whereas adolescents from non intact families with strong parental support can exhibit better psychological well-being.

5.4.2. Adolescents' Psychological Well-being as a Function of their Sex

The results of this study showed that the psychological well-being of adolescents differs by gender, with female adolescents exhibiting better psychological well-being than male adolescents. This indicates that sex differences meaningfully contribute to how adolescents experience and perceive their psychological health. Female adolescents' better psychological well-being under certain conditions may be buffered by their stronger relationship with their fathers and mothers (Luijten et al., 2021). This suggests that the emotional support, communication, and close bonds female adolescents have with their parents appear to contribute to their psychological well-being, compared to their male counterparts who seems experienced inadequate socio-emotional situations with their parents.

Although scarcely reported in psychological research, some studies indicate that male adolescents experience greater psychological well-being than their female counterparts. For example, García and Zubieta (2012) and Keyes (2006) found that male adolescents demonstrated slightly higher overall psychological well-being than females, with these differences linked to psychosocial influences and differing levels of exposure to stressors between the sexes. The study by Padilla-Moledo et al. (2012) also show that male adolescents outperformed females on various measures of psychological well-being, and the gender difference was to be partially mediated by boys' positive view of their physical self. These findings suggest that boys may

experience higher psychological well-being than girls, influenced by factors that are both internal and external to adolescents' developmental contexts.

Although several studies have identified sex-based differences in psychological well-being, with one gender scoring higher than the other, yet other research shows that boys and girls often do not differ significantly. Among others, studies by Monika and Sharma (2023), Páez-Gallego et al. (2020), Rathi and Rastogi (2007), and Vescovelli et al. (2014) have showed no statistically significant difference between female and male adolescents in their psychological well-being. These studies suggest that factors such as equitable family and social support, peer networks, cultural evolution, and similar access to educational opportunities may help explain why gender differences in adolescents' psychological well-being are minimal or absent.

5.5. The relationship among adolescents' attachment to Fathers, Mothers, Peers and psychological Well-being

One of the research questions of the present study aimed to examine the relationships among the main study variables. Accordingly, bivariate associations between the key variables including adolescents' attachment to fathers, mothers, and peers, as well as their psychological well-being were analyzed and revealed varying degrees of association across the variables.

5.5.1. Adolescents' Attachments to Father and Mothers

The study identified a statistically significant positive relationship between adolescents' attachment to fathers and their attachment to mothers, reflecting consistency in the quality of relationships within the family context. These findings suggest a coherent pattern in parent–adolescent socio-emotional bonds across both parents. Specifically, adolescents who report a strong and secure attachment to one parent are likely to demonstrate a similarly strong attachment to the other. Likewise, weaker attachment to one parent tends to correspond with

weaker attachment to the other. The result would imply that adolescents' attachment to both parents may be influenced at the same time by the larger family environment, which includes parenting practices, emotional warmth, communication styles, and general family cohesiveness. In other words, rather than having two entirely distinct relationships, teenagers might be reacting to a shared relational context.

Consistent with the findings of the present study, previous studies have reported that adolescents' attachments to fathers and mothers tend to be interrelated, highlighting consistency in adolescents' attachment patterns across both parents during adolescence (Laible, 2007; Muris et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2020). Building on the notion that the quality of one parent–adolescent socio-emotional bond often reflects the other, adolescents who maintain strong positive attachments with both mothers and fathers are likely to show enhanced socio-emotional and psychological development. In line with this, evidence in the psychological literature suggests that moderate attachment substantially supports positive adolescent development, whereas stronger socio-emotional bonds between adolescents and parents are associated with deeper developmental advantages (Muris et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2020). (Muris et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2020).

5.5.2. Adolescents' Attachment to Father, Mother and Peers

The results of this study indicated a statistically significant positive relationship between adolescents' attachment to their fathers and peers, as well as between their attachment to mothers and peers. This suggests that adolescents' attachments to their parents and peers follow a similar pattern: stronger bonds with mothers and fathers are associated with stronger peer attachments, while weaker parental attachments correspond to weaker connections with peers. This implies that teenagers who have closer emotional ties to their fathers and mothers are more likely to form

strong and positive connections with their peers. In a similar fashion, adolescents who have limited and inconsistent socio-emotional ties with both parents tend to form less close or less secure relationships with their peers.

Consistent with the findings of this study, previous research has shown that stronger parental attachment consistently predicted stronger attachment to peers' visa-vis weaker parental attachment forecast weak attachment to peers (Delgado et al., 2022; Nickerson & Nagle, 2005; Vagos & Carvalhais, 2020; Zou et al., 2020). Teens who had strong emotional ties to their parents were more likely to build supportive and trustworthy relationships with their peers. In contrast, adolescents' weak parental attachment was associated with difficulties in developing and sustaining healthy peer relationships. In summary, stronger attachment between adolescents and their parents appears to be associated with better communication, greater trust, increased support, and higher-quality peer relationships during adolescence.

The peer compensation hypothesis, however, posits that adolescents experiencing weak parental attachment may turn to peers to substitute for the socio-emotional security they are unable to obtain at home from their parents (Nickerson & Nagle, 2005; Wilkinson, 2004). Nevertheless, this perspective does not suggest that peer relationships can fully replace the developmental advantages of parental attachment, since parents play a unique and irreplaceable role in adolescents' emotional and social development. Consequently, although adolescents may attempt to compensate for deficiencies in parental attachment through peer relationships, the specific socio-emotional benefits typically derived from parents may remain unmet. In this regard, evidence in the literature puts the developmental functions of adolescents' attachment to parents and peers differently yet plays complementary roles in adolescents' development. The peer attachment supports adolescents' social integration, identity formation, and the growth of

interpersonal skills, whereas parents primarily provide emotional stability and fundamental guidance (Allen & Miga, 20210; Dykas et al., 2008; Nickerson & Nagle, 2005; Wilkinson, 2004). Thus, both parental and peer attachments are important contributors to adolescents' social and psychological well-being.

5.5.3. Adolescents' Psychological Well-being and Attachment to Parents and Peers

The results of the bivariate correlation analysis between adolescents' attachments to father, mother, and peers and their psychological well-being showed a significant positive association among the variables, indicating that stronger bonds with parents and peers are linked to higher levels of psychological well-being, whereas weaker attachments are associated with lower psychological well-being. This result highlights the developmental significance of adolescents' relationships with parents and peers. Strong socio-emotional bonds with these attachment figures seem to promote emotional security, serve as a source of social support, and enhance adolescents' sense of social connectedness, all of which are associated with improved psychological well-being. On the other hand, the findings also suggest that adolescents who experience insecure attachment to parents and peers, characterized by low trust, emotional distance, distorted communication, and limited or inconsistent warmth, tend to report lower levels of psychological well-being.

Echoing with the present findings, prior research has similarly demonstrated that adolescents' attachment to parents and peers is positively associated with their psychological well-being. For instance, those studies indicated that adolescents' attachment to parents and peers is positively associated with higher psychological well-being (Musetti et al., 2018), higher levels across multiple dimensions of psychological well-being (Gallarin & Alonso-Arbiol, 2013), enhanced self-esteem and well-being (Gorrese & Ruggieri, 2012; Wilkinson, 2004) and more

favorable mental health outcome (Oldfield et al., 2016). In contrast, insufficient or insecure attachment to parents and peers is linked to lower psychological well-being, as the absence of supportive social bonds was found to be linked to adolescents reduced psychological functioning (Spruit et al., 2020), difficulties in psychological adjustment (Allen et al., 2001), and greater psychological distress (Zhou, 2021).

Secure attachment to parents and peers appears to contribute to the formation of adaptive self-perceptions, supports autonomy while preserving emotional connectedness, strengthens coping strategies, promotes stable and supportive social relationships, enhances interpersonal competence, and improves emotional regulation for adolescents (Gorrese & Ruggieri, 2012; Musetti et al., 2018; Laible, 2000; Wilkinson, 2004). Moreover, it was also reported that attachment to both parents and peers play complementary and mutually reinforcing roles in adolescents' psychological well-being, self-development, and socioemotional adjustment (Laible, 2000; Wilkinson, 2004). Taken together, these findings highlight the developmental benefits of secure socio-emotional connection with parents and peers in enhancing adolescents' psychological well-being which in turn plays a determinant role in their positive psychological functioning.

5.6. The Predictive Effects of Adolescents' Attachment to Parents and Peers on their Psychological Well-being

In this study, multiple regression analysis was run to examine the predictive effects of adolescents' attachment to fathers, mothers, and peers, specifically in terms of communication, trust and alienation, on their adolescents' psychological well-being assessed in terms of self-acceptance, autonomy, personal growth, environmental mastery and positive relation with others. The findings revealed that attachment to fathers, mothers, and peers significantly predicted

adolescents' psychological well-being and accounted for a meaningful portion of its variance. These results suggest that the quality of adolescents' relationships plays an important role in shaping their psychological functioning. Additionally, the findings appear to reinforce the contention that adolescents who develop secure, harmonious, and supportive attachment relationships with their parents and peers are more likely to experience higher levels of psychological well-being compared to those who lack such positive attachment bonds with these significant figures.

Furthermore, adolescents' attachments to fathers, mothers, and peers separately showed distinct contributions to the variance in their psychological well-being across these figures. Specifically, trust in both fathers and mothers emerged as a significant positive predictor of adolescents' psychological well-being, highlighting the contributions and critical role of responsive and reliable parent-adolescent socio-emotional bonds in promoting psychological wellness. On the other hand, adolescents' communication with mothers and peers was also found to be significant positive predictors of their psychological well-being, suggesting that open, encouraging, and productive communication in these relationships has a crucial contribution in enhancing adolescents' positive psychological functioning. Collectively, trustworthy attachments with both parents, alongside open, empathetic, consistent, emotion-validating, and problem-solving communication with mothers and peers, foster enhanced psychological well-being in adolescents.

Consistent with the findings of this study, previous studies also indicated the predictive influence of adolescents' attachment to their parents and peers on their psychological well-being or other dimensions of their development. For instance, adolescents' attachment to parents and peers significantly and positively predicted their socio-emotional health (Amseke, 2025), greater

eudiamonic psychological well-being (Luijten et al., 2021), and the increase in hedonic, eudaimonic and social well-being of adolescents (Valarezo-Bravo et al., 2024). Taken together, these results emphasize the vital role of adolescents' meaningful bonds with key attachment figures during this pivotal developmental phase, where support from significant others like parents and peers fosters optimal psycho-social growth.

Furthermore, secure adolescent–parent attachment characterized by high levels of trust has been shown to positively and significantly predict better adolescents' socio-emotional functioning, adaptive daily functioning, healthy emotional states, positive psychological adjustment, greater life satisfaction, and enhanced self-esteem (Laible, 2007; Lopez & Andrews, 2023; Nickerson & Nagle, 2005). These findings emphasize that when adolescents experience secure attachment and meaningful parental trust, they are more likely to become emotionally stable, develop positive self-perceptions, and experience improved social well-being, all of which support positive psychological development.

Consistent with the findings of the present study, prior research has likewise demonstrated that communication between adolescents and their mothers significantly and positively predicted adolescents' psychological well-being. Specifically, those studies indicated that open and supportive mother–adolescent communication is associated with better psychological well-being and adjustment, fewer internalizing symptoms and externalizing problems, and improved overall mental health outcomes (Oldfield et al., 2016; Keizer et al., 2019; Musetti et al., 2018). The promotive (enhancing positive well-being) and protective (reducing psychological distress) role of mothers' responsive and approachable communication with adolescents appears to enhance their emotional stability, lessen emotional and behavioral difficulties, and boost their general psychological well-being. Arguably, strengthening the quality of adolescent-mother

communication appears to be a crucial pathway for enhancing developmental trajectories and fostering enduring psychological well-being during adolescence.

Consistent with the findings of the present study, the broader psychological literature likewise indicates that adolescents' communication with their peers significantly and positively predicts psychological well-being and other indicators of positive development. Adolescent-peer attachment in general and communication with peers in particular has been shown to predict adolescents' higher levels of well-being (Baytemir, 2016), enhanced psychological adjustment (Delgado et al., 2022), better psychological health and self-esteem (Wilkinson, 2004), greater prosocial behavior and emotional competence (Laible, 2007), and improved quality of life (Yin et al., 2021). Supporting the notion that adolescence is a developmental stage in which peers increasingly become central sources of emotional support, these findings underscore the importance of healthy peer interactions characterized by open and supportive communication. Such interactions serve as vital developmental assets that foster adolescents' psychological well-being and overall positive development.

Beyond its significant role in promoting adolescents' positive psychological development, communication with peers also fulfills the basic human need for social connectedness and belongingness. At this critical stage of human development, adolescents' open and supportive communication with their peers helps establish or strengthen sense of acceptance and inclusion, and thereby enhances their feeling of social integration and psychological stability (Musetti et al., 2018; Oldfield et al., 2016). This highlights that peer relationships has a remarkable contribution in fostering adolescents' positive social adjustment and overall psychological development.

5.7. The Moderation Effect of Adolescents' Family Structure

The result of the current study showed that family structure had a statistically significant moderating role in shaping the relationship between adolescents' attachment to their mothers and their psychological well-being. This implies that the strength and impact of adolescent–mother attachment on psychological well-being are not uniform across all family contexts but vary depending on whether adolescents come from intact or non-intact families. Specifically, the positive contribution of maternal attachment to adolescents' psychological well-being tends to be magnified within intact family settings. In such family environment, availability of both biological parents appears to provide greater emotional security, consistent supervision, relational stability and shared parenting responsibilities. Whereas in a non-intact family configuration, although maternal attachment remains critical, its pivotal effect on adolescents' psychological well-being may be weakened by such family context induced stressors as parental separation, limited parental availability and heightened role strain experienced by single parents. Taken together, these findings underscore the critical importance of family context in maximizing the developmental gains adolescents obtain from secure attachment relationships with their mothers.

Likewise, despite the limited number of studies, existing research suggests that family structure moderates the relationship between maternal attachment or related parental factors and adolescents' psychological outcomes, emphasizing the pivotal role of family context in influencing how maternal attachment contributes to adolescents' psychological development. For example, a study by Sanvictores and Sanni (2024) found that family structure significantly moderated the association between parenting styles and adolescents' psychological well-being. Although the study focused on parenting styles rather than mother-teen attachment specifically,

it offers strong empirical and conceptual evidence that family structure influences how parental warmth and support affect psychological well-being. Consistent with this finding, other studies have also indicated that the family environment can either strengthen or weaken the developmental benefits derived from parent–adolescent attachment. In particular, intact family settings tend to reinforce these benefits through greater stability and support, whereas non-intact family contexts may attenuate them due to increased potential family stressors and reduced parental resources (Brown, 2006; Dahlqvist, 2016).

5.8. Key findings of the study in relation to theoretical frameworks

Theoretical frameworks on human development, particularly attachment theory and the ecological systems model, have established that key attachment figures such as mothers, fathers, and peers play a critical role in shaping adolescents' psychological development. Both theories serve as the foundational theoretical framework for this study.

This study's findings support the foundational principles of attachment theory and the ecological systems model, demonstrating that adolescents' attachment to mothers, fathers, and peers collectively explains a statistically significant portion of variance in psychological well-being. The stronger maternal attachment observed relative to father and peer attachment aligns with attachment theory's assertion of a distinctive socio-emotional bond between children and mothers. Additionally, the positive bivariate relationships between attachment to all three figures (mothers, fathers, peers) and psychological well-being corroborate the ecological systems model's premise of bidirectional person-environment interactions, illustrating how these attachment relationships jointly shape adolescent psychological development.

The suboptimal peer attachment levels observed in this study diviates from the ecological systems model's optimistic assumption that adolescents naturally engage in optimal bidirectional

interactions with their peers. While the model posits that well-functioning peer microsystems inherently contain abundant attachment resources, the findings indicate that peers do not provide the anticipated level of emotional intimacy. This discrepancy challenges the model's underlying assumption that system alignment occurs automatically simply because microsystems are present. Instead, the results suggest that peer networks alone do not guarantee adequate attachment resources; rather, these relationships may require intentional reinforcement to effectively meet young people's developmental and attachment needs.

The current finding that the family structure is an important contributor to adolescents' psychological well-being is consistent with assumptions of ecological systems theory (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). More specifically, the result that intact family structure correlates positively with adolescents' psychological well-being, compared to adolescents of other family types, lends support to the ecological theory that the development of adolescents can be strongly affected by the quality and stability of their ecological environment. This finding is consistent with the ecological perspective that variations in adolescents' immediate social environments can influence their developmental and psychological outcomes.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1. Summary

This descriptive survey study aimed at investigating the role of adolescents' attachment to their parents and peers in their psychological well-being. It assessed the adolescents' level of attachment to three key attachment figures (mothers, fathers and peers), alongside their psychological well-being. The associations among these core variables were analyzed to determine their statistical significance. Furthermore, adolescents' background characteristics such as family structure and sex were examined for their contribution to the variability in adolescents' attachment to their parents and peers, as well as to their psychological well-being. Moreover, the study examined the moderating role of adolescents' family structure in the relationship between adolescent-father attachment and their psychological well-being, adolescent-mother attachment and their psychological well-being, and adolescent-peer attachment and their psychological well-being.

A descriptive survey research design was employed to systematically examine and describe adolescents' attachment patterns to parents and peers, and their psychological well-being as well. A quantitative approach was used to thoroughly measure and analyze the association between the predictor and outcome variables. Data were collected from 541 adolescents in grades 9–12, who were selected using stratified random sampling from three public and two private secondary schools in Jimma town. The instruments used for data collection were Ryff Psychological Well-Being Scale and the Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA), consisting of mother, father, and peer versions. The data collected were

analyzed using descriptive statistics, one-sample t-test, two-way ANOVA, MANOVA, Pearson's correlation coefficient, and multiple regression analysis using PROCESS Macro Model 1.

The study revealed varied findings aligned with each research question addressed in the investigation. Overall, the adolescent participants reported low psychological well-being, though they exhibited higher levels in domains of self-acceptance and positive relations with others. Females showed higher psychological well-being than their male counterparts. Regarding attachment, adolescents displayed stronger attachment to their mothers compared to the weaker socio-emotional bonds with their fathers and peers. While female and male adolescents showed no overall statistically measurable differences in attachment to mothers, fathers, and peers, females demonstrated relatively stronger bonds with peers and fathers.

Adolescents exhibited no sex differences in their attachment to mothers, fathers, and peers. Likewise, family structure showed no impact on adolescents' socio-emotional bonds with mothers and peers. In contrast, attachment to fathers varied by family structure, with adolescents from intact families showing stronger connections than those from non-intact families. Sex and family structure exerted statistically significant main effects on adolescents' psychological well-being, with female adolescents and those from intact families reporting higher well-being than their male and those from non-intact families, respectively. No significant sex-by-family structure interaction effect emerged on adolescents' attachment to parents and peers, as well as on their psychological well-being.

Adolescents with stronger attachment to mothers, fathers, and peers exhibited better psychological well-being. Together, these three attachment domains significantly explained 19.6% of the variance in adolescents' psychological well-being. Attachment to mothers was positively correlated with adolescents' attachment to fathers and peers. Adolescents' attachment

to fathers positively varied with their attachment to peers. Family structure significantly moderated the relationship between adolescents' attachment to mothers and their psychological well-being, but showed no such effect on the relationship between adolescents' attachment to fathers and their psychological well-being as well as between adolescents' attachment to peers and their psychological well-being.

6.2. Conclusion

Based on the findings obtained from investigation of adolescents' psychological well-being as a function of their attachment to mothers, fathers and peers, while accounting for key background variables (sex and family structure), the following conclusions were drawn.

First, adolescents participated in this study exhibited sub-optimal psychological well-being, particularly in the core dimensions of autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life and personal growth. Although they demonstrate relatively stronger well-being in terms of self-acceptance and positive relations with others, these strengths do not significantly improve their overall psychological well-being. Furthermore, adolescents' positive psychological functioning varied based on sex, with female adolescents exhibiting greater psychological well-being than their male counterparts. Nonetheless, this pattern did not extend to attachments with fathers, mothers or peers, where no significant differences observed between female and male adolescents among these attachment figures.

Second, socio-emotional connections to key attachment figures such as mothers, fathers, and peers established a significant positive relationship with adolescents' psychological well-being and attachment pattern to these figures explained about 19.6% of the variance in adolescents' psychological well-being. Given such substantial influence of parental and peer socio-emotional bond on adolescents' psychological well-being, it is imperative to uphold the

relationship as healthy as possible. Whereas, non-parental and peer socio-emotional related factors accounting for a greater share of adolescents' psychological well-being, highlights that there are other determinants playing a vital role in positive development during adolescence.

Third, intact family environment plays a central role in adolescents' positive psychological functioning, as demonstrated by greater adolescents' psychological well-being in such families compared to those from non-intact families.

Fourth, maternal social bond stood out as a persistently strong and stable component of adolescents' relationship experience, whereas their social connection with other attachment figures such as fathers and peers remain low. Even though father and peer attachments are crucial within their own domains, adolescents fall short of gaining the ideal socio-emotional benefits from these relationships. Adolescent-paternal attachment varied as a function of family structure, with adolescents from intact backgrounds showing stronger bonds to fathers compared to their counterparts from disrupted families. This pattern does not extend to adolescents' socio-emotional connections with mothers or peers.

Fifth, the findings demonstrate that family structure has a differential influence on adolescents' attachment relationships. While adolescents from intact families reported significantly stronger attachment to their fathers than those from non-intact families, family structure did not significantly affect adolescents' attachment to their mothers or peers. This suggests that father–adolescent relationships are more vulnerable to the effects of family disruption, likely because changes in family structure may reduce opportunities for paternal involvement and emotional closeness. In contrast, adolescents' socio-emotional bonds with mothers and peers appear relatively stable and resilient regardless of whether they come from intact or non-intact family backgrounds. Furthermore, family configuration fails to consistently

moderate the relationship between adolescents' psychological well-being and their attachment patterns with parents and peers. It solely moderated the association between maternal attachment and psychological well-being, where an intact family background enhanced the positive influence of mother-adolescent attachment on psychological well-being.

Sixth, adolescents' attachments to key figures operate in an interconnected pattern, as demonstrated by the significant positive associations between their attachment to mothers and fathers, mothers and peers, and fathers and peers. Attachment security with one figure (e.g., mother) appears to co-occur with better attachment to other attachment figures. This pattern of interconnected attachments forms a reinforcing support system that promotes adolescents' healthy developmental path through nurturing reliable socio-emotional bonds, open and supportive communication, and adaptive coping in relationships with the people they encounter.

Overall, this study demonstrates that psychological well-being adolescent's in Jimma, is significantly nurtured by secure bonds with their mother, father, and friends, but the family's structural integrity is the bedrock that most powerfully unlocks the benefit of a mothers' attachment.

6.3. Practical Implications

In light of the findings obtained in this study, the following key practical implications were forwarded. These implications are meant to help practitioners, policymakers, and other stakeholders create well-informed, context-sensitive interventions assisting to advance the psychological well-being of adolescents.

- Education policymakers should deliberately embed life-skills initiatives that promote adolescents' psychological well-being, such as independent decision-making, sense of purpose, personal growth, and environmental mastery, into the instructional system.

Advisably, these interventions should be integrated into regular subject areas rather than offered as standalone components, to ensure consistent and continuous access across grade levels. Importantly, the interventions must be gender-responsive, with special attention to supporting male adolescents, whose psychological well-being was observed to be lower than that of their female peers in this study.

- Developmentally supportive adolescents' socio-emotional bonds with key attachment figures such as mothers, fathers, and peers confirmed as critically important, explaining 19.6% of the variance in their psychological well-being. Still, the substantial portion of unexplained variance calls upon the need to investigate additional influencers of adolescents' psychological well-being. Therefore, practitioners in the realm of adolescents' positive development should also consider other factors, such as personality traits, school environment, community support, etc., which may further contribute to variations in adolescents' psychological well-being.
- Efforts should be made to comprehensively build the skills and knowledge of key actors, including teachers and parents, so they are fully equipped to foster adolescents' psychosocial development, promoting positive emotional, social, and behavioral functioning in both educational and family contexts.
- Family-based interventions should encourage equitable caregiving roles for both mothers and fathers toward their children, such that excessive dependence on mothers as a source of socio-emotional support could be minimized. Joint parenting approaches, comprising shared responsibilities and consulted decision making between parents, are essential to ensure that adolescents sustainably benefit from diverse, supportive attachments within the family environment.

- Youth social service providers, parents, and schools should pay close attention to facilitating peer interaction platforms, so adolescents can socialize with their peers. As an example, adolescents' participation in extracurricular clubs, sports, socio-cultural competitions, and volunteer activities can enhance their social skills, foster supportive peer interactions, and provide them with additional socio-emotional support beyond what their families provide. Improved peer relationships, in turn, contribute to positive adolescent development by providing unique psychosocial benefits.
- The relative advantage of adolescents from intact families, who tend to exhibit better psychological well-being and stronger attachments to their mothers, fathers, and peers compared to those from non-intact families underscores the need for tailored preventive and responsive interventions. Pertinent actors providing family guidance and counseling services should focus on mapping and reduction of stressors threatening family stability. Such preventive interventions may include providing counseling services to parents on the verge of separation and a responsive intervention of devising alternative psycho-social supports for adolescents in non-intact families to compensate for the absence or partial parental support.
- The lack of uniform moderation by family configuration on the relationships between adolescents' psychological well-being and their attachment to mothers, fathers, and peers, with a significant moderation effect observed only for maternal attachment, suggests that family guidance and counseling practitioners should adopt context-specific and flexible intervention approaches.
- Considering the relatively low peer attachment reported by participants, schools should prioritize structured peer-mentoring initiatives designed to strengthen communication, trust, and supportive peer interactions, thereby enhancing adolescents' psychological well-being.

6.4. Future Research Directions

Acknowledging that this study is not exhaustive in scope, the following directions for future research are proposed, drawing from its limitations, persistent gaps in the literature on adolescents' positive psychological functioning, and emerging opportunities for further investigation.

- Considering that the present study is limited to high school adolescents in Jimma town, southwest Ethiopia, future research should replicate the investigation in diverse socio-cultural contexts to assess the relative influence of parental and peer attachment on adolescents' psychological well-being and improve the generalizability of the findings.
- Attachments to mothers, fathers, and peers explained about a fifth of adolescents' psychological well being, leaving a substantial portion unexplained. Future research should therefore incorporate additional variables such as self esteem, personality traits, parental education, socioeconomic status, resilience, school engagement, and other pertinent factors to better capture the broader range of influences on adolescents' psychological well being.
- Given the predominance of deficit-oriented research on adolescent development, which tends to focus on problem behaviors such as delinquency and conduct problems, aggression, bullying, substance use, withdrawal, and social isolation, future research should place greater emphasis on generating evidence on positive adolescent psychological functioning by considering markers such as psychological well-being.
- Due to constraints related to time, resources, and ease of research management, the present study relied exclusively on adolescents' self-rated reports to examine the influence of attachment factors on their psychological well-being. Future research is therefore encouraged to incorporate multiple data sources, including parents, teachers, and peers, to gain a more

comprehensive understanding of how attachment to key figures such as mothers, fathers, and peers relates to adolescents' psychological well-being.

- Finally, to move beyond merely documenting evidence of associations between adolescents' psychological well-being and their attachment to parents and peers, future research is encouraged to adopt an intervention-oriented approach. In this framework, the impact of adolescents' bonds with parents and peers on their psychological well-being can systematically be tested through targeted programs such as family-based counseling, parenting skills enhancement training, school club-based peer support, and classroom based social skills training activities.
- Future longitudinal studies in Ethiopia should examine how the relative contributions of peer and parental attachment to adolescents' psychological well-being change from early to late adolescence, thereby testing the attachment hierarchy shift hypothesis.

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Pinquart, M., Feußner, C., & Ahnert, L. (2013). Meta-analytic evidence for stability in attachments from infancy to early adulthood. Attachment & Human Development, 15(2), 189–218.Annex "A": English versions of data collection tools

Addis Ababa University

College of Education and Behavioral Studies

School of Psychology

This survey questionnaire is for adolescent students in senior secondary schools in Jimma City, Oromia National Regional State/Ethiopia

The purpose of the study is to examine how Psychological Well-being of School adolescents affected by the quality of their attachment to their Parents and Peers. Hence, these survey questionnaires serve the purpose of collecting data about adolescents' psychological well-being, the quality of their attachment to parents and peers, and demographic information. The study can be useful only when you complete all the items honestly, frankly, and genuinely. The information and responses obtained from you will be kept confidential and used only for the purpose of this research. You are not required to write your name at any place in the questionnaire.

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Part I: Demographic Information

For the following items put tick (□) mark where it represent you or circle the number and or write the answer on the space given to write.

1. Age: _____

2. Sex: Male □ Female □

3. Grade level: 9 □ 10 □ 11 □ 12 □

4. School type: Government □ Private □

5. With whom you are living with?

- **A.** With both mother and father □
- **B.** With only mother □
- **C.** With only father □
- **D.** With my father and step mother □
- **E.** With my mother and step father □
- **F.** With my relatives □
- **G.** Others, Specify_____

Part II: Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scale (PWB)

Direction: The following **42** items purports to measure the level of your psychological well-being. Please read each carefully and put **tick mark (√)** under the response that best describes your present agreement or disagreement with each statement. Your responses could range from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (6).

Responses Key: Strongly Disagree=1, Disagree=2 Slightly Disagree=3, Slightly Agree=4, Agree=5, Strongly Agree =6

SN	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	I am not afraid to voice my opinions, even when they are in opposition to the opinions of most people.						
2	In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.						
3	I am not interested in activities that will expand my horizons.						
4	Most people see me as loving and affectionate						
5	I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future.						
6	When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out						
7	My decisions are not usually influenced by what everyone elseis doing						
8	The demands of everyday life often get me down.						
9	I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world						
10	Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me						
11	I have a sense of direction and purpose in life.						
12	In general, I feel confident and positive about myself.						
13	I tend to worry about what other people think of me.						
14	I do not fit very well with the people and the community around me.						
15	When I think about it, I haven't really improved much as a person over the years.						
16	I often feel lonely because I have few close friends with whom to share my concerns						
17	My daily activities often seem trivial and unimportant to me.						
18	I feel like many of the people I know have gotten more out of life than I have.						
19	I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions.						
20	I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life						
21	I have the sense that I have developed a lot as a person over time.						
22	I enjoy personal and mutual conversations with family members or friends						
23	I don't have a good sense of what it is I'm trying to accomplish in life.						
24	I like most aspects of my personality						
25	I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus						
26	I often feel overwhelmed by my responsibilities						
27	I do not enjoy being in new situations that require me to change my old familiar ways of doing things						
28	People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others						
29	I enjoy making plans for the future and working to make them a reality						
30	In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life						

31	It's difficult for me to voice my own opinions on controversial issues						
32	I have difficulty arranging my life in a way that is satisfying to me						
33	For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth						
34	I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others						
35	Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them						
36	My attitude about myself is probably not as positive as most people feel about themselves						
37	I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important						
38	I have been able to build a home and a lifestyle for myself that is much to my liking.						
39	I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago						
40	I know that I can trust my friends, and they know they can trust me.						
41	I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life						
42	When I compare myself to friends and acquaintances, it makes me feel good about who I am						

Part II: Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA)

This questionnaire asks about your relationships with important people in your life; your mother, your father, and your close friends. Please read the directions to each part carefully.

2.1. Mother Version

Direction: The following statements ask about your feelings about your mother or the person who has acted as your mother. If you have more than one person acting as your mother (e.g. a natural mother and a step-mother) answer the questions for the one you feel has most influenced you. Please read each statement and put a tick mark (√) under the response number that tells how true the statement is for you now. The response options are: 1= Almost never or never true, 2= Not very true, 3=Sometimes true, 4=Often true, 5=Almost always or always true

SN	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	My mother respects my feelings.					
2	I wish I had a different mother					
3	I feel my mother does a good job as my mother.					
4	My mother accepts me as I am.					
5	I like to get my mother's point of view on things I'm concerned about					
6	I feel it's no use letting my feelings show around my mother.					
7	My mother can tell when I'm upset about something.					
8	Talking over my problems with my mother makes me feel ashamed or foolish.					
9	My mother expects too much from me					
10	I get upset easily around my mother.					
11	I get upset a lot more than my mother knows about					
12	When we discuss things, my mother cares about my point of view.					

13	My mother trusts my judgment.					
14	My mother has her own problems, so I don't bother her with mine.					
15	My mother helps me understand myself better.					
16	I tell my mother about my problems and troubles.					
17	I feel angry with my mother					
18	I don't get much attention from my mother					
19	My mother understands me					
20	My mother helps me talk about my difficulties.					
21	When I am angry about something, my mother tries to be understanding.					
22	I trust my mother.					
23	My mother doesn't understand what I'm going through these days.					
24	I can count on my mother when I need to get something off my chest.					
25	If my mother knows something is bothering me, she asks me about it					

2.2.Father Version

Direction: The following statements ask about your feelings about your father or the person who has acted as your father. If you have more than one person acting as your father (e.g. a natural father and a step-father) answer the questions for the one you feel has most influenced you. Please read each statement and put a tick mark (√) under the response number that tells how true the statement is for you now. The response options are: 1= Almost never or never true, 2= Not very true, 3=Sometimes true, 4=Often true, 5=Almost always or always true

SN	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	My father respects my feelings.					
2	I wish I had a different father					
3	I feel my father does a good job as my father.					
4	My father accepts me as I am.					
5	I like to get my father's point of view on things I'm concerned about					
6	I feel it's no use letting my feelings show around my father.					
7	My father can tell when I'm upset about something.					
8	Talking over my problems with my father makes me feel ashamed or foolish.					
9	My father expects too much from me					
10	I get upset easily around my father.					
11	I get upset a lot more than my father knows about					
12	When we discuss things, my father cares about my point of view.					
13	My father trusts my judgment.					
14	My father has his own problems, so I don't bother him with mine.					
15	My father helps me understand myself better.					
16	I tell my father about my problems and troubles.					
17	I feel angry with my father					
18	I don't get much attention from my father					
19	My father understands me					
20	My father helps me talk about my difficulties.					
21	When I am angry about something, my father tries to be understanding.					

22	I trust my father.					
23	My father doesn't understand what I'm going through these days.					
24	I can count on my father when I need to get something off my chest.					
25	If my father knows something is bothering me, he asks me about it					

2.3.Peer Version

Direction: The following statements ask about your feelings with your close friends. Please read each statement and put a tick mark (√) under the response number that tells how true the statement is for you now. The response options are: 1= Almost never or ever true, 2= Not very true, 3=Sometimes true, 4=Often true, 5=Almost always or always true

SN	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	I like to get my friend's point of view on things I'm concerned about.					
2	My friends can tell when I'm upset about something.					
3	When we discuss things, my friends care about my point of view.					
4	Talking over my problems with friends makes me feel ashamed or foolish.					
5	I wish I had different friends.					
6	My friends understand me.					
7	My friends encourage me to talk about my difficulties.					
8	My friends accept me as I am.					
9	I feel the need to be in touch with my friends more often.					
10	My friends don't understand what I'm going through these days.					
11	I feel alone or apart when I am with my friends.					
12	My friends listen to what I have to say.					
13	I feel my friends are good friends.					
14	My friends are fairly easy to talk to.					
15	When I am angry about something, my friends try to be understanding.					
16	My friends help me to understand myself better.					
17	My friends care about how I am feeling.					
18	I feel angry with my friends.					
19	I can count on my friends when I need to get something off my chest.					
20	I trust my friends.					
21	My friends respect my feelings.					
22	I get upset a lot more than my friends know about.					
23	It seems as if my friends are irritated with me for no reason.					
24	I can tell my friends about my problems and troubles.					
25	If my friends know something is bothering me, they ask me about it.					

Annex “B”: Amharic versions of data collection tools

Part I: የሪፍ የስነልቦና ደህንነት ልኬት (Ryff Psychological Well-being Scale)

መመሪያ፡ የሚከተሉት **42** ጥያቄዎች የስነልቦና ደህንነትዎን ደረጃ ለመለካት የሚውሉ ናቸው። እባክዎ እያንዳንዱን ጥያቄ በጥንቃቄ ካነበቡ በኋላ በዚህ ጊዜ ከሚሰማዎት ስሜት በመነሳት ለእያንዳንዱ መግለጫ ያለዎትን የስምምነት ደረጃ **(√) ምልክት** በማድረግ ይግለጹ። ምላሽዎ ከበፍጹም አለመስማማት (1) እስከ በጣም መስማማት (6) ሊሆኑ ይችላሉ።

ምርጫዎች፡

1=በፍጹም አልስማማም **2= አልስማማም** **3= በተወሰነ መልኩ አልስማማም**

4=በተወሰነ መልኩ እስማማለሁ **5=እስማማለሁ** **6= በጣም እስማማለሁ**

ተ.ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	ሃሳቦቼ ከብዙ ሰዎች ተቃራኒ ቢሆኑ እንኳን የራሴን ሃሳብ ሳልፈራ መግለጥ እችላለሁ፡፡						
2	በአጠቃላይ በኑሮዬ ውስጥ ያሉ ሁኔታዎችን እንደምቆጣጠር ይሰማኛል፡፡						
3	የግንኙነት አድማሴን የሚያሰፉ እንቅስቃሴዎች ውስጥ የመሳተፍ ብዙም ፍላጎት የለኝም፡፡						
4	ብዙ ሰዎች እንደ አፍቃሪና ተንካባካቢ ሰው ይቆጥሩኛል፡፡						
5	ሕይወትን የምኖረው ለአንድ ቀን ነው፣ ነገ በፍጹም አያሳስበኝም፡፡						
6	የሕይወት ታሪኬን ስመለከት፣ ነገሮች የተከሰቱበት መንገድ ያስደስተኛል፡፡						
7	ሰዎች በአብዛኛው የሚያደርጓቸው ነገሮች የኔ ውሳኔዎች ላይ ብዙም ተጽእኖ የላቸውም፡፡						
8	የእለት እለት ሕይወት ውጣውረድ ያስጨንቀኛል፡፡						
9	አንድ ሰው ስለራሱና እና ስለ አለም የሚያስብበትን መንገድ የሚፈታተኑ አዳዲስ ልምዶችን ማግኘት ያስፈልገዋል ነው ብዬ አስባለሁ፡፡						
10	ጥብቅ ግንኙነቶችን ጠብቆ ማቆየት ለእኔ ከባድና የሚያበሳጭ ይሆንብኛል፡፡						
11	በሕይወቴ ግልጽ አቅጣጫና ዓላማ አለኝ፡፡						
12	በአጠቃላይ በሕይወቴ የመታመንና አወንታዊ ስሜት ይሰማኛል፡፡						
13	ሌሎች ስለኔ የሚያስቡት ነገር የሚያስጨንቀኝ ሰው ነኝ፡፡						
14	አካባቢዬ ካለ ሕዝብና ማህበረሰብ ጋር አልስማማም ወይም አልመጣጠንም፡፡						
15	ዝም ብዬ ሳስበው እንደ ግለሰብ ለዘመናት ብዙም አልተቀየርኩም ወይም አልተሻሻልኩም፡፡						
16	የሚያሳስበኝን ነገር የማጋራቸው ጥቂት የቅርብ ሰዎች ብቻ ዙሪያዬ ስላሉ ብዙውን ጊዜ ብቸኝነት ይሰማኛል፡፡						
17	የእለት እለት እንቅስቃሴዎቼ ብዙ ጊዜ ቀላል እና የማይጠቅሙ ይመስሉኛል፡፡						
18	እኔ የማውቃቸው አብዛኞቹ ሰዎች ከእኔ የበለጠ ከህይወት ያተረፉ ያህል ይሰማኛል።						
19	ጠንካራ ሃሳብ ያላቸው ሰዎች ተጽዕኖ ያሳድሩብኛል።						
20	በዕለት ዕለት ሕይወቴ ያሉብኝን በርካታ ሃላፊነቶች በጥሩ ሁኔታ እወጣለሁ፡፡						
21	እንደ አንድ ግለሰብ በጊዜ ሂደት በብዙ እንደተለወጥኩ/እንዳደኩ ይሰማኛል፡፡						
22	ከቤተሰብ አባላት ወይም ከጓደኞቼ የሚደረጉ የተናጥልና የጋራ ውይይቶች ያስደስቱኛል።						
23	በሕይወቴ ለማሳካት እየጣርኩ ስላለሁት ነገር እምብዛም ጥሩ ስሜት አይሰማኝም፡፡						
24	አብዛኛውን የሰብእናዬን መዋቅር እወደዋለሁ፡፡						
25	አብዛኛው ሰው ከተስማማበት ሃሳብ የሚቃረኑ ቢሆኑ እንኳን በገዛ ሃሳቦቼ ላይ እምነት አለኝ፡፡						
26	ያሉብኝ ኃላፊነቶች በአብዛኛው ያስጨንቁኛል፡፡						

27	ነገሮችን ማከናወን የለመድኩበትን መንገድ የሚያሰቀይሩኝ አዳዲስ ሁኔታዎች ውስጥ መሆን ብዙም አይስደስተኝም						
28	ሰዎች ያለኝን የማካፍልና ጊዜዬን ለሌሎች የምሰጥ አድርገው ይገልጹኛል፡፡						
29	የወደፊት እቅድ ማቀድና ለስኬታቸው መስራት ያስደስተኛል፡፡						
30	በሕይወቴ ባሳካኋቸው ነገሮች በብዙ መንግድ ደስተኛ አይደለሁም፡፡						
31	በአከራካሪ ጉዳዩች ላይ የራሴን ሃሳብ ለመሰንዘር እቸገራለሁ፡፡						
32	ሕይወቴን እኔ በፈለኩት መንገድ ማስኬድ ለኔ ከባድ ነው፡፡						
33	ለእኔ ሕይወት የመማሪያ፣ የለውጥና የእድገት ሂደት ነው፡፡						
34	ከሌሎች ጋር ብዙ ጥብቅና እምነት የሚጣልበት ግንኙነት ገጥሞኝ አያውቅም።						
35	አንዳንድ ሰዎች በሕይወት ያለ አላማ ወዲያ ወዲህ ይላሉ፣ እኔ ግን እንደነዚህ አይነት አይደለሁም፡፡						
36	እኔ ስለ ራሴ ያለኝ አመለካከት ምናልባት ብዙ ሰዎች ስለራሳቸው እንደሚሰማቸው አዎንታዊ ላይሆን ይችላል።						
37	ራሴን የምመዝነው እኔ ጠቃሚ ነው ብዬ ባሰብኩት ነገር እንጂ ሌሎች አስፈላጊ ነው ብለው በሚያስቡት እሴት አይደለም።						
38	በጣም የምወደውን አይነት ቤት እና የአኗኗር ዘይቤ ለራሴ መገንባት ችያለሁ።						
39	በህይወቴ ውስጥ ትልቅ ማሻሻያዎችን ወይም ለውጦችን ለማድረግ መሞከር ከተውኩ ረጅም ጊዜ ሆኖኛል፡፡						
40	ጓደኞቼን ማመን እንደምችል አውቃለሁ፤ እነሱም እኔን ማመን እንደሚችሉ ያውቃሉ፡፡						
41	አንዳንድ ጊዜ በሕይወቴ ማድረግ ያለብኝን ነገር ሁሉ እንዳደረግሁ ይሰማኛል።						
42	ራሴን ከጓደኞቼ እና ከማውቃቸው ሰዎች ጋር ሳነጻጽር በእኔ ማንነት ጥሩ ስሜት ይሰመኛል፡፡						

Part II: የወላጆችና ልጆችን ግኙነት የተመለከተ መጠይቅ

ይህ መጠይቅ በህይወትዎ ውስጥ ካሉ አስፈላጊ ሰዎች ማትለትም ከእናት ፣ አባት እና የቅርብ ጓደኞች ጋር ስላሎት ግንኙነት የሚዳስስ ነው። እባክዎ የእያንዳንዱን ከፍል *መመሪያ* በጥንቃቄ ያንብቡ።

2.1. የእናቶች መጠይቅ

መመሪያ: የሚከተሉት መግለጫዎች ስለ እናት ወይም እንደ እናት ሆነው ስላሳደጉህ/ሽ ሰዎች ያለህን/ያለሽን ስሜት የሚዳስሱ ናቸው። እንደ እናት የሚሆኑህ/ሽ ከአንድ በላይ ሰዎች ካሉህ (ለምሳሌ ወላጅ እናት እና የእንጀራ እናት) በአንተ/አንቺ ላይ የበለጠ ተጽዕኖ እንዳሳደረብህ/ሽ የሚሰማህን/ሽን እናት እያሰብክ/ሽ ለጥያቄዎቹ መልስ ስጥ/ስጪ። እባክህን/እባክሽን እያንዳንዱን መግለጫ ካነበብክ/ሽ በኋላ ስሜትህን/ሽን በሚገልጸው መግለጫ ቁጥር ስር (√) ምልክት አድርግ/አድርጊ። መግለጫዎቹ፡-

1 =በጭራሽ 2 =ብዙም እውነት አይደለም 3 =አልፎ አለፎ 4= በአብዛኛው 5= ሁልጊዜ

ተ.ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	1	2	3	4	5
1	እናቴ ስሜቴን ታከብርልኛለች።					
2	እናቴ ሌላ ብትሆን ይሻለኝ ነበር፡፡					
3	እናቴ እንደ እናት ጥሩ ስራ እየሰራች እንደሆነ ይሰማኛል።					
4	እናቴ ሙሉ ማንነቴን ትቀበላለች።					
5	በሚያሳስቡኝ ነገሮች ላይ የእናቴን ምልከታ ማግኘት ደስ ይለኛል።					
6	ስሜቴን ለእናቴ ማሳየቴ ምንም ፋይዳ እንደሌለው ይሰማኛል።					
7	በሆነ ነገር ስበሳጭ እናቴ ታውቅብኛለች።					

8	ችግሮቼን ለእናቴ ማውራት ያሳፍረኛል ወይም ሞኝ እንደሆንኩ እንዲሰማኝ ያደርገኛል፡፡					
9	እናቴ ከኔ በጣም ብዙ ትጠብቃለች።					
10	እናቴ አጠገብ ስሆን በቀላሉ እበሳጫለሁ።					
11	እናቴ ከምታውቀው በላይ በብዙ እበሳጫለሁ።					
12	ስለ ነገሮች ስንወያይ እናቴ ለእኔ አመለካከት ትጨነቃለች/ዋጋ ትሰጣለች።					
13	እናቴ በውሳኔዬ/በምሰጣቸው ፍረዶች ትተማመናለች።					
14	እናቴ የራሷ ችግሮች ስላሏት በኔ ችግሮች ላስጨንቃት አልፈልግም።					
15	እናቴ ራሴን የተሻለ እንድረዳው ትረዳኛለች/ ታግዘኛለች።					
16	ስለሚያስቸገሩኝና ስለሚያስጨንቁኝ ነገሮች ለእናቴ እነግራታለሁ።					
17	በእናቴ እናደዳለሁ/እበሳጫለሁ።					
18	ከእናቴ ብዙም ትኩረት አላገኝም።					
19	እናቴ ትረዳኛለች/ትገነዘበኛለች።					
20	እናቴ ስለ ችግሮቼ እንድናገር ትረዳኛለች/ታበረታታኛለች።					
21	በሆነ ነገር ስናደድ እናቴ ልተረዳኝ ትሞክራለች።					
22	እናቴን አምናታልሁ።					
23	ሰሞኑን ምን አይነት ነገር እያሳለፍኩ እንደሆነ እናቴ አይገባትም/አልተረዳችም።					
24	ስለሚያስጨንቀኝ ነገር ለማወራት ስፈልግ በእናቴ መተማመን እችላለሁ።					
25	የሆነ ነግር እያሳሰብኝ እንደሆነ እናቴ ካወቀች ስለሁኔታው ትጠይቀኛለች።					

2.2. የአባቶች መጠይቅ

መመሪያ፡ የሚከተሉት መግለጫዎች ስለ አባት ወይም እንደ አባት ሆነው ስላሳደጉህ/ሽ ሰዎች ያለህን/ያለሽን ስሜት የሚዳስሱ ናቸው። እንደ አባት የሚሆኑህ/ሽ ከአንድ በላይ ሰዎች ካሉህ/ሽ (ለምሳሌ ወላጅ አባት እና የእንጀራ አባት) በአንተ/አንቺ ላይ የበለጠ ተጽዕኖ እንዳሳደረብህ/ሽ የሚሰማህን/ሽን አባት እያሰብክ/ሽ ለጥያቄዎቹ መልስ ስጥ/ስጪ። እባክህን/እባክሽን እያንዳንዱን መግለጫ ካነበብክ/ሽ በኋላ ስሜትህን/ሽን በሚገልጸው መግለጫ ቁጥር ስር (√) ምልክት አድርግ/አድርጊ፡፡ መግለጫዎቹ፡-

1 =በጭራሽ 2 =ብዙም እውነት አይደለም 3 =አልፎ አለፎ 4= በአብዛኛው 5= ሁልጊዜ

ተ.ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	1	2	3	4	5
1	አባቴ ስሜቴን ያከብርልኛል።					
2	አባቴ ሌላ ቢሆን ይሻለኝ ነበር፡፡					
3	አባቴ እንደ አባት ጥሩ ስራ እየሰራ እንደሆነ ይሰማኛል።					
4	አባቴ ሙሉ ማንነቴን ይቀበለኛል።					
5	በሚያሳስቡኝ ነገሮች ላይ የአባቴን ምልከታ ማግኘት ደስ ይለኛል።					
6	ስሜቴን ለአባቴ ማሳየቴ ምንም ፋይዳ እንደሌለው ይሰማኛል።					
7	በሆነ ነገር ስበሳጭ አባቴ ያውቅብኛል።					
8	ችግሮቼን ለአባቴ ማውራት ያሳፍረኛል ወይም ሞኝ እንደሆንኩ እንዲሰማኝ ያደርገኛል፡፡					
9	አባቴ ከኔ በጣም ብዙ ይጠብቃል።					
10	አባቴ አጠገብ ስሆን በቀላሉ እበሳጫለሁ።					

11	አባቴ ከሚያውቀው በላይ በብዙ እበሳጫለሁ።					
12	ስለ ነገሮች ስንወያይ አባቴ ለእኔ አመለካከት ይጨነቃል/ዋጋ ይሰጣል፡፡					
13	አባቴ በውሳኔዬ/በምሰጣቸው ፍረዶች ይተማመናል።					
14	አባቴ የራሱ ችግሮች ስላሉት በኔ ችግሮች ላስጨንቀው አልፈልግም።					
15	አባቴ ራሴን የተሻለ እንድረዳው ይረዳኛል/ ያግዘኛል።					
16	ስለሚያስቸገሩኝና ስለሚያስጨንቁኝ ነገሮች ለአባቴ እነግረዋለሁ።					
17	በአባቴ እናደዳለሁ/እበሳጫለሁ።					
18	ከአባቴ ብዙም ትኩረት አላገኝም።					
19	አባቴ ይረዳኛል/ይገነዘበኛል።					
20	አባቴ ስለ ችግሮቼ እንድናገር ይረዳኛል/ያበረታታኛል።					
21	በሆነ ነገር ስናደድ አባቴ ሊረዳኝ ይሞክራል።					
22	አባቴን አምነዋለሁ።					
23	ሰሞኑን ምን አይነት ነገር እያሳለፍኩ እንደሆነ አባቴ አልገባውም/አልተረዳም።					
24	ስለሚያስጨንቀኝ ነገር ለማወራት ስፈልግ በአባቴ መተማመን እችላለሁ።					
25	የሆነ ነግር እያሳሰብኝ እንደሆነ አባቴ ካወቀ ስለሁኔታው ይጠይቀኛል።					

2.3. የጓደኛ መጠይቅ

መመሪያ፡ የሚከተሉት መግለጫዎች ለቅርብ ጓደኞችህ/ሽ ያለህን/ሽን ስሜት ይጠይቃሉ። እባክህን/ሽን እያንዳንዱን መግለጫ አንብበህ/አንብበሽ የስምምነትህን/ሽን ደረጃ በሚገልጸው ቁጥሩ ስር (√) ምልክት አድርግ/ጊ፡፡ መግለጫዎቹ፡-

1 =በጭራሽ 2 =ብዙም እውነት አይደለም 3 =አልፎ አለፎ 4= በአብዛኛው 5= ሁልጊዜ

ተ.ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	1	2	3	4	5
1	በሚያስጨንቁኝ ጉዳዮች ላይ የጓደኞቼን እይታ ማግኘት ደስ ይለኛል።					
2	በሆነ ነገር ስከፋ/ ስበሳጭ ጓደኞቼ ያውቁብኛል ፡፡					
3	በነገሮች ላይ ስንወያይ ጓደኞቼ ለእኔ አመለካከት ቦታ ይሰጣሉ፡፡					
4	ችግሮቼን ለጓደኞቼ ማውራት ያሳፍረኛል ወይም ሞኝ እንደሆንኩ እንዲሰማኝ ያደርገኛል፡					
5	ጓደኞቼ ሌሎች ቢሆኑ ይሻለኝ ነበር፡፡					
6	ጓደኞቼ ይረደኑኛል/ይገነዘቡኛል፡፡					
7	ጓደኞቼ ስለ ችግሮቼ እንዳወራ ያበረታቱኛል።					
8	ጓደኞቼ ከነማንነቴ ይቀበሉኛል፡፡					
9	ከጓደኞቼ ጋር በአብዛኛው መገናኘት እንደሚያስፈልገኝ ይሰማኛል።					
10	ሰሞኑን ምን አይነት ነገር እያሳለፍኩ እንደሆነ ጓደኞቼ አይገባቸውም/ አልተረዱም።					
11	ከጓደኞቼ ጋር እያለሁ የብቸኝነት ወይም የመራራቅ ስሜት ይሰማኛል።					
12	ጓደኞቼ የምናገረውን ነገር ያዳምጡኛል።					
13	ጓደኞቼ ጥሩ ጓደኞች ናቸው፡፡					
14	ጓደኞቼ ለማነጋገር በጣም ቀላል ናቸው።					
15	በሆነ ነገር ስናደድ ጓደኞቼ ሊረዱኝ ይሞክራሉ።					
16	ጓደኞቼ ራሴን በደንብ እንድረዳው ያግዙኛል።					
17	ጓደኞቼ ለስሜቴ ይጨነቃሉ፡፡					
18	በጓደኞቼ እናደዳለሁ/እበሳጫለሁ፡፡					
19	ስለሚያሳስበኝ ነገር ማውራት ሲያስፈልገኝ በጓደኞቼ ላይ መተማመን እችላለሁ::					

20	ጓደኞቼን አምናቸዋለሁ፡፡					
21	ጓደኞቼ ስሜቶቼን ያከብራሉ፡፡					
22	ጓደኞቼ ከሚያውቁት በላይ በብዙ እበሳጫለሁ።					
23	ጓደኞቼ ያለምክንያት የሚናደዱብኝ ይመስለኛል።					
24	ስለሚያስቸገሩኝና ስለሚያስጨንቁኝ ነገሮች ለጓደኞቼ እነግራቸዋለሁ።					
25	ጓደኞቼ የሚያስጨንቀኝ ነገር እንዳለ ካወቁ ምን እንደሆነ ይጠይቁኛል።					

Annex “C”: Afaan Oromoo Versions of the data collection tools.

Part I: Safartuu Fayyummaa Xiin-Sammuu Ryff/ Ryff’s Psychological Well-Being Scale

Qajeelfama: Gaaffiiwwan armaan gadii sadarkaa fayya-buleessummaan xiin-sammuu keetii irra jiru safaru. Adaraakee tokkoon tokkoon gaaffilee dhiyaatan dubbisuun sadarkaa itti walii galuu fi itti walii galuu dhiisuu keetii deebiwwan filannoof dhiyaatan keessaa filachuun mallattoo tiikii **(√)** bakka gaaffilee fulduratti kennamanitti kaa’i.

Filannoowwan Deebii: *1=Tasuma itti walii hin galu, 2= Itti waliin hin galu, 3=Xiqqoo itti walii hin galu, 4=Xiqqoon itti walii gala, 5=Ittiin walii gala, 6= Cimseen itti walii gala*

SN	Items	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Yaadan qabu, yonnaa faallaa yaada namoota danuu ta’eeyyuu, dubbachuu hin sodaadhu						
2	Walumaa galatti haalli ani keessa jiru to’annoo koo keessa akka jirutti natti dhagaa’ama						
3	Gochaawwan hubannoo fi muuxannoo kiyya ballisanitti hirmaachuuf fedhii hin qabu						
4	Namootni baayyeen akka nama jaalalaa fi miira jaalala qabuutti na ilaalu						
5	Yeroo keessatti guyyuma tokkon jiraadha, dhugaadhummatti waa’ee fuuldura kootii hin yaadu.						
6	Yeroon seenaa jireenya kootii ilaalu, akkaataa wantootni itti jijjiiraman ilaaleen gammada						
7	Murteewwan koo baayyinaan wanna namni kan biraan hojjetuun dhiibbaan irra hin ga’u						
8	Waanti jireenyi guyya guyyaa narraa barbaadu boqu gadi nabuusa						
9	Muuxannoo haaraa akkaataa ati waa’ee kee fi waa’ee addunyaa itti yaaddu qoru qabaachuun ni barbaachisa jedheen yaada						
10	Anaaf walitti siqeenya nama waliin qabaachuun ulfaataa fi kan namufachiisudha						
11	Jireenyi kiyya kallattii fi kaayyoo qaba						
12	Waluma galatti, waa’ee koo ofitti amanamummaa fi waan gaariitu natti dhaga’ama						
13	Waanti namootni biroon waa’ee kiyya yaadan na dhiphisa						
14	Ani namootaa fi hawaasa naannoo kiyya jiran waliin siriitti wal hin gitu						
15	Yeroon yaadu, baroota darban keessa akka nama tokkootti of-hin fooyyesine						
16	Sababa hiriyooni ani itti maxxanee yaada koo qooduuf muraasa ta’aniif, yeroo hedduu qophummaatu natti dhaga’ama.						
17	Hojiiwwan koo guyya guyyaa waan gadi bu’aa fi kan hin fayyadne fakkaatanii natti mul’atu						
18	Namootni ani beeku baayyeensaanii ana caalaatti jireenyaan akka waan carroomanii ykn milkaa’aniitti natti dhaga’ama.						
19	Namootni yaadota ciccimoo qaban dhiibbaa narratti gessisu						
20	Itti gaafatamummaa jireenya koo guyyaa guyyaa keessa jiru baayyiseen akka						

	gaariitti hooggana						
21	Akka namaatti yeroo gara yerootti of wayyoomsuu/guddisuu kootu natti dhaga'ama						
22	Waliin dubbii dhuunfaa fi waloo miseensota maatii koo fi hiriyoota koo waliin qaburratti nan gammada.						
23	Wantoota ani jireenya keessatti raawwachuuf yaalu maalummaa isaanii hubannoo gaarii hin qabu						
24	Irra caalaa Eenyummaa/sansaka kiyyaa nan jaalladha!						
25	Faalla waan akka walii galaatti itti walii galamuu yonnaa ta'ellee, yaadota mataa kootiitti ofitii amanamummaa qaba.						
26	Itti gafatamummaa danuudhaan akkan qabamee jirutti natti dhaga'ama						
27	Haalaa haaraa akkaataa ani duratti wantoota ittiin hojjedhu akkan jijjiiruuf nagaafatu keessa jiraachuutti hin gammadu						
28	Namootni akka nama namootaaf kennuutti, yeroo koo namaaf hiruuf fedhii qabuutti, na ibsu.						
29	Karoora gara fuulduraa baasuu fi hojjedhee dhugoomsuutti baayyeen gammada						
30	Karaa baayyeedhaan, waanan jireenya koo keessatti galmeessetti nan mufadha						
31	Yaadota wal-falmisiisoo irratti yaadakoo dhageessisuun natti ulfaata						
32	Jireenya koo akkaataa anaaf quubsaa ta'etti toora galfachuun natti ulfaata						
33	Anaaf, jireenyi adeemsa walitti fufaa irraa baratamu, jijijjiiramuu fi guddachuuti						
34	Namoota biroo waliin walitti dhufeenyi hoo'aa fi amanamaan baayyiinaan namudatee hin beeku						
35	Namootni tokko tokko kaayyoo malee jiraatu, ani garuu jara keessa hin jiru						
36	Ilaalchan ofii kiyyaaf qabu, akka namootni baayyeen ofii isaaniitiif ilaalcha gaarii qabanii miti.						
37	Waanan ofii kiyyaa gaariidha jedhee tilmaamuunan of madaala, malee gatii namootni biroon ni barbaachisa jedhanii yaadaniin miti						
38	Bultii fi akkaataa jireenya mataa kootii haalan jaalladhuun ijaarrachuu danda'eera.						
39	Yeroo dheeraa dura kaasee jireenya koo keessatti fooyya'iinsa yookaan jijjiirama guddaa fiduu yaaluu harka kenneen/dhiiseen jira.						
40	Hiriyoota koo akkan amanu beeka, isaanis akka na amanan beeku						
41	Yeroo tokko tokko akkan waanan waan jireenya keessa jiru hundumaa hojjedheetti natti dhaga'ama						
42	Hiriyootaa fi namoota beekamoo biroo waliin yeroon of madaalu, eenyu akkan ta'e waa'ee koo waan gaariitu natti dhaga'ama.						

Part II: Safartuu Walitti Siqeenya Maatii fi Hiriyaa

Gaaffiiwwan armaan gadii walitti dhufeenya jireenyakee keessatti baayyee barbaachisoo ta'anii sigaafatu; isaanis, Haadha, Abbaa fi Hiriyaa baayyee sitti dhiyaatu/ttudha. Adaraa qajeelfamoota mata-duree gaaffiiwwanii irratti barreefaman sirriiti dubbisi.

2.1. Gaaffii Waa'ee Haadhaa

Qajeelfama: Gaaffiiwwan armaan gadii waa'ee haadha ykn nama akka haadhaatti jireenya kee keessatti ga'ee ba'ee ilaalchisee miira ati qabdu sigaafatu.Tarii nama akka haadhaatti jireenya keessatti ga'ee ba'an yonnaa jiraatan(fkn haadha dhiigaa, haadha buddeenii)kan keessaa caalaatti jireenya kee keessatti ga'ee olaanaa qaban giddu galeessaa godhachuun gaffiiwwan deebisi. Adaraakee tokkoon tokkoo gaaffii dubbisuun hagam akka himoonni kunneen yeroo ammaa kana jireenya kee ibsan mallattoo tiikii**(√)** laakkoofsa deebii filattee jala kaa'i.

Filannoowwan Deebii: *1= Gonkumaa dhugaa miti 2= Bicuushee dhugaadha, 3 = Darbee darbee dhugaadha, 4=Yeroo baayyee dhugaadha, 5= Yeroo hundaa dhugaadha*

SN	Gaafannoowwan	1	2	3	4	5
1	Haatikoo miira kiyya naaf kabajji					
2	Utuun haadha kan biraa qabaadheera ta'ee natti tola					
3	Haati koo akka haadhummaa isheetti hojii gaarii hojjetti					
4	Haati koo akkuman jirutti nahubatti/fudhatti					
5	Dhimma na yaachisu irratti ilaalcha haadha kootii baruun fedha					
6	Miira natti dhaga'amu haadha kiyyaaf agarsiisuun akka hin fayyannetti natti dhaga'ama					
7	Haati koo waan ta'e tokkotti mufachuu koo narratti bartee himuu dandeessi					
8	Rakkoo irratti haadha kiyya faana haasa'uun saalfii fi gowwummaa natti dhageessisa					
9	Haati koo waan bayyee irra darbaa narraa eegdi					
10	Haadha kootti salphaadhumattan itti mufadha					
11	Hanga haati koo narratti beektu caalaattan itti mufadha					
12	Dhimmoota irratti yammuu mariyannu, haati koo ilaalcha kiyya naaf kabaji					
13	Haati kiyya murtee kootti ni amanti					
14	Haati koo rakkoo mataa isheetii qabdi, kanaaf rakkoo kiyyaan ishee hin dhiphisu					
15	Haati koo akka ofiikoo caalchisee hubadhuuf na deggerti					
16	Rakkoo fi muddaman qabu haadha kootti nan himadha					
17	Haadha kootti nan aara					
18	Haadha kiyyarraa xiyyeefannoo ga'aa hin argadhu					
19	Haati kiyya na hubatti					
20	Waan natti ulfaate akkan dubbatadhuuf haati koo na deggerti					
21	Yeroon waa'ee waan tokkoo aaru, haati koo na hubachuudhaaf yaalti					
22	Haadha koo nan amana					
23	Wantootan yeroo ammaa keessa darbaa jiru, haati koo hin hubattu ykn quba hin qabdu					
24	Yeroon dhiphina laphee kootii obbaffachuu fedhu, deggersa haadha kootii nan abdadha.					
25	Haati koo akkan wayitti dhiphachaa jiru yonnaa barte, waa'esaa nagaafatti					

2.2. Gaaffii Waa'ee Abbaa

Qajeelfama: Gaaffiiwwan armaan gadii waa'ee abbaa ykn nama akka abbaatti jireenya kee keessatti ga'ee ba'ee ilaalchisee miira ati qabdu sigaafatu.Tarii nama akka abbaatti jireenya keessatti ga'ee ba'an yonnaa jiraatan(fkn abbaa dhiigaa, abbaa buddeenii)kan keessaa caalaatti

jireenya kee keessatti ga'ee olaanaa qaban giddu galeessaa godhachuun gaffiiwwan deebisi. Adaraakee tokkoon tokkoo gaaffii dubbisuun hagam akka himoonni kunneen yeroo ammaa kana jireenya kee ibsan mallattoo tiikii(√) laakkoofsa deebii filattee jala kaa'i.

***Filannoowwan Deebii: 1** = Gonkumaa dhugaa miti **2** = Bicuushee dhugaadha, **3** = Darbee darbee dhugaadha, **4** =Yeroo baayyee dhugaadha, **5** = Yeroo hundaa dhugaadha.*

SN	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	Abbaan koo miira kiyya naaf kabaja					
2	Utuun abbaa kan biraa qabaadheera ta'ee natti tola					
3	Abbaan koo akka abbummaa isaatti hojii gaarii hojjeta					
4	Abbaan koo akkuman jirutti nahubata/fudhata					
5	Dhimma na yaachisu irratti ilaalcha abbaa kootii baruun fedha					
6	Miira natti dhaga'amu abbaa kiyyaaf ibsuun akka hin fayyannetti natti dhaga'ama					
7	Abbaan koo waan ta'e tokkotti mufachuu koo narratti baree himuu danda'a					
8	Rakkoo irratti abbaa kiyyaa faana haasa'uun saalfii fi gowwummaa natti dhageessisa					
9	Abbaan koo waan baayyee irra darbaa narraa eega					
10	Abbaa kootti salphaadhumattan itti mufadha					
11	Hanga abbaan koo narratti beeku caalaattan itti mufadha					
12	Dhimmoota irratti yammuu mariyannu, abbaan koo ilaalcha kiyya naaf kabaja					
13	Abbaan kiyya murtee kootti ni amana					
14	Abbaan koo rakkoo mataa isaatii qaba, kanaaf rakkoo kiyyaan isa hin dhiphisu					
15	Abbaan koo akkan ofiikoo caalchisee hubadhuuf na deggera					
16	Rakkoo fi muddaman qabu abbaa kootti nan himadha					
17	Abbaa kootti nan aara					
18	Abbaan kiyyarraa xiyyeefannoo ga'aa hin argadhu					
19	Abbaan kiyya na hubata					
20	Waan natti ulfaate akkan dubbatadhuuf abbaan koo na deggera					
21	Yeroon waa'ee waan tokkoo aaru, abbaan koo na huchuudhaaf ni yaala					
22	Abbaa kootti nan amana					
23	Wantootan yeroo ammaa keessa darbaa jiru, abbaan koo hin hubatu ykn quba hin qabu					
24	Yeroon dhiphina laphee kootii obbaffachuu fedhu, deggersa abbaa kootii nan abdadha.					
25	Abbaan koo akkan wayitti dhiphachaa jiru yonnaa bare, waa'esaa nagaafata					

2.3. Gaaffii Waa'ee Hiriyaa

Qajeelfama: Gaaffiiwwan armaan gadii miira ati hiriyoota baayyee sitti dhiwoo ta'aniif qabdu sigaafatu. Adaraakee tokkoon tokkoo gaaffii dubbisuun hagam akka himoonni kunneen yeroo ammaa kana jireenyakee ibsan mallattoo tiikii(√) laakkoofsa deebii filattee jala kaa'i.

Filannoowwan Deebii: ***1*** *= Gonkumaa dhugaa miti* ***2*** *= Bicuushee dhugaadha,* ***3*** *= Darbee darbee dhugaadha,* ***4*** *=Yeroo baayyee dhugaadha,* ***5*** *= Yeroo hundaa dhugaadha.*

SN	Items	1	2	3	4	5
1	Dhimma na yaachisu irratti ilaalcha hiriyoota kootii argachuu nan fedha					
2	Hiriyoonni koo waan ta'e tokkotti mufachuu koo narratti baranii himuu danda'u					
3	Dhimmoota tokko tokko irratti yammuu mariyannu, hiriyootni koo yaada kiyya naaf kabaju					
4	Rakkoo kiyya irratti hiriyoota koo waliin haasa'uun saalfii fi gowwummaa natti dhageessisa					
5	Utuun hiriyoota kan biraa qabaadheera ta'ee natti tola					
6	Hiriyoonni kiyya na hubatu					
7	Waan natti ulfaate akkan dubbatadhuuf hiriyoonni koo na jajjabeessu					
8	Hiriyoonni koo akkuman jirutti nahubatu/fudhatu					
9	Fedhiin irra deddeebiin hiriyoota koo waliin walquunnamuun natti dhaga'ama					
10	Wantootan yeroo ammaa keessa darbaa jiru, hiriyoonni koo hin hubatan					
11	Hiriyootuma waliin utuun jiruu kophummaan natti dhaga'ama					
12	Hiriyoonni koo waanan haasa'uu qabu ni dhaggeeffatu					
13	Hiriyoonni koo hiriyoota gaarii akka ta'anitti natti dhaga'ama					
14	Hiriyoonni koo waliin haasa'udhaaf natti hin ulfaatan					
15	Yeroon waa'ee waan tokkoo aaru, hiriyoonni koo na hunachuudhaaf ni yaalu					
16	Hiriyoonni koo ofiikoo caalchisee akkan hubadhuuf na deggeru					
17	Hiriyoonni koo miira natti dhaga'amuuf naaf eeggatu					
18	Hiriyoota kootti nan aara					
19	Yeroon dhiphina laphee kootii obbaaffachuu fedhu, deggersa hiriyoota kootii nan abdadha.					
20	Hiriyoota koo nan amana					
21	Hiriyoonni koo miira koo naaf kabaju					
22	Hanga hiriyyotni koo narratti beekan caalaattan mufadha					
23	Hiriyoonni koo sababa tokko malee aariinsaanii waan natti banbanu natti fakkaata					
24	Rakkoo fi muddaman qabu hiriyoota kootti nan himadha					
25	Hiriyoonni koo akkan wayitti dhiphachaa jiru yonnaa baran, waa'eesaa nagaafatu					

Content Validity assessment results of the data collection tools.

Annex "D": Ratings on 42-Items of "Ryff's Psychological Well-Being Scale" by Six Experts

SN	Items	*Expert 1*	*Expert 2*	*Expert 3*	*Expert 4*	*Expert 5*	*Expert 6*	*#Experts who rated item as 3 or 4*	*CVI*
I	**Autonomy**								
1	I am not afraid to voice my opinions, even when they are in opposition to the opinions of most people.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
7	My decisions are not usually influenced by what everyone elseis doing	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
13	I tend to worry about what other people think of me.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
19	I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions.	√	√	---	√	√	√	5	.83
25	I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
31	It's difficult for me to voice my own opinions on controversial issues	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
37	I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
II	**Environmental Mastery**								
2	In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
8	The demands of everyday life often get me down.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
14	I do not fit very well with the people and the community around me.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
20	I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
26	I often feel overwhelmed by my responsibilities	√	---	√	√	√	---	4	.67
32	I have difficulty arranging my life in a way that is satisfying to me	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
38	I have been able to build a home and a lifestyle for myself that is much to my liking.	---	√	√	√	√	√	5	.83
III	**Personal Growth**								
3	I am not interested in activities that will expand my horizons.	√	√	√	√	---	√	5	.83
9	I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge howyou think about yourself and the world	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
15	When I think about it, I haven't really improved much as a person over the years.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
21	I have the sense that I have developed a lot as a person over time.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
27	I do not enjoy being in new situations	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1

	that require me to change my old familiar ways of doing things								
33	For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
39	I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
IV	**Positive Relations with others**								
4	Most people see me as loving and affectionate	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
10	Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
16	I often feel lonely because I have few close friends with whom to share my concerns	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
22	I enjoy personal and mutual conversations with family members or friends	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
28	People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
34	I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
40	I know that I can trust my friends, and they know they can trust me.	√	√	√	---	√	√	5	.83
V	**Purpose in life**								
5	I live life one day at a time and don't really think about thefuture.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
11	I have a sense of direction and purpose in life.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
17	My daily activities often seem trivial and unimportant to me.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
23	I don't have a good sense of what it is I'm trying to accomplish in life.	√	√	√	√	√	---	5	.83
29	I enjoy making plans for the future and working to make them a reality	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
35	Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them	√	√	√	---	√	√	5	.83
41	I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
VI	**Self-acceptance**								
6	When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with howthings have turned out	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
12	In general, I feel confident and positive about myself.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
18	I feel like many of the people I know have gotten more out of life than I have.	√	√	---	√	√	√	5	.83
24	I like most aspects of my personality	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
30	In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
36	My attitude about myself is probably	√	√	√	√	√	---	5	.83

	not as positive as most people feel about themselves								
42	When I compare myself to friends and acquaintances, it makes me feel good about who I am	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
	Proportion of relevance	41/42 =.97	41/42 =.97	40/42 =.95	40/42 =.95	41/42 =.97	39/42 =.92	S-CVI=5.73/6 =.955	

NB: Rating was from 1 to 4 where 1 = not relevant; 2 = somewhat relevant; 3 = quite relevant; 4 = highly relevant. Dashes indicate ratings of 1 or 2. Markers of "√" indicate ratings of 3 or 4. I-CVI = Item-level Content Validity Index. S-CVI = Scale-level Content Validity Index.

Annex "E": Ratings on a 75-Items for "Inventory of Parent and Peer Attachment (IPPA)" by Six Experts

2.1.1. Mother Version

SN	Items	*Expert 1*	*Expert 2*	*Expert 3*	*Expert 4*	*Expert 5*	*Expert 6*	*#of Expert who rated item as 3 or 4*	*CVI*
I	**Parent Trust**								
1	My mother respects my feelings.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
2	I wish I had a different mother.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
3	I feel my mother does a good job as my mother.	---	√	√	√	√	√	5	.83
4	My mother accepts me as I am.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
9	My mother expects too much from me.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
12	When we discuss things, my mother cares about my point of view.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
13	My mother trusts my judgment.	√	---	√	√	√	√	5	.83
20	My mother helps me talk about my difficulties.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
21	When I am angry about something, my mother tries to be understanding.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
22	I trust my mother.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
II	**Parental Communication**								
5	I like to get my mother's point of view on things I'm concerned about	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
6	I feel it's no use letting my feelings show around my mother.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
7	My mother can tell when I'm upset about something.	---	√	√	√	√	√	5	.83
14	My mother has her own problems, so I don't bother her with mine.	√	---	√	√	√	√	5	.83
15	My mother helps me understand myself better.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
16	I tell my mother about my problems and troubles.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
19	My mother understands me	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
24	I can count on my mother when I need to get something off my chest.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
25	If my mother knows something is bothering me, she asks me about it	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
III	**Parent Alienation**								
8	Talking over my problems with my mother makes me feel ashamed or foolish.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
10	I get upset easily around my mother.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
11	I get upset a lot more than my mother knows about	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
17	I feel angry with my mother	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
18	I don't get much attention from my mother	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1

23	My mother doesn't understand what I'm going through these days.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
	Proportion of Relevant Items	23/25 =.92	23/25 =.92	25/25 =1	25/25 =1	25/25 =1	25/25 =1	S-CVI=5.84/6 =.97	

2.2. Father Version

SN	Items	*Expert 1*	*Expert 2*	*Expert 3*	*Expert 4*	*Expert 5*	*Expert 6*	*# of Expert who rated item as 3 or 4*	*CVI*
I	**Parent Trust**								
1	My father respects my feelings.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
2	I wish I had a different father	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
3	I feel my father does a good job as my father.	---	√	√	√	√	√	5	.83
4	My father accepts me as I am.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
9	My father expects too much from me	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
12	When we discuss things, my father cares about my point of view.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
13	My father trusts my judgment.	√	---	√	√	√	√	5	.83
20	My father helps me talk about my difficulties.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
21	When I am angry about something, my father tries to be understanding.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
22	I trust my father.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
II	**Parental Communication**								
5	I like to get my father's point of view on things I'm concerned about	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
6	I feel it's no use letting my feelings show around my father.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
7	My father can tell when I'm upset about something.	---	√	√	√	√	√	5	.83
14	My father has his own problems, so I don't bother him with mine.	√	---	√	√	√	√	5	.83
15	My father helps me understand myself better.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
16	I tell my father about my problems and troubles.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
19	My father understands me	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
24	I can count on my father when I need to get something off my chest.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
25	If my father knows something is bothering me, he asks me about it	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
III	**Parent Alienation**								
8	Talking over my problems with my father makes me feel ashamed or foolish.	√	√	√	√	---	√	5	.83
10	I get upset easily around my father.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
11	I get upset a lot more than my father knows about	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
17	I feel angry with my father	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
18	I don't get much attention from my	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1

	father								
23	My father doesn't understand what I'm going through these days.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
		23/25 =.92	23/25 =.92	25/25 =1	25/25 =1	24/25 =0.96	25/25 =1	S-CVI=5.8/6 =.96	

2.3. Peer Version

SN	Items	*Expert 1*	*Expert 2*	*Expert 3*	*Expert 4*	*Expert 5*	*Expert 6*	*# of Expert who rated item as 3 or 4*	*CVI*
I	**Peer Trust**								
5	I wish I had different friends.	√	√	√	√	√	---	5	.83
6	My friends understand me.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
8	My friends accept me as I am.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
12	My friends listen to what I have to say.	---	√	√	√	√	√	5	.83
13	I feel my friends are good friends.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
14	My friends are fairly easy to talk to.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
15	When I am angry about something, my friends try to be understanding.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
19	I can count on my friends when I need to get something off my chest.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
20	I trust my friends.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
21	My friends respect my feelings.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
II	**Peer Communication**								
1	I like to get my friend's point of view on things I'm concerned about.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
2	My friends can tell when I'm upset about something.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
3	When we discuss things, my friends care about my point of view.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
7	My friends encourage me to talk about m difficulties.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
16	My friends help me to understand myself better.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
17	My friends care about how I am feeling.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
24	I can tell my friends about my problems and troubles.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
25	If my friends know something is botherin me, they ask me about it.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
III	**Peer Alienation**								
4	Talking over my problems with friends makes me feel ashamed or foolish.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
9	I feel the need to be in touch with my friends more often.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
10	My friends don't understand what I'm going through these days.	√	√	---	√	√	√	5	.83
11	I feel alone or apart when I am with my friends.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
18	I feel angry with my friends.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
22	I get upset a lot more than my friends know about.	√	√	√	√	√	√	6	1
23	It seems as if my friends are irritated with	√	√	√	√	√	---	5	.83

	me for no reason.								
		24/25 =.96	25/25 =1	24/25 =.96	25/25 =1	25/25 =1	23/25 =.92	S-CVI=5.84/6 =.97	

NB: Rating was from 1 to 4 where 1 = not relevant; 2 = somewhat relevant; 3 = quite relevant; 4 = highly relevant. Dashes indicate ratings of 1 or 2. Markers of "√" indicate ratings of 3 or 4. I-CVI = Item-level Content Validity Index. S-CVI = Scale-level Content Validity Index.