

Parenting Style in Amhara Region: Development and Validation of
Parenting Style Scale and Investigation of Adolescents' Self-esteem,
Identity Style and Psychological Wellbeing

(Doctoral Dissertation)

Addis Ababa University

College of Education and Behavioral Studies

School of Psychology

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This dissertation is submitted to the school of Psychology as part of the
requirements for the degree of doctor of philosophy in Applied Developmental
Psychology

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Abstract

The purpose of this research was to develop and validate Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style (PPSS) scale, and investigation of adolescents' self-esteem, identity style and psychological wellbeing using two subsequent studies. The first study was designed to develop an instrument for measuring parenting style in the context of Amhara region. For this study, an exploratory sequential mixed methods research design was employed to explore the types of parenting styles and their indicators qualitatively, then followed by quantitative method to examine the psychometric properties of the scale. Samples were drawn from government general secondary and preparatory school students in Amhara region using simple random sampling and stratified random sampling based on students' sex and grade level as strata. For this study, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. Data for qualitative analysis were gathered from adolescent informants using focus group discussion, whereas data for quantitative analysis were gathered from the expert judges and school adolescents. From school adolescents, data were collected twice, one for preliminary analyses such as item analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and reliability analysis based on the responses of 436 participants (Male = 216; Female = 220), and the other for examining confirmatory factor analysis as well as convergent and discriminant validity analysis using the responses of 314 participants (Male = 156; Female = 158) from the four zonal towns (i.e., Debre Birhan, Finot-selam, Debre Tabor, Bahir Dar) in the region. The final results revealed that a 4-factor solution (Reasonable, Decent, Pampering & Autocrat) with a 26-item was identified, and then confirmed with good fit indices using LISREL 8.80 version. Moreover, acceptable convergent and discriminant validity evidence were found. Thus, it would suffice to say that APPS scale measures what it purports to measure. The second study was designed to investigate the relations of parenting styles with psychological wellbeing, self-esteem, and identity style. In addition, the study focused on examining the mediating roles of self-esteem and identity style on the relationship between parenting style and psychological wellbeing. Furthermore, parenting style differences due to demographic variables (sex, family structure & number of siblings) was another concern of the study. With the same procedure in study one, data were collected from 411 participants (Male = 211; Female = 200) for the main study and the analyses were made using mainly multiple regression, multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), and path analysis. The results indicated that adolescents who perceived their parents as decent and reasonable showed better off in their self-esteem, identity style and psychological wellbeing. Moreover, self-esteem, informational identity style and normative identity style were partially mediated between parenting styles and psychological wellbeing. Furthermore, significant differences in adolescents' perceived parenting styles were observed due to the differences in their sex, family structure and number of sibling. Finally, based on the findings, some practical and theoretical implications, limitations and directions for future research were addressed.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

- AGFI — Adjusted Goodness Fit Index
- APPS — Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style
- AREB — Amhara Region Education Bureau
- CFA — Confirmatory Factor Analysis
- EFA — Exploratory Factor Analysis
- GFI — Goodness of Fit Index
- KMO — Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin
- LISREL — Linear Structural Relations
- MANOVA — Multivariate Analysis of Variance
- MYSC — Ministry of Youth, Sports and Culture
- NFI — Normed Fit Index
- NNFI — Non-Normed Fit Index
- PAF — Principal Axis Factoring
- PCA — Principal Component Analysis
- RMSEA — Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
- WHO — World Health Organization

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1. INTRODUCTION

1. 1. Background of the Study

Psychologists believe that parents' influence on the development of their child is pivotal. This influence starts as early as they set up a kind of attitude towards the conception of the new child (Hurlock, 1980). Right after a child is born and has become a social being, among other factors, parents' child rearing style continues its influence on the development of the child so long as the child is under the umbrella of the family (Hetherington & Parke, 1986). However, the type of parenting influence varies from parent to parent. For instance, parents may be accepting or rejecting, punitive or non-punitive, flexible or rigid, warm or hostile in rearing up their children. Therefore, developmental psychologists have long been interested in identifying the types of parenting that enhance or hamper children's healthy development. One of the most important approaches to this area is the study of "parenting style" (Baumrind, 1966). Baumrind defined parenting style as the regular patterns of parental behaviors, and attitudes with which parents deal with their children and adolescents along parental warmth and control.

For the past decades, parenting styles and their influences on children and adolescents behavioral outcomes have been studied widely using Baumrind's (1967, 1971, 1991) framework. The results of those studies (e.g. Claes, Lacourse, Bouchard, & Perucchini, 2003; Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987; Lamborn, Mounts, Steinberg, & Dornbusch, 1991; Steinberg, 2001; Steinberg, Elmen, & Mounts, 1989) generally supported the positive effects of authoritative parenting style and the negative effect of authoritarian style of parenting in European American families. Hence, Baumrind's parenting style model has been taken as consistent and universal (Coplan et al. & Metsapelto et al., cited in Xu, 2007). This issue has raised hot debates in parenting style research. It is because different researchers (e.g. Bornstein,

1995; Chao, 1994; Hill & Bush, 2001; Tam & Lam, 2003) argued that the interpretation or meaning of parenting styles can only be fully understood in the context of the given culture. In other words, one parenting style that is viewed appropriate in one culture may be viewed inappropriate in another culture (Nsamenang, 1992; Russell, Crockett, & Chao, 2010).

To show this cultural difference, particularly between the Western and the non-Western cultures, Triandis (1995) and Hofstede (2001) proposed two general cultural orientations: individualistic and collectivistic. Individualism and collectivism are important dimensions to explain cross-cultural differences in people's behaviors.

Accordingly, the Western culture is more individualistic where personal rights and autonomy are cherished, and children are guided to be independent and self-sufficient. On the other hand, the non-Western cultures are more collectivistic and conformity to group values and children are trained to obey and by and large follow their parent's footsteps.

With this regard, Triandis (1995) characterized countries such as America, Canada, Great Britain, Australia, Italy and most of the European countries as individualistic and frame individuals as separate from others with the focus on attaining personal goals. Conversely, China, Japan, Korea, India, Singapore, and African countries are characterized as collectivistic in which they promote the maintenance of cooperation or interdependence among group members.

In view of this, Chao (1994) argued that Baumrind's parenting typologies may not be culturally relevant and meaningful to Asians or Asian Americans as they attribute different meanings to authoritarian type as for European Americans. In line with this, studies (e.g., Dosanjh & Ghuman, 1998; Rohner & Pettengill, 1985) carried out in different Asian cultures like China, Taiwan, and Korea have shown that control and strictness are not perceived as damaging as predicted by the Western literature. Rather it has been observed that parental influence and

control is perceived as a sign of parental love, care, deep concern, and involvement. In contrast, in the Western culture, any kind of restrictions or control is perceived as an attack on the independence of the child (Chao, 2001).

Supporting the positive effects of authoritarian parenting style in Asian cultures, Grusec, Rudy, and Martini (1997) reported that Asian parents, unlike parents in the USA, mainly employ authoritarian type as this style is considered beneficial for children. This is due to the fact that in Asian culture, strict disciplinary practices are taken as a strategy that fosters family harmony (Ho, 1989).

Similar to Asian culture, Carrasquillo and London (1993) described African parents as more of authoritarian type. Explaining why this happened, Carrasquillo and London noted that authoritarian parenting style is considered as a means of achieving parental goals such as internalizing respect to authority, conformity, and a sense of sharing.

When coming to studies on child rearing practices in Ethiopia, inconsistent results have been documented. For example, some studies (e.g. Cox, 1967; Habtamu, 1979; Levine, 1965; Ringness & Gander, 1974) revealed that authoritarian parenting style is the dominant parenting style in Ethiopian context. On the other hand, other studies (e.g. Abesha, 1997; Birhanu, 1996; Markos, 1996; Seleshi, 1998; Seleshi, & Sentayehu, 1998; Sentayehu, 1998; Yekoyealem, 2005) reported that the type of parenting style predominantly practiced in Ethiopian context is authoritative.

Explaining the above local findings, one can observe notable difference in the predominant parenting style exercised in Ethiopia across historical time. For example, those studies conducted from the 1960s to 1970s revealed that authoritarian style was the predominantly exercised child rearing method in Ethiopia. Whereas those studied conducted from the 1990s and onwards

showed the predominant parenting style was authoritative. Since these findings are inconsistent, one cannot draw a conclusion regarding the predominant parenting style exercised in Ethiopia. For the differences in the findings of these two groups of studies, one major possibility seems to exist. That is, the results of the two groups of studies differ in the instruments used. As can be seen in Table 2 in the literature part, unlike the former, the latter studies (e.g. Abesha, 1997; Birhanu, 1996; Markos, 1996; Sentayehu, 1998; Yekoyealem, 2005) and their results similar to the Westerns, have used Western made parenting instruments which may not be appropriate for the Ethiopian context due to the differences in their cultural orientations.

Therefore, in order to fill this gap, which might have accounted for the inconsistent and even contradictory results, and to understand the issue in a more context specific manner, the researcher believes that there is a need for developing and validating a culturally appropriate parenting style scale. To this end, parenting style instrument was developed based on adolescents' self report about their parents' style of child rearing.

Adolescents' report on their parents parenting styles was used because of social desirability phenomenon. Parents' report on their parenting styles can differ from their children's perception of their parents' parenting styles (Field, Vega-Lahr, Safari, & Goldstein, 1987; Slabach, Morrow, & Watches, 1991). In line with this, Moskowitz and Schwartz (1982) recommended that children are more honest and able to act as knowledgeable informants about their parents' behavior. This assertion has also been supported by Feldman, Wentzel, and Gehring (1989), reporting that adolescents' perceptions of caregivers behavior tend to be more powerful predictor of social and emotional outcomes than reports from other informants. Moreover, Buri (1991) underscored that the actual parental behavior to which an individual has been exposed will largely affect that individual in the way and to the extent that he or she perceives that behavior.

As is evident from the aforementioned reviews, adolescents' self report about their parents' styles of parenting seems to be more convenient than parents' self report about their own parenting styles. Therefore, this study was designed to develop and validate parenting style scale as perceived by adolescents about their parents' styles of parenting.

Moreover, developing and validating parenting style instrument by itself may not be sufficient unless the researcher tries to show the type of parenting style that is most effective to children and adolescents healthy development. To this end, the relations of parenting style — which was developed and validated in this study — with adolescents' self esteem, identity style and psychological wellbeing was also examined since these variables are influenced by parenting style.

1. 2. Statement of the Problem

Among the most important factors that influence adolescents' psychosocial development and their psychological wellbeing are parents. Various Studies (e.g. Lamborn et al., 1991; Steinberg, Lamborn, Darling, Mounts, & Dornbusch, 1994) reported that children differ in their behavioral patterns due to differences in their parents' patterns of parenting. One of the main determinants of parents' parenting style is their cultural background (Tamminen, 2006). For example, when parents are exposed to a dominant given culture frequently, they are affected by the norms and values of that culture. Consequently, culturally learned norms and values offer standards that parents usually use to direct their own interaction with their children. As mentioned earlier in the background part, the Western individualistic culture encourages individuation while the non-Western collectivistic cultures promote interdependence with others (Greenfield & Suzuki, 1998; Hofsted & McCrae, 2004; Triandis, 1995). Therefore, these

different cultural orientations lead to different parent-child interactions (Chao, 1996) and the meanings given for such interactions also vary from culture to culture (Bornstein, 1995).

Since Baumrind (1966) has proposed parenting style prototype, various studies have been conducted in different cultures to indicate a type of parenting style that is most effective to children and adolescents' positive developmental outcomes. In this vein, the beneficial effect of authoritative parenting style and the negative effect of authoritarian type of parenting have been consistently demonstrated for the Western individualistic culture (Baumrind, 1971; Claes et al., 2003; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al., 1991). On the other hand, authoritarian parenting style contributed positively compared with other parenting styles on different developmental outcomes of children and adolescents in collectivistic cultures (Chao, 2001; Grusec et al., 1997; Kim & Rhoner, 2002; Papps, Walker, Trimboli, & Trimboli, 1995; Quoss & Zhao, 1995; Rosenthal, 1984).

As with the findings above, studies on parenting style in Ethiopia, though few in numbers, showed inconsistent results. For example, some researchers (Cox, 1967; Habtamu, 1979; Levine, 1965; Renner, 1974; Ringness & Gander, 1974) revealed that the dominant parenting style in Ethiopia is authoritarian type which is the characteristic of the non-Western collectivist cultures, whereas others (e.g. Abesha, 1997; Birhanu, 1996; Markos, 1996; Sintayehu, 1998; Yekoyealem, 2005) found that the predominant parenting style is authoritative type which is the characteristic of the Western individualistic culture.

For these inconsistent findings of the local studies, among other factors, the instruments used might have their own impacts. It is because recent local researchers (e.g. Abesha, 1997; Birhanu, 1996; Markos, 1996; Sintayehu, 1998; Yekoyealem, 2005) whose results compatible with the Western culture have used Western made parenting instruments, which may not be

appropriate for the Ethiopian context due to the differences in their cultural orientations. As a result, the reliability and validity of these measuring instruments used is questionable. This leads to the need to have a culturally reliable and valid parenting style scale.

Hence, the researcher felt that it is worthwhile to develop and validate locally made parenting style instrument and also examine adolescents' self-esteem, identity style and psychological wellbeing using the newly developed culturally appropriate tool. Therefore, the present study was designed to answer the following basic research questions.

1. What are the types of parenting styles exercised in Amhara region?
2. To what extent does the newly developed parenting style scale maintain its psychometric properties?
3. To what extent do the newly developed parenting styles relate with adolescents' self-esteem, identity style and psychological wellbeing?
4. What are the mediating roles of self-esteem and identity style in the relationship between parenting style and psychological wellbeing?
5. Do adolescents' perceived parenting styles differ due to their demographic variables (sex, family structure & number of siblings)?

1. 3. Objectives of the Study

The general objectives of this study were (a) to develop and validate Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style (APPS) scale, and then (b) to investigate parenting styles with adolescents' self-esteem, identity style, and psychological wellbeing. Specifically, the study intended to:

- identify the types of parenting styles exercised in Amhara region.

- examine the extent to which the newly developed parenting style scale maintains its psychometric properties.
- investigate the extent to which the newly developed parenting styles relate with adolescents' self-esteem, identity style, and psychological wellbeing.
- identify the direct and indirect effects between perceived parenting style and psychological wellbeing mediated by self esteem and identity style.
- examine whether or not there are significant differences in adolescents' perceived parenting styles due to their demographic variables (sex, family structure, & number of siblings).

1. 4. Significance of the Study

This study is significant in that, the newly developed parenting instrument is a new research product that is developed and validated within the Ethiopian context. Since there is a paucity of studies of this kind in Ethiopia, it is believed that the newly developed parenting instrument will be of a great importance for researchers, parents and other social service rendering organizations that work with parents. It is hoped that it will provide researchers with a valid and reliable instrument for measuring parenting style objectively. This helps local researchers save their time and adds reliability and validity to their research. It is also envisaged that researchers can use the development and validation procedures used in this study to develop and validate similar instruments. Moreover, it provides insight for parents and other interested stakeholders who work on the area by identifying the type of parenting style that is most effective to adolescents' healthy development (i.e., self-esteem, identity style & psychological wellbeing).

1. 5. Assumptions of the Study

The underlying assumptions in the current study were the following: First, it was assumed that adolescents are accurate reporters of their parents' style of parenting. The second assumption was that the data obtained from the sampled schools in the zonal towns would represent schools of the districts (woredas) found in these respective zones. Third, it was also assumed that anyone in the family who reared adolescents as a mother and/or a father was considered as a parent for adolescents.

1. 6. Scope of the Study

This study was delimited to general secondary school and preparatory school adolescents in the Amhara region. The reason why Amhara region was chosen for this study is because previous local studies have shown inconsistent results about the dominant parenting style in Amhara region. For example, studies conducted by Habtamu (1974) and Levin (1965) revealed that the dominant parenting style is authoritarian type, whereas Abesha (1997) and Yekoyealem (2005) showed authoritative parenting style is the dominant one. Therefore, in order to identify the types of parenting styles exercised in Amhara region, the region was chosen.

With respect to the participants of the study, students in general secondary and preparatory schools were chosen for two reasons: (1) these students are adolescents that this study aims at; (2) school adolescents, on one hand, they can provide information by filling the questionnaire, on the other hand, unlike out of school adolescents, they are easily accessible in their schools.

The present study also focused on examining the relation of parenting style with adolescents' self esteem, identity style, and psychological wellbeing. Among other variables related to parenting style, these variables were chosen for this study because they have not yet

been thoroughly investigated in Ethiopian context, and as evidenced in the previous research findings, these variables were influenced by parenting style.

1. 7. Definition of Terms

Throughout this study, the concepts *adolescent* and *youth* were used interchangeably. Ministry of Youth, Sports and Culture in Ethiopia defined *youth* as young persons (i.e., between the end of childhood and the beginning of adulthood) whose age bracket ranges from 15-29 years (MYSC, 2004). Therefore, general secondary and preparatory school students whose ages ranged from 15 to 29 were considered as adolescents or youth. *Identity style* is defined as adolescent's style of identity exploration. It is classified into three types: informational identity style (i.e., actively involved in identity exploration), normative identity style (i.e., exploring one's identity through others' expectations), and diffuse-avoidant identity style (i.e., avoiding identity exploration). *Parenting style* is defined as adolescents' perceptions of their parents' style of parenting. *Psychological wellbeing* is defined as adolescents' self-perceived success in important aspects of human functioning ranging from positive relationships, to feelings of competence, to having meaning and purpose in life. *Self-esteem* is defined as judgments that adolescents make about their own worth and the feelings connected with those judgments.

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This section presented the review of previous research on parenting style, and scale development and validation. The review started with the definition of parenting style, and then describing parenting as a psychological construct. This was followed by the key measures of parenting style. In line with this, scale development and validation models and procedures were presented. In addition, some of the determinants of parenting style were addressed. Furthermore, parenting style and its relation with identity style, self-esteem and psychological wellbeing were examined, and then followed by review of relevant parenting research in Ethiopia. Finally, the findings of the literature review were summarized, and the directions for the present study were also highlighted.

2. 1. Definitions of Parenting Style

Researchers define parenting style in various ways. To cite some, Darling and Steinberg (1993, p. 488) defined parenting style as “a constellation of attitudes toward the child that are communicated to the child and that, taken together, create an emotional climate in which the parents' behaviors are expressed.” Baumrind (1971) defined parenting style as how parents interact with their children via communication, discipline, nurturing and expectations. Furthermore, Baumrind (1991) in her later work defined parenting style as the stable patterns of parental behaviors and attitudes with which parents interact and deal with their children and adolescents along two parental dimensions: demandingness and responsiveness. Jacobsen, Edelstein, and Hofmann (1994) defined parenting style in a concise way as “how a parent parents.” Mize and Pettit (1997, p.291) also defined parenting style as “aggregates or constellations of behaviors that describe parent-child interactions over a wide range of situations and that are presumed to create a pervasive interactional climate.”

Generally, from the above definitions given, it can be said that parenting style is the behavioral, attitudinal, and emotional climate in which regular parent-child interactions occur in line with communication, nurturing, control, and maturity demand.

2. 2. Parenting as a Psychological Construct

Parenting is a socialization process through which parents transmit their cultural values, beliefs, traditions, and norms as well as other socially and culturally desirable behaviors to their children and adolescents to be good citizens of the society (Bradley & Caldwell, 1995). To this end, parents: (a) provide their children with warmth and security to bring about well-being and competence; (b) discipline and guide their children to foster the development of self-regulation and moral understanding; (c) engage with their children in interpersonal exchanges to form the basis for social relationships; and (d) provide stimulation to support children's intellectual development and learning (Bornstein, 1995; Fagot, 1994).

When attempting to understand the influence of parenting on child development, some researchers (e.g. Gershoff, 2002; Henderlong & Lepper, 2002; McDowell, Parke, & Wang, 2003) focused on parental behaviors, such as the techniques that parents use to discipline, advice, and reward their children. Other researchers (Dix, 1991; Gottman, Katz, & Hooven, 1996) focused on the role of emotions in parenting, for instance, how emotions are expressed in the parent-child relationships and in the family, and how parental emotions orient, organize, and motivate child-rearing. Still other prominent lines of researches have also been directed toward analyzing parental belief (Sigel & McGillicuddy-DeLisi, 2002), parental expectations (Goodnow, 2002), parental attitudes (Katainen, Raikkonen, & Keltikangas-Jarvinen, 1997), and parental goals (Hastings & Grusec, 1998).

As can be seen from the foci of the aforementioned studies, parenting is a multifaceted concept including parental attitudes, emotions, beliefs, and behaviors. This shows that parenting is a psychological construct which cannot be measured directly.

2. 3. Parenting Style Measures

Due to differing methods and theoretical approaches, there has been no general agreement on the most significant axes along which to compare parents (Gronlick & Ryan, 1989). Despite this, studies on parenting style usually follow one of the two approaches: parenting dimensional approach (e.g. Schaefer, 1959) and parenting typological approach (e.g. Baumrind, 1967).

2. 3. 1. Dimensional Approach of Parenting Style Measures

Parenting dimensions refer to the features, the qualities, and the descriptive scheme used to capture the nature of parenting, signify one set of building blocks on which the study of parenting is built (Skinner, Johnson, & Snyder, 2005). Early work on parenting styles examined a myriad of dimensions including: responsiveness / unresponsiveness (Rogers, 1960), democratic / autocratic (Baldwin, 1948), control / non-control (Schaefer, 1959), acceptance / rejection (Symonds, 1939), and restrictiveness / permissiveness (Becker, 1964).

Moreover, on the basis of the comprehensive assessment of parenting measures over the past six decades, Skinner et al. (2005) identified three dimensions that can be considered as a set of core features of parenting style. These are: (1) warmth versus rejection. Warmth is the most prominent dimension in almost all conceptualizations of parenting. Warmth refers to the expression of affection, acceptance, love, appreciation, kindness, and regard. The conceptual opposite of warmth is rejection. Parents are rejecting when they actively dislike their children. Expressions of rejection include aversion, hostility, harshness, over reactivity, irritability, and explosiveness. (2) Structure versus chaos. Structure refers to the provision of clear expectations

for mature behavior combined with consistent and appropriate limit setting. It is also described as firm control, restrictiveness and demandingness. The conceptual opposite of structure is chaos. Chaos refers to parenting behaviors that are inconsistent, erratic, unpredictable, undependable, and arbitrary. (3) Autonomy support versus coercion. Autonomy support characterizes interactions in which children are expected to express their views; and encourage them to actively explore their own goals, and preferences. In contrast, coercion refers to parenting behaviors that are highly restrictive. (See Skinner et al., 2005 for the review)

2. 3. 2. Typological Approach of Parenting Style Measures

Although early efforts in dimensional approach have contributed a lot as hallmark for parenting study, those attempts did not make clear-cut direction to understand parenting styles (Teti & Candelaria, 2002). Therefore, in the 1960s, perhaps, the most well known and influential typological approach for understanding parenting styles and serving as a milestone for the contemporary parenting study is the one that was developed by Baumrind (1967).

By extending the work of earlier researchers (Baldwin, 1948; Sears, Maccoby, & Levine, 1957) in identifying the key dimensions of parenting, Baumrind (1966, 1967) proposed that parents fall into one of the three parenting style categories: authoritarian, authoritative and permissive. These three parenting styles differ in behaviors, values, and standards in which parents expect their children to adopt.

Authoritative parenting style is characterized by high on both warmth and control. Authoritative parents set standards for the child's conduct but form expectations that are consistent with the child's developmental needs and capabilities. They place a high value on the development of autonomy and self-direction for their child. Authoritative parents deal with their

child in a rational and issue-oriented manner, frequently involving in discussion and explanation with their child over matters of discipline (Baumrind, 1971).

Authoritarian parenting style is characterized by low on warmth and high on control. Authoritarian parents place a high value on obedience and conformity, favoring more punitive, absolute, and forceful disciplinary measures. Verbal give-and-take is not common in authoritarian family, because the underlying belief of authoritarian parents is that the child should accept without question the rules and standards established by the parents. They tend not to support independent behavior and, instead, place a good deal of importance on restricting the child's autonomy (Baumrind, 1971).

Permissive parenting style, contrary to authoritarian parenting style, typically displays high levels of warmth and low levels of control. Permissive parents behave in an accepting, caring, and somewhat more passive way in matters of discipline. They place relatively few demands on the child's behavior, giving the child a high degree of freedom to act as he or she wishes (Baumrind, 1971).

Later on, Maccoby and Martin (1983) updated Baumrind's (1966, 1967, 1971) parenting style model using two concepts: parental demandingness and parental responsiveness. According to Maccoby and Martin, demandingness is conceptualized as control and supervision. In contrast, responsiveness is conceptualized as warmth, acceptance, and involvement. The interaction between these two concepts produced four distinct parenting styles: authoritarian, authoritative, indulgent and neglecting.

Accordingly, authoritarian parents are characterized as high on demandingness but low on responsiveness, whereas authoritative parents are described as high on both demandingness and responsiveness. Indulgent parents are characterized by low on demandingness but high on

responsiveness while neglecting parents are depicted as low on both demandingness and responsiveness (Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

The main difference between Baumrind's (1966) and Maccoby and Martin's (1983) parenting style models is that Baumrind discussed permissive parenting, whereas Maccoby and Martin differentiated between two types of permissive parenting styles (i.e., indulgent parenting style & neglecting parenting style).

2. 4. Scale Development and Validation Models

Although a large number of studies (e.g. Ang, 2005; Capaldi, 1992; Hassad, 2007; Neff, 2003) have conducted on scale construction, most of them have focused on scale validation and over looked scale development. The possible reason why this happened is, perhaps, the enormity and the many extremely complex aspects the scale development process comprises.

However, there are studies (e.g.Churchill, 1979; De Vellis, 2003; Gerbing & Anderson, 1988; Hinkin, 1998; Slavec & Drnovsek, 2012; Spector, 1992; Voss, Spangenberg, & Grohmann, 2003; Walsh & Beatty, 2007) that combine those fragmented components together into a comprehensive model for scale development and validation. Without such a model, the novice scale developer will be in trouble. Therefore, the following four scale development and validation models seem to be more comprehensive.

2. 4. 1. Churchill's Scale Development Model

Churchill's (1979) scale development and validation model involves a series of eight steps beginning with specifying domain of a construct and culminating in the development of norms for the scale. (See Figure 1)

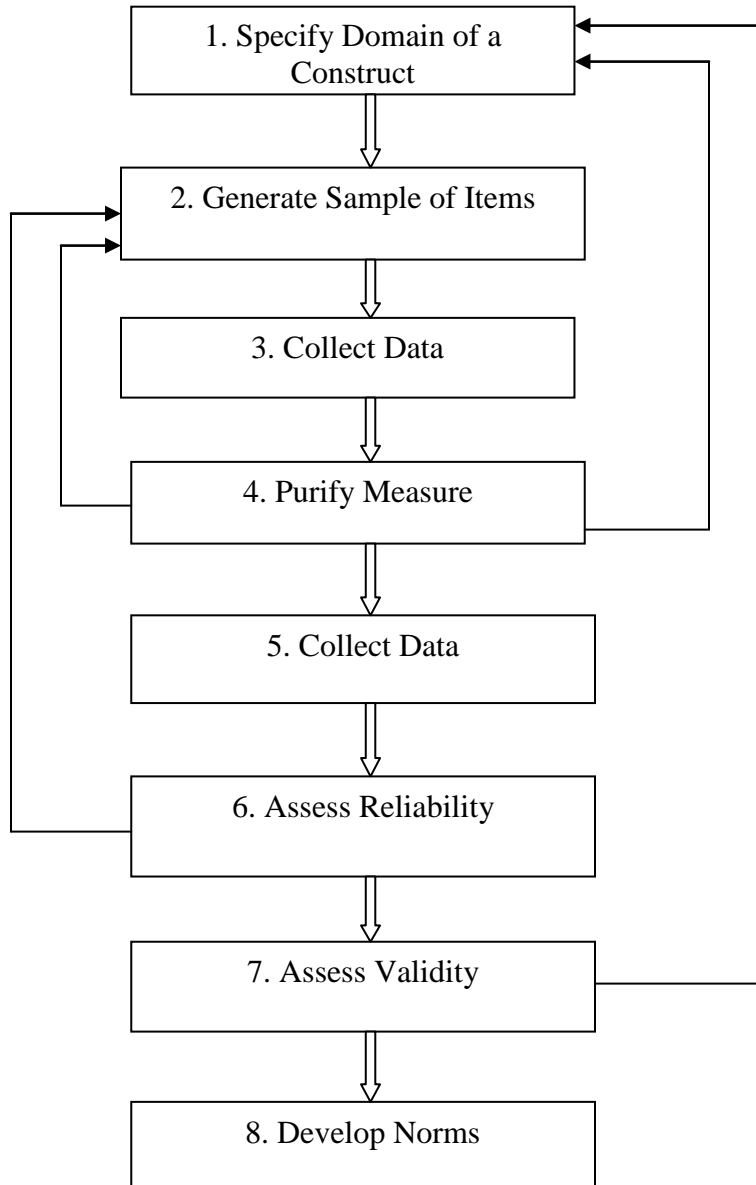


Figure 1. Churchill's procedure for developing better measures. Adapted from "A Paradigm for Developing Better Measures of Marketing Constructs," by G. A. Churchill, 1979, *Journal of Marketing Research*, 16, 2, p. 66.

2. 4. 2. Hinkin's Scale Development Model

As shown in Figure 2, Hinkin's (1998) scale development model has six steps. These are: item generation, questionnaire development and administration, initial item reduction using item

analysis and exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, convergent and discriminant validity, and replication.

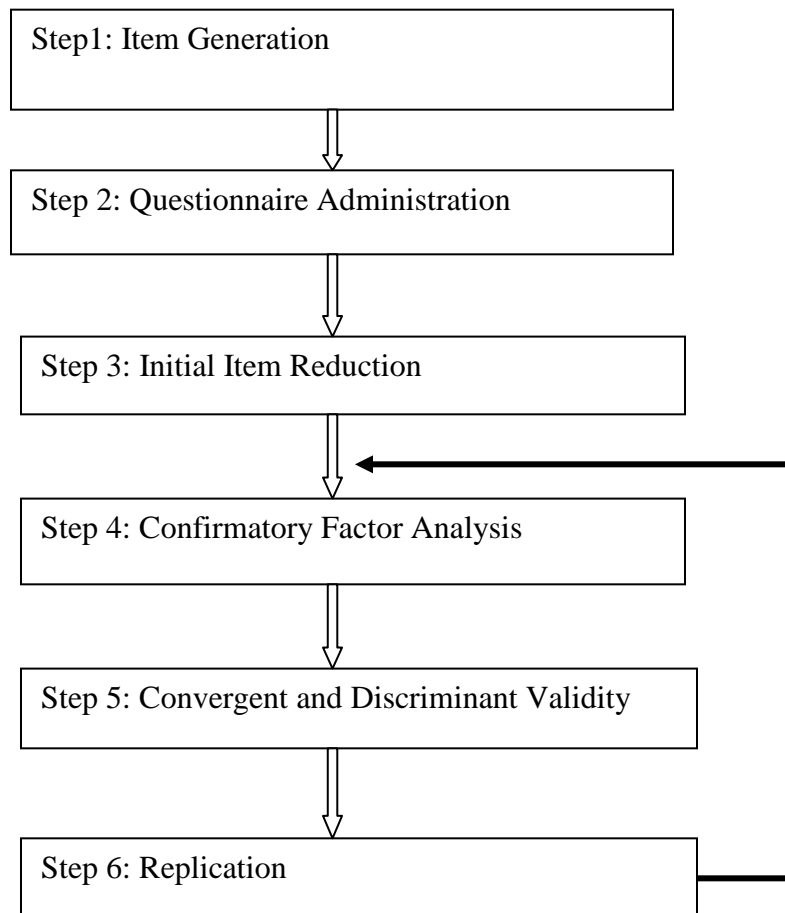


Figure 2. Hinkin's scale development model. Adapted from "A Brief Tutorial on the Development of Measures for Use in Survey Questionnaires," by T. R. Hinkin, 1998, *Organizational Research Methods, 1*, p. 106.

2. 4. 3. De Vellis's Scale Development Model

As shown in Figure 3, DeVellis's (2003) scale development and validation model comprises eight steps. These are: determining clearly what it is intended to measure, generating item pool,

determining scale format, experts review, inclusion of validating items, item administration, evaluating items and optimize scale length.

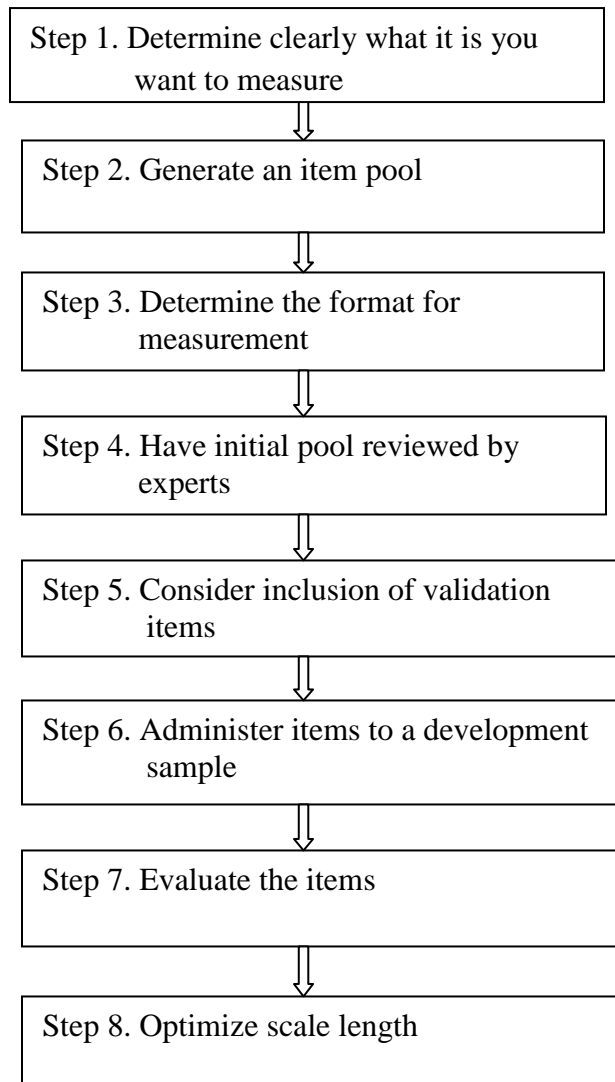


Figure 3. De Vellis's scale development model. Adapted from "Scale Development: Theory and Applications," by R. F. DeVellis, 2003, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, 26, pp. 60-101.

2. 4. 4. Slavec and Drnovsek's Scale Development Model

Slavec and Drnovsek's (2012) scale development model contained ten steps and three phases. As shown in Figure 4, the first phase focuses on the theoretical importance and existence

of the construct, the second phase deals with the representativeness and appropriateness of data collection, and the third phase focuses on the statistical analysis and statistical evidence of the construct.

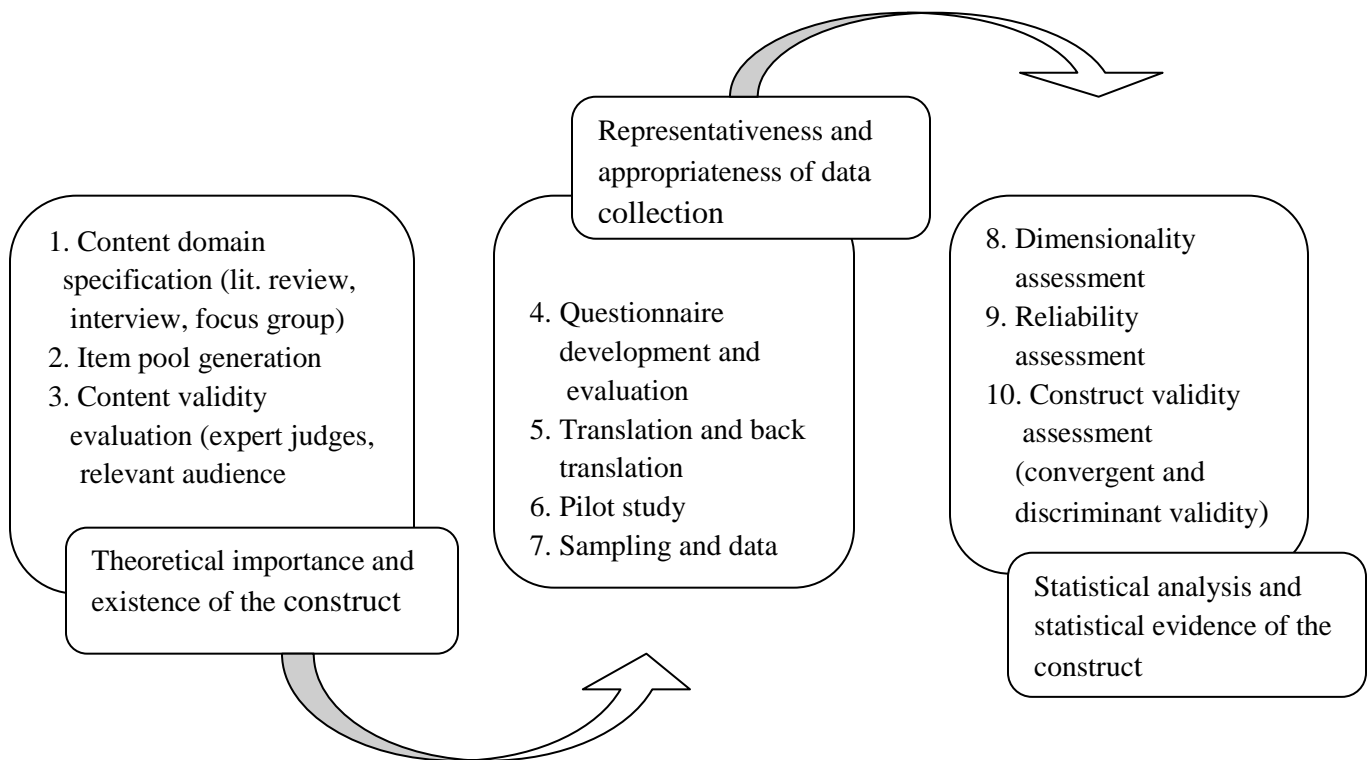


Figure 4. Ten steps and three phases in scale development. Adapted from, “A Perspective on Scale Development in Entrepreneurship Research,” by A. Slavec, & M. Drnovsek, 2012, *Economic and Business Review*, p.43.

As can be seen in the above four scale development and validation models, there are some sorts of variation though they are comprehensive. This is so because the methods of their studies differ from one another and thereby the methods used determine their study procedures or steps.

Cognizant of this, for the current study, the researcher proposed a model by adapting and integrating these four scale development and validation models (see Figure 5 in the method part).

2. 5. Major Procedures in Scale Development and Validation Process

2. 5. 1. Specifying a Construct

The first step in scale development and validation process involves specifying a construct. With regard to this, different authors (e.g. Churchill, 1979; MacKenzie, 2003; Schwab, 1980; Spector, 1992) underlined that a scale developer should identify the nature of a construct and its conceptual theme in the first stage of scale development process. Moreover, Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) stated that there is no way to know the adequacy with which a construct is measured without having well specified construct.

Once a construct is clearly identified, it should be carefully defined in a clear and an unambiguous term to address what the construct is intended to conceptually represent or capture (Hinkin, 1995; Hudson, 1994; Kerlinger, 1986; MacKenzie, 2003). Therefore, it is important on this stage for scale developers to be as clear and concise in identifying and defining a construct as possible.

2. 5. 2. Generating Items for a Construct

After a construct has been specified and conceptually defined, items fully representing the conceptual definition of the construct should be generated (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Likewise, Clark and Watson (1995) stated that the fundamental goal of item generation is to represent adequate sample of items that are potentially relevant to the target construct. For this purpose, items can be derived from a variety of sources, including reviews of literature, deduction from a theoretical definition of a construct, examination of other measures of a

construct that already existed, suggestions from experts in the field, and interviews or focus group discussions (Churchill, 1979; Haynes, Richard, & Kubany, 1995).

Following this, initial drafted items need to be written in the appropriate way. With regard to this, some authors (e.g., De Vellis, 1991; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994) suggested the following criteria in the writing up of items: (a) Items must be unambiguous. Items should be precise so that the respondent knows exactly what the researcher wants an answer to. That is, words should not mean different things to different individuals in the population under study. (b) Use simple language. The wording must be simple enough for the least educated respondents, at the same time not discouraging their intelligence. (c) Respondents must be competent to answer. In asking respondents to provide information, the scale developer must ask himself or herself continually whether all respondents will be able to do so reliably. (d) The questions must be relevant to the respondents. Every respondent must be able to give his or her opinion on each question. (e) Short items must be used. The respondents should be able to read an item quickly, understand its intent, and provide an answer without difficulty.

2. 5. 3. Determining Scaling Format

There are different formats for scaling. Some of them are the following: (a) Thurstone scaling. In Thurstone scale, each item comprises several statements that have been ranked in order of intensity (Dawis, 1998). The respondent then selects the responses that best describe how he or she feels (Fischer & Corcoran, 1994). (b) Guttman Scaling. Guttman scale, like Thurstone scale, involves a series of statements that have been ranked in order of intensity. But unlike Thurstone scaling, Guttman scale involves selecting all the items with which one agrees until one's level of intensity on the construct is reached (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). (c) Semantic differential scaling. Semantic differential scale comprises pairs of words that represent

the opposites of an attribute (e.g. presence and absence) separated by a set of several response categories. Then, the respondent marks the category along the continuum that best represents his or her position on the attribute (Abell, Springer, & Kamata, 2009). (d) Binary options. In Binary options, an item is presented in a statement or a question form, and respondents are asked to mark a dichotomous response, such as “yes” or “no”, or “agree” or “disagree” (De Vellis, 1991). (e) Forced choice. Forced choice scale is often used in personality assessment. Items are presented with a pair of words or statements, and respondents are asked to select the one that they support most strongly (Hudson, 1982). (f) Likert scaling. Likert scale is the most commonly used scale in research. Likert-type scale typically involves an item in the form of a statement, followed by response options that indicate varying degrees of agreement or frequency (Dawis, 1998). The response options of Likert-type scale do not exceed seven because writing meaningfully different labels become very difficult beyond this point (Abell et al., 2009).

In addition to scaling format, a scale should contain clear instructions to guide respondents through the process of completing the scale. If respondents do not understand how to answer the items, serious errors may be occurred. To minimize this kind of error, Hudson (1994) suggested the following guidelines for instruction writing. That is, instructions for the respondent: (a) keep it simple, (b) explain what is being measured, (c) show a response key, (d) indicate where to put responses, (e) explain that there is no right or wrong answer.

2. 5. 4. Assessing Content Validity

Once items that represent a construct of interest have been generated, the content validity of the generated items should be assessed. Straub, Boudreau, and Gefen (2004, p. 424) defined content validity as “the degree to which items in an instrument reflect the content universe to which the instrument will be generalized.” Content validity is often viewed as a minimum

psychometric requirement for measurement adequacy and is the first step in construct validation of a new measure (Schriesheim, Powers, Scandura, Gardiner, & Lankau, 1993). When assessing content validity, two related judgments should be made: (1) Is individual item representative of an aspect of the content domain of the construct? (2) Are items as a set collectively representative of the entire content domain of the construct? (DeVos, Strydom, Fouche, & Delport, 2002). For this purpose, therefore, it is important to obtain experts who can judge the content validity of a scale. Expert reviewers should evaluate the extent to which each item measures a construct under study.

In line with this, researchers (e.g. Anderson & Gerbing 1991; Hinkin & Tracey, 1999; Lawshe, 1975) have established different methods to assess the content adequacy of a new measure. For example, Lawshe (1975) specified a formula to determine a minimum Content Validity Ratio (CVR) for different expert judge sizes (See Table 1). In order to utilize Lawshe's formula, expert judges are expected to rate each item as *not necessary*, or *useful but not essential*, or *essential*.

$$\text{CVR} = \frac{n_e - N_2}{N_2}, \text{ or } \frac{2 n_e}{N} - 1$$

Where,

n_e is the number of raters indicating "essential" and

N is the total number of raters

Table 1

Minimum Values of Content Validity Ratio (CVR) for Different Expert Judge Sizes

No. of expert judges	Minimum value	No. of expert judges	Minimum value
5	.99	13	.54
6	.99	14	.51
7	.99	15	.49
8	.75	20	.42
9	.78	25	.37
10	.62	30	.33
11	.59	35	.31
12	.56	40	.29

Adapted from “A Quantitative Approach to Content Validity,” by C. H. Lawshe, 1975, *Personnel Psychology*, 28, p. 568.

2. 5. 5. Scale Purification

After assuring content validity of a new measure, it has to be administered to a large sample size that represents a population for which a measure is designed. Based on the data obtained from the samples, the researcher examines the psychometric properties of the scale. This is usually done using item analysis, exploratory factor analysis, confirmatory factor analysis, and reliability analysis (Hinkin, 1998).

Item Analysis

Item analysis provides an overview of the performance of items in a scale. Therefore, a researcher uses item analysis to identify items that perform particularly poor or particularly well. According to DeVellis (1991), the most common techniques for analyzing items in a scale

development process are: item mean, inter item correlation, item-total correlation, and alpha if item deleted.

With regard to item mean, Clark and Watson (1998) indicated that if a scale has a five-point response scale, an item with a mean score of 3.1 is better than an item with a mean score of 1.3. In line with this, De Vellis (1991) explained that

A mean close to the center of the range of possible scores is desirable....Generally, items with means too near to an extreme of the response range will have low variances and those that vary over a narrow range will correlate poorly with other items. (p. 83)

On the other hand, item-total correlation shows the correlation of each item score with the total scale score (De Vellis, 1991). Therefore, items having an item-total correlation coefficient less than .50 should be eliminated (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010).

With regard to inter-item correlation, it shows the correlation among items in a given scale. Therefore, items having correlation coefficients less than .30 should be excluded from the scale (Flynn, Schroeder, & Sakakibara, 1994; Hair et al., 2010).

Exploratory Factor Analysis

There are two basic types of factor analysis: exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis (Thompson, 2004).

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) is used to explore the underlying structure of a collection of observed variables or items, when there is no a priori hypothesis about the factor structure (Hurley et al, 1997). It is in this sense, it is “exploratory” in nature as it allows the researcher to determine the underlying dimensions or factors that exist in a set of data. Therefore, exploratory factor analysis is generally thought of as more of a model generating procedure, and

it is usually manipulated through general purpose statistical software packages such as SPSS, SAS, and Stata (Stevens, 1996).

Exploratory factor analysis has underlying assumptions. As noted by Hatcher and Stepanski (1994), the underlying assumptions of EFA are: (a) Interval-level of measurement. All analyzed variables should be assessed on an interval or ratio level of measurement. (b) Random sampling. Each participant contributes one score on each observed variable and these sets of scores should represent a random sample drawn from a population of interest. (c) Linearity. The relationship between all observed variables should be linear. (d) Normal distributions. Each observed variable should be normally distributed. Whether the distribution is normal or non normal, it can be detected using skewness and kurtosis values. With this regard, Harrington (2009) stated that skewness is a measure of how asymmetric a distribution is. If most of the scores are below the mean, then the distribution is positively skewed, whereas if most of the scores are above the mean, then the distribution is negatively skewed. On the other, kurtosis is a measure of how well the shape of the bell conforms to that of a normal distribution. Positive kurtosis, or a leptokurtic distribution, occurs when the middle of the distribution has a higher peak than expected for a normal distribution, whereas negative kurtosis, or a platykurtic distribution, occurs when the middle of the distribution is flatter than expected for a normal distribution.

In light of this, the recommended thresholds for the assumption of normality, skew and kurtosis values should be within ± 2 for the data to be normally distributed (Garson, 2007). Other researcher (e.g. Kline, 2005) considers variables with an absolute value of skew > 3 as extremely skew. However, for the kurtosis value, much less consensus and more lenient rules have been suggested. For example, Garson uses a range within ± 3 , and others use a value no greater than 7 (Curran, West, & Finch, 1996; West et al., 1995), or a value no greater than 10 (Kline, 2005).

According to Williams, Onsman, and Brown (2010), exploratory factor analysis is performed through five sequential steps. The first step is assuring whether or not the data is suitable for factor analysis. This could be determined by examining sample size and factorability of a correlation matrix.

Sample size requirement is a key consideration in factor analysis. With regard to this, different authors set different rules, such as respondent-to-item ratio, respondent-to-item ratio together with sample size, item-factor ratio together with sample size and its factor pattern coefficient or communality, and sample size alone.

With regard to respondent-to-item ratio, for example, Hair, Anderson, Tatham, and Black (1998) suggested that a minimum ratio of 5 to 1 is acceptable size. In a similar vein, Comrey (1988) also suggested that a sample size of 200 is usually acceptable since most scales have no more than 40 items. Moreover, Stevens (1996) noted that the number of participants per variable is the most appropriate way to determine sample size when it ranges from 5:1 to 20:1 participants per item.

With respect to respondent-to-item ratio together with sample size, Gorsuch (1983, p. 332) suggested, "An absolute minimum ratio is five individuals to each item, but not less than 100 individuals for any analysis." In line with this, Tinsley and Tinsley (1987) indicated that 5:1 to 10:1 respondent per item and up to a maximum of 300 respondents are acceptable size. Moreover, DeVellis (1991) recommended that a factor analysis of a scale with 20 items, 100 respondents might be too few, but for a 90-item analysis, 400 might be acceptable.

In terms of the total sample size, Comrey and Lee (1992) suggested the following criteria: 50 as very poor, 100 as poor, 200 as fair, 300 as very good, and 1000 as excellent. In this vein,

Worthington and Whittaker (2006), and Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) noted that it is comforting to have at least 300 cases for any factor analysis.

On the other hand, the most critical issue on the adequacy of sample size for factor analysis is how saturated the factors are by the measured items. With this notion, Guadagnoli and Velicer (1988) indicated that replicable factors tend to be estimated if (a) factors are each defined by four or more measured items with factor loadings each greater than $|.60|$ regardless of sample size; or (b) factors are each defined with 10 or more measured items with factor loadings each around $|.40|$ if sample size is greater than 150; or (c) sample size is at least 300. Moreover, Worthington and Whittaker (2006) reported that (1) if communalities are greater than $.50$ or there are 10:1 items per factor with factor loadings of roughly $|.40|$, then a sample size of 150 to 200 is likely to be adequate; or (2) if communalities are all at least $.60$ or there are a minimum of 4:1 items per factor with factor loadings above $|.60|$, then even smaller sample sizes may suffice. Furthermore, MacCallum, Widaman, Zhang and Hong (1999) also showed that if the values of communalities are around $.50$, sample sizes of 100 to 200 are required.

Differently, Henson and Roberts (2006) have argued the above mentioned sample size rules and they suggested that the adequacy of sample size depends in large part to the features of the obtained data, which means a priori decisions about sample size may be difficult, perhaps the best rule of thumb to follow is to get the largest possible sample.

On top of the above sample size criteria, to determine if the data are likely to be factorability, Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Tests of Sphericity should be checked.

KMO measure of sampling adequacy examines sample sufficiency (Kaiser, 1974), and its index ranging from 0 to 1. Therefore, if value of KMO is greater than $.50$, one can proceed with

factor analysis (Malhotra, 2005). Regarding this, Kaiser also provided the following criteria for sample adequacy: .90 = marvelous, .80 = meritorious, .70 = middling, .60 = mediocre, .50 = miserable, below .50 = unacceptable.

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity measures the presence of correlations among the variables (Kaiser, 1974). It tests whether some significant correlations exist among the variables being studied. Thus, a significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($< .05$) is required to proceed with factor analysis (Malhotra, 2005).

The second step in the EFA is identifying appropriate method of extraction. There are five basic extraction methods (1) Principal Component Analysis (PCA), (2) Maximum Likelihood (ML), (3) Alpha Factoring (AF), (4) Image Factoring (IF), and (5) Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Without getting into the details, Gorsuch (1990) realized that these methods of extraction could have similar results with larger sample sizes. Moreover, Cliff (1987) and Thompson (2004) noted that the practical differences among these extraction methods are often insignificant, particularly when variables have high reliability. Among the above extraction methods, PCA and PAF are, more often than not, used for factor analysis (Henson & Roberts, 2006). If the purpose is to reduce a large number of items into a set of factors or components, PCA is recommended, whereas the purpose is to identify the latent variables which are contributing to the common variance in a set of measured variables, PAF is advisable (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999).

The third step is identifying methods of factor rotation. The purpose of factor rotation is to simplify the factor structure of a group of items. In other words, it makes high item loadings on one factor and smaller item loadings on the remaining factor solutions (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Regarding this, there are two types of factor rotations: orthogonal rotation and oblique

rotation. Orthogonal rotation method assumes that the factors in the analysis are uncorrelated, whereas oblique rotation method assumes that the factors are correlated (Fabrigar et al., 1999; Gorsuch, 1983, Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In line with this, Tabachnick and Fidell suggested that oblique rotation method is preferable if the factor correlation matrix for values over .32, whereas values below .32, orthogonal rotation method is appropriate.

The fourth step is determining factor extracting criteria. The aim of factor extraction is to reduce a large number of items into small factors or components. Therefore, given the choice and sometimes the confusing nature of factor analysis, no single criteria should be assumed to determine factor extraction (Costello & Osborne, 2005). In this view, Thompson and Daniel (1996) stated that the simultaneous use of multiple decision rules is appropriate and often desirable to determine factors. With this intent, various authors (Carragher & Buckley, 1991; Comrey & Lee, 1992; Costello & Osborne, 2005; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1995; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, Thompson & Daniel, 1996) suggested the following factor extraction criteria or decision rules:

1. Factors with eigenvalues > 1.0 . The eigenvalue of a factor represents the amount of variance of the variables accounted for by that factor (Norris & Lecavalier, 2009). The goal of factor analysis is to account for as much variance as possible in a set of observed variables or items, with a smaller number of factors. For this purpose, factors with eigenvalues > 1 rule is performed on the correlation matrix. Variables are standardized, therefore, each variable has a variance of 1, and the total variance is equal to the number of variables used in the analysis (Gorsuch, 1983).
2. Factors above the elbow line in the Scree plot. The concept of scree is described as the rubble of loose rock which is not solidly attached to mountains and that is collected at the

bottom of the mountains (Cattell, 1966). Therefore, the solid mountains are analogous to noteworthy factors that should be retained. Trivial factors, however, are analogous to scree. The scree plot is a two dimensional graph with factors or components on the X-axis and eigenvalues on the Y-axis. The point at which the curve decreases and straightens out is the *elbow* of the graph that researchers include factors before that point (Fabrigar et al., 1999).

3. The cumulative percent of variance extracted by the factor should account for at least 50 percent of the variance (Hair et al., 1995).

Interpreting a factor or giving that factor a name, a minimum of three items (Comrey, 1988); greater than .32 factor loadings; and communality (i.e., the amount of variance explained for each item in the factor solution) above .50 are required (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006a; Maccallum, 1990; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006) though the choice of a cutoff point for factor loading to be interpreted is a matter of a researcher preference. With regard to factor loading, Comrey and Lee (1992) also suggested that loadings $> .71$ are considered excellent, $> .63$ are considered very good, $> .55$ are considered good, $> .45$ are considered fair, and less than .32 are considered poor.

Regarding the labeling of factors, Kim and Meuller (1978) noted that once the number of factors and their indicators are identified, each cluster of items should be carefully examined to determine the underlying factor and its substantive meaning.

Reliability Analysis

Reliability is defined as the extent to which a questionnaire, test, observation or any measurement procedure produces the same results on repeated trials. In short, it is the stability or consistency of scores over time or across raters (De Vos et al., 2002).

According to DeVellis (1991) and Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), there are three aspects of reliability, namely: equivalence, stability and internal consistency (homogeneity). The first aspect, equivalence, refers to the amount of agreement between two or more instruments that are administered at nearly the same point in time. Equivalence is measured through a parallel forms procedure in which one administers alternative forms of the same measure to either the same group or different group of respondents. The second aspect of reliability, stability, is said to occur when the same or similar scores are obtained with repeated testing with the same group of respondents. In other words, the scores are consistent from one time to the next. Stability is assessed through a test-retest procedure that involves administering the same measurement instrument to the same individuals under the same conditions after some period of time. The third aspect of reliability is internal consistency. Internal consistency concerns the extent to which items on the test or instrument are measuring the same thing. Internal consistency is estimated via the split-half reliability, coefficient alpha or the Kuder-Richardson formula 20 (KR-20). Specifically, coefficient alpha is typically used during scale development with items that have several response options.

Reliability estimates can range in value from 0 to 1, and it is important to know how high this estimate must be for the scale developer to claim that a reliable measurement tool has been developed. In other words, a satisfactory level of reliability depends on how a measure is used. For the social sciences, a reliability coefficient of .70 or greater is considered acceptable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). In line with this, DeVellis (1991) recommended that coefficient alpha below .60 as unacceptable, .60 to .65 undesirable, .65 to .70 minimally acceptable, .70 to .80 acceptable, .80 to .90 very good; and if much above .90 excellent.

In general, high reliability coefficient is desirable as it reflects that items are homogeneous and thereby measuring the same underlying property.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Although the underlying factors or dimensions of a scale are determined by EFA, the true test must come from confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) approach. Unlike EFA, CFA (a) yields unique factor solution and define a testable model, (b) tests the extent to which a hypothesized model fits the data or suggests alternative parameterization for model improvement, (c) and adequately tests the factorial invariance (Bollen,1989). It is, therefore, a more powerful test of construct validity.

According to Stevens (1996), the major objective in CFA is determining if the relationships between the variables in the hypothesized model resemble the relationships between the variables in the observed data set. In other word, the analysis determines the extent to which the proposed covariance matches the observed covariance. In line with this, Abell et al. (2009) explaining that if the factor structure or the measurement model fits the data well, it is an indication that the responses of participants to the scale items are consistent with the hypothesized factor structure. If not, there is a need for possible revision of the scale configurations.

CFA like EFA should fulfill the underlying assumptions of interval or ratio level of measurement, random sampling, linearity, and normal distribution. On top of this, CFA also requires: (a) specification of a model a priori, (b) the number of factors, and (c) which items load on which factor (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996).

In order to test how well the model fits the data, CFA demands special purpose software packages such as AMOS (Arbuckle, 1999), CALIS (SAS Institute, 1992), LISREL (Joreskog & Sorbom, 1996); Mplus (Muthen & Muthen, 1998) just to name a few.

Using one of the above software packages, CFA can produce different fit indices to aid in the assessment of the degree to which a hypothesized model fits the observed data (Brown, 2006; Kline, 2005; Hu & Bentler, 1999). Various authors (e.g., Hair et al., 1998; Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1992; Jaccard & Wan, 1996; Joreskog & Sorbom, 2002) classified fit measures into three categories: measures of absolute fit, measures of relative fit, and measures of parsimonious fit.

Absolute fit measures indicate how well the correlation or covariance of the hypothesized model fits the correlation or covariance of the actual or observed data. The most common absolute fit measures assessing these general features are the chi square, the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA).

Chi-square (χ^2) test is a classic goodness-of-fit measure to determine overall model fit (Thompson, 2004). A chi-square statistic tests the null hypothesis that there is no statistically significant difference in the observed and hypothesized correlation or covariance matrices. Therefore, according to Hatcher (1994), if the model provides a good fit, the chi-square value should be relatively small, and the corresponding p -value should be relatively large ($> .05$ and preferably closer to 1.00). In other words, a statistically significant chi-square ($< .05$) and rejecting the null hypothesis indicates that the model does not fit the data. By contrast, a small chi-square and failure to reject the null hypothesis is an indication of good fit of the model to the data (Abell et al., 2009). However, the chi-square test is widely recognized to be problematic (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Byrne, 2001; Stevens, 1996). It is because sensitive to sample size and

it becomes more and more difficult to retain the null hypothesis as the sample size increases. To minimize this problem, the chi-square / degrees of freedom ratio is recommended. Therefore, an acceptable criterion for chi-square to degree of freedom ratio is < 2 (Hatcher, 1994; Ullman, 2001).

GFI is conceptually similar to the R^2 in multiple regressions (Kline, 1998). It is the proportion of variance in the sample correlation or covariance accounted for by the predicted model, with values ranging from zero (no fit) to one (perfect fit). By convention, GFI should be equal to or greater than .90 as indicative of an acceptable model (Joreskog & Sorbom, 2002).

RMSEA measures the discrepancy between the observed and estimated covariance matrices per degree of freedom. Values less than .08 deemed acceptable, whereas values greater than .10 are generally unacceptable (Garver & Mentzer, 1999; Hatcher, 1994).

Relative fit measures are measures of fit relative to the independence model, which assumes that there are no relationships in the data (thus a poor fit) and the saturated model, which assumes a perfect fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The most common relative fit measures are: comparative fit index (CFI, Bentler, 1990), normed fit index (NFI, Bentler & Bonnett, 1980), non-normed fit index (NNFI, Bentler & Bonnett, 1980), and incremental fit index (IFI, Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 1998). Estimates for the CFI, NFI, NNFI, and IFI, ranged from 0 to 1, with values of .90 or above indicating acceptable values of fit (Byrne, 2001).

Parsimonious fit measures are sometimes called adjusted fit measures. These fit statistics are analogous to the adjusted R^2 in the multiple regression analysis. Common parsimonious fit measures are adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI) and the parsimonious goodness of fit index (PGFI). Ideally, AGFI and PGFI values greater than .90 indicated an acceptable model (Garver

& Mentzer, 1999; Joreskog & Sorbom, 2002); however, typically parsimony based measures having .50 or greater is deemed acceptable (Mulaik et al., 1989).

When examining the measurement model, fit indices should ideally correspond to the recommended values. However, it is important to note that all indices are not important. At the same time, it is not possible to achieve perfect values for all indices (Garver & Mentzer, 1999). Thus, as suggested by Joreskog and Sorbom (2002), and Lindquist et al. (2001), the areas of greater focus were goodness of fit index (GFI) and adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), normed fit index (NFI) and non-normed fit index (NNFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and chi-square / df ratio.

In addition to the above model fit indices, it is important to examine the significance tests for standardized factor loadings. The standardized loadings signify the correlation between each item and its corresponding factor, and the square of standardized loadings represents R-squared. With this regard, items with t - values above 2.0 being considered significant loadings (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Furthermore, Hatcher (1994) noted that t - values greater than 1.96 are significant at $p < .05$; those greater than 2.58 are significant at $p < .01$; and those greater than 3.29 are significant at $p < .001$.

2. 5. 6. Scale Validation

Validity defined as the extent to which a scale measures what it claims to measure (Gregory, 1992). Validity and reliability are related to each other. According to Rubin and Babbie (2005), it is impossible to have validity without reliability. For instance, if a measurement tool measures what it claims to measure, then, by definition, it must be reliable.

There are different types of validity. For example, face validity, content validity, criterion-related validity, construct validity, convergent validity, and discriminant validity.

Face validity refers to the extent to which items on an instrument appear to measure a particular construct as viewed by laypersons. This common sense approach to validity is often important in convincing laypersons to allow the use of an instrument regardless of the availability of more statistical evidences (Bailey, 1994).

Criterion validity involves multiple measurements and is established by comparing scores on an instrument with an external criterion known to or believed to measure the concept being studied. It is also apparent that the criterion used should itself be valid and reliable (DeVos et al., 2002).

Construct validity is a scale's ability to measure what it is supposed to measure (Haynes et al., 1995; Hinkin, 1998). Construct validity is perhaps the most difficult of the other major approaches to validation. The difficulty arises in part from the highly abstract nature of a construct. As a construct cannot be measured directly, its existence must be inferred from the evidence at hand (Hudson, 1981).

Convergent validity is the extent to which items in a scale correlate positively and significantly with each other. A construct is said to possess convergent validity if items of a construct are highly correlated (Kaplan & Sacuzzo, 1993; Netemeyer, Bearden, & Sharma, 2003). For a convergent validity check, (a) Bagozzi, Yi, and Phillips (1991) suggested that all items should load on their hypothesized dimensions with values greater than .32 and the loadings should be positive and significant. (b) Ahire, Golhar, and Waller (1996), and Green, Wu, Whitten, and Medlin (2006) recommended for assessing convergent validity using the Bentler-Bonett coefficients (i.e., NFI & NNFI) with values greater than .90 indicating strong convergent validity. (c) Anderson and Gerbing (1988) stated that convergent validity is assessed through *t* values for the factor loadings. If all *t* values are above two, then this is viewed as evidence

supporting convergent validity exists. (d) Hair et al. (2010) also suggested that there is convergent validity if composite reliability (CR) is greater than average variance extracted (AVE), where the values of composite reliability and average variance extracted are greater than .70 and .50 respectively. Composite reliability which assesses the variance extracted compared to the error in the model, whereas average variance extracted is the average of the sum of the squared standardized factor loadings and is an indication of the amount of shared variance between the items compared to the error (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2006b; Netemeyer et al., 2003).

On top of this, the convergent validity of a new measure can also be assessed by correlating with other theoretically similar construct. If the two theoretically similar instruments correlate positively and significantly, it is evidenced that there is convergent validity (Brown, 1983; Netemeyer et al, 2003; Schwab, 1980).

Discriminant validity, on the other hand, is the extent to which items representing a factor discriminate that factor from other items representing other factors (Mentzer, Flint, & Kent, 1999). A scale exhibits discriminant validity if its constituent items estimate only one factor (Bagozzi, et al., 1991). For discriminant validity check, Garver and Mentzer (1999) suggested that items from one factor should not load on a different factor. Moreover, Hair et al. (2010) suggested that if the values of maximum shared squared variance (MSV) and average shared square variance (ASV) are less than the value of average variance extracted (AVE), indicating that there is strong discriminant validity. In addition, if the square root of the average variance extracted of each factor is greater than its correlation coefficients with other factors, signifying discriminant validity exists (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Furthermore, the discriminant validity of a new instrument can also be assessed by correlating with other theoretically distinct construct. If the two theoretically different instruments do not correlate significantly, it is evidenced that there is discriminant validity (Brown, 1983).

2. 5.7. Developing Norms for a Scale

An important component of complete scale validation is the establishment of scale norms or reference scores by which responses obtained from an individual or group can be compared to some known standard (Abell et al., 2009). Developing norm is to aid in the interpretation of scores of a scale. With this regard, Spector (1992) stated that

In order to interpret the meaning of scores, it is helpful to know something about the distribution of scores in various populations. The scale of measurement for most constructs in the social sciences is arbitrary. The meaning of a score can only be determined in relation to some frame of reference. The normative approach, which forms the basis for much social science measurement, uses the distribution of scores as that frame of reference. Hence, the score for an individual is compared to the distribution of scores. The score is considered high if it is greater than most of the distribution and it is considered low if it is smaller than most of the distribution. (p. 67)

Therefore, to understand the norm of a scale, the mean and standard deviation scores need to be reported (Urbina, 2004).

Moreover, one of the considerations in the development of scale norm is the size of the normative samples. As noted by Churchill (1979), the larger sample size and the more representative of the total group, the more stable will be the norms.

Another consideration in the development and use of scale norm is to recognize that norms may change over time. This indicates that norms of a scale need to be periodically updated and that the time frame during which the norms established has to be specified (Urbina, 2004).

2. 6. Determinants of Parenting Style

Parenting style can be determined by a number of factors. Among others, cultural difference and demographic variables are cases in point.

With regard to cultural differences, research has demonstrated that the types of parenting styles parents employ in socializing their children are largely influenced by the culture in which they live. That is, different cultures have shown different child-rearing practices in accordance with their cultural traditions, beliefs, norms, and values (Hetherington & Parke, 1993). For instance, a study conducted by Bornstein, Toda, Azuma, Tamis-LeMonda, and Ogino (1990) on Japanese and American mothers' parenting behaviors illustrated that

Mothers in these two cultures . . . follow different rules of interaction with their children. In general, Japanese mothers are believed to organize their interactions so as to consolidate interdependence and strengthen the mother-child bond, whereas American mothers are believed to organize their interactions so as to foster physical and verbal independence in their children. (p. 290)

In a similar vein, Harwood, Miller, and Irizarry (1995) found that European American mothers emphasize the importance of values such as independence, assertiveness and creativity when asked to describe an ideal child, whereas Latin American mothers focus on the importance of obedience and respect for others.

Moreover, several studies (e.g., Greenfield, 1994; Triandis, 1995; Trommsdorff & Kornadt, 2003) have demonstrated that individualistic and collectivistic cultures differ in their child-rearing goals and parenting behaviors. Collectivistic cultures emphasize integration into the social group and the hierarchy, whereas in individualistic cultures, individuals should be rather self-responsible and pursue their own goals. Specifically, since individualistic culture emphasizes emotional independence, assertiveness, autonomy, distinctiveness, and the need for privacy, an authoritative parenting style is the most predominantly practiced and socially desirable parenting style in individualistic cultures (Keshavarz & Baharudin, 2009). On the other hand, in collectivist cultures, parents encourage values such as helpfulness, conformity, adherence to social conventions and interdependence with their in groups (Greenfield & Suzuki, 1998). These parents predominantly practiced authoritarian type of parenting (Grusec et al., 1997).

In line with this, Latino families use an authoritarian parenting style because Latino parents believe that by being strict in rearing their children, children will grow up to be responsible adults (Julian, McKenry, & McKelvy, 1994). Moreover, Dornbusch et al. (1987) found that Asian, Black African American, and Hispanic families (i.e., collectivists) were higher on the authoritarian parenting style than were white families (i.e., individualists). Furthermore, Keshavarz and Baharudin (2009) in their study, which examined parenting style in Malaysia (a collectivist culture), revealed that parents were more authoritarian in their parenting style, and they did not consider it as a negative style of parenting.

Therefore, a clear knowledge of the cultural context in which parents socialize their children is very much helpful to fully understand the differences in parenting styles (Keshavarz & Baharudin, 2009).

On the other hand, parenting styles were also determined by family structure, number of siblings, and sex of the child.

Empirical studies seem to support the notion that parenting styles differ as a function of the type of family structure present at home. With this regard, Dornbusch et al. (1987) tried to compare parenting styles exercised by single parents and step parents with two biological parents. Results indicated that single parents showed a higher level of permissive parenting than did two biological parents. It was also observed that step parents tended to be more authoritarian than two biological parents. On the other hand, a study by Bray and Furstenberg (cited in Vuchinich, Hetherington, Vuchinich, & Clingempeel, 1991) revealed that step parents employ disengaged parenting more often than biological parents.

Sex of the child also determines the way parents treat the child. For example, Sigal and Barclay (1982) came up with the finding that parental control was greater for daughters than for sons. Similarly, finding in Arab societies (Dwairy, 1997) showed more strictness and oppression toward females, as compared to males. In contrast, parents are more strict and punitive toward boys than girls (Maccoby & Martian, 1983). In line with this, studies on Palestinian adolescents in Israel (Dwairy, 2004) and the Algerian adolescents Fershani and Zegheena (cited in Dwairy et al., 2006) reported that males perceived their parents as more authoritarian than females. Palestinian boys in the Gaza also perceived their parents as treating them more negatively than the girls did. That is, they perceived their parents as being stricter in disciplining, more rejecting, and hostile than did the girls (Punamaki, Qouta, & El Sarraj, 1997). Furthermore, parents are more permissive toward girls than boys (Dornbusch et.al., 1987).

Parental behavioral control and affection patterns appear to vary as the numbers of children in the family vary (Kidwell, 1981). Greater numbers of children have the potential for increasing parental frustrations in dealing with the complexities of individual personalities and needs, the

variety of role definitions, and the day-to-day demands and pressures of family life. According to Elder and Bowerman (cited in Kidwell, 1981), such frustrations and pressures may lead parents to more punitive attempts to control children's behavior. Likewise, Carter and Welch (cited in Papalia & Olds, 1982) reported that parents who have two or more children are more likely to be authoritarian. In contrast, parents with the only child family get unprecedented parental support because the child does not have to compete with siblings for parental investment (Fong, 2002). Hence, Parents with the only child family tend to be less strict or authoritarian (Xie & Hultgren, 1994) and become more lenient, overprotective, and child-centered than parents with more children (Shek, 2006).

2. 7. The Relations of Parenting Style with Identity Style, Self-Esteem and Psychological Wellbeing

2. 7. 1. Conceptualization of Identity Style

Erikson (1968) defined identity as a more or less integrated set of self-understanding learned during early years, consolidated during adolescence and ideally resolved by the time individuals reached their adult years. Although the root of identity takes hold during the “Trust versus Mistrust” stage and grows until death, identity during adolescence (i.e. *identity versus role confusion*) is the most fundamental stage (Erikson, 1963).

Empirical research on identity development has been guided by the identity status paradigm outlined by Marcia (1966). In this paradigm, identity development is thought to be the result of two basic dimensions: exploration and commitment. Exploration involves the active consideration of alternative possible identity elements in a search for a more complete sense of self, whereas commitment represents a decision to adhere to a specific set of goals, values and beliefs, whether self-initiated or adopted from others. Based on these two dimensions, Marcia

has identified four identity statuses (i.e., identity diffusion, identity foreclosure, identity moratorium, and identity achievement).

According to Marcia (1966), identity diffusion is characterized as lack of commitment and exploration. This status is generally considered the least mature and least complex status. An adolescent with identity diffusion is confused about what to believe and how to behave. This individual may become alienated, isolated, and unable to act. Foreclosure identity status is an individual who has committed to a set of particular identity elements without having alternatives. This status is thought to be somewhat more mature status than identity diffusion. Foreclosure commitments are based on identification with parental or other authority figures or are based on the preferences of such individuals. In moratorium identity status, an individual who is still negotiating the exploration process and who therefore is uncommitted. This status is often considered more functionally complex status than either diffusion or foreclosure. Erikson viewed this identity status as an apprenticeship, allowing time to form the identity. Identity achievement is the positive outcome of adolescent's psychosocial task of identity with the presence of commitment after a period of active explorations. This status is generally considered the most mature and functionally complex status. The person who has achieved an identity, he or she has an awareness of being an integrated person.

However, different researchers (e.g. Berzonsky, 1988; Cote & Levine, 1988 & Waterman, 1982) argued that Marcia over-emphasized the commitment aspect and there exists something like a fully achieved identity in his model an idea inconsistent with the fact that identity is a dynamic developmental process. To make clear such debate, Berzonsky (1989) proposed identity processing style by considering identity in terms of how adolescents seek, process, and use identity-relevant information instead of considering it as a fixed developmental outcome. In this

regard, Berzonsky (1990) introduced three different identity styles: information-oriented identity style, normative identity style, and diffuse-avoidant identity style.

According to Berzonsky (1990), an informational identity style is typical of adolescents who seek out and process self-relevant information actively before negotiating identity conflicts and forming commitments. Adolescents with a normative identity style rely on the expectations, values and prescriptions held by significant others when confronting with identity related problems. Adolescents with a diffuse-avoidant identity style, tend to have behavior that is controlled and dictated by situational demands.

2. 7. 2. Conceptualization of Self-esteem

The term self-esteem derived from a Greek word meaning “reverence for self.” The "self" part of self-esteem indicates to the values, beliefs and attitudes that a person holds about himself or herself. The "esteem" part of self-esteem shows the value and worth that one gives oneself (Deshpande & Chhabriya, 2013). With this notion, self-esteem is considered as self-evaluation, or an evaluation of one’s self-worth and self-acceptance (Cheng & Furnham 2003; Wells & Marwell, 1976). Similarly, according to Pavur and Little (1981), self-esteem is the total set of evaluative attitudes about one's worth as a person in a variety of circumstances. In addition, self-esteem is considered as one’s self-confidence (Fouche & Grobbelaar 1970) and self-regarding attitudes (Wylie, 1974).

Mussen, Conger, Kagan, and Huston (1984) differentiate self-esteem from self-concept in that self-concept is a set of ideas about oneself that is descriptive rather than judgmental, whereas self-esteem is one's evaluation of one's own qualities. Researchers like Bee (1992), Santrock (1994), Zigler and Stevenson (1987), and Sprinthall and Collins (1995) also agreed that self-esteem is the evaluative aspect of self-concept.

Some authors have made an attempt to describe the types and components of self-esteem. For example, Simpson and Boyle (1975) described two types of self-esteem: global self-esteem (resulting from a general evaluation) and specific self-esteem (related to competence in a particular activity). In line with this, Gecas (1982) and Gecas and Schwalbe (1983) classified self-esteem into two components: competence and worth. The competence component (efficacy based self-esteem) denotes the degree to which people see themselves as capable and efficacious, whereas the worth component (worth based self-esteem) refers to the degree to which individuals feel about themselves as they are persons of value.

Generally, according to Harter (1990), better self-esteem comes from individuals' self competence and worth in the things they value, while poor self-esteem is the outcome of negative judgments when individuals focus on their weaknesses.

2. 7. 3. Conceptualization of Psychological Wellbeing

For many years now, the term psychological well-being has been used interchangeably with the term "mental health." Mental health was thus defined as, "absence of illness or disease" (Ryff & Singer, 1998, p. 1). Obviously the absence of something does not specify what must be present and thus the term remained somewhat vague. Therefore, World Health Organization (WHO, 2001) recently defined mental health as a complete state of physical, mental and social well-being but not only the absence of disease.

According to Huppert (2009), psychological well-being is the combination of feeling good and functioning effectively. However, sustainable well-being does not guarantee that individuals to feel good all the time. It is because the experience of painful emotions (e.g. disappointment, failure, grief) is a normal part of life.

Ryan and Deci (2000) noted that humans have three basic psychological needs (i.e. competence, autonomy, & relatedness) and satisfying with these needs lead one's to be psychologically well. According to Ryff (1989), psychological well-being is considered as a multidimensional construct. In order to define psychological well-being, Ryff reviewed the works of Maslow on self-actualization, of Rogers on the fully functioning person, of Jung on individuation, of Allport on maturity, of Erikson on his psychosocial model, of Buhler on the basic life tendencies, of Neugarten on personality change in adulthood, and of Jahoda on the positive criteria of mental health (Ryff, 1989). Thus, Ryff concluded that they all converge in the following six dimensions, namely: self-acceptance (holding a positive opinion about oneself), environmental mastery (being able to choose or create contexts appropriate for one's psychological condition), positive relations with others (having warm & trusting relationships & being able to love), purpose in life (having goals, intentions, & a sense of direction), personal growth (continuous development of one's potential), and autonomy (being self-determined & independent).

In line with this, Diener et al. (2009) also described psychological wellbeing as feelings of competence, positive relationships and having meaning and purpose in life.

2. 7. 4. The Relationship between Parenting Style and Identity Style

Regarding the relationship between parenting style and adolescents' identity style, Marcia (cited in Conger, 1991) noted that adolescent's freedom to explore a variety of possibilities in forming individual identity is significantly influenced by the type of parent-adolescent relationship within the family. Therefore, the identity styles that individuals adopt are expected to have different developmental bases (Berzonsky, 2004; Berzonsky, Branje, & Meeus, 2007; Smits et al., 2008).

According to Berzonsky (2004), for example, an information identity style is rooted in a secure home environment where parents provide explanations, open expressions of love and affection, make clear and reasonable demands, supervise in terms of expectations, and encourage age-appropriate behavioral autonomy. This type of parenting environment provides adolescents with the resources to manage their behavior in a responsible manner, the confidence to actively explore identity alternatives, and the motivation to attain personally endorsed commitments (Smits et al., 2008).

On the other hand, normative identity style is fostered by a parenting climate that combines high levels of parental involvement, expectations and strict control with little expression of love and affection. This type of parenting environment, where adolescents feel closely connected to their parents but forced to meet their parents' demands for conformity and obedience, is likely to result in a tendency to internalize and adhere to parental values, standards, and expectations in a relatively automatic fashion (Berzonsky, 1990).

A diffuse-avoidant identity style is rooted in a lenient parenting environment characterized by limited parental control and guidance, and overindulgence of the child (Berzonsky, 2004b). In this family environment, adolescents do not have the resources to negotiate the identity formation process in a structured and proactive fashion and also they do not have personal confidence to form stable identity commitments (Smits et al., 2008).

With regard to the relationships between parenting style and identity style, various studies (Fullinwider-Bush & Jacobvitz, 1993; Mathis & Adams, 2004; Passmore, Fogarty, Bourke, & Baker-Evans, 2005) revealed that authoritative parenting style significantly and positively correlated with an informational identity style. In other words, if there is a warm, supportive and interactive relationship between adolescents and their parents, adolescents are more likely to

develop strong sense of self, purpose in life, clear set of personal values, and goals. Authoritarian parenting style, which uses harsh punishment and control over adolescents' behavior, significantly and positively associated with normative identity style. On the other hand, neglectful or uninvolved parenting style, which does not give attention to children and adolescents behavior, positively correlated with diffuse avoidant identity style.

Slightly differing in the above findings, Berzonsky (2004) reported that an authoritative parenting style was significantly and positively associated with both the informational identity style and normative identity style, but significantly and negatively associated with the diffuse-avoidant identity style. An authoritarian style was significantly and positively related to both the normative identity style and diffuse-avoidant identity style. Parental permissiveness was significantly and positively related to the diffuse-avoidant identity style.

In another study conducted by Smits et al. (2008) have also shown significant relationship between identity styles and the three parenting dimensions, such as parental support, behavioral control and psychological control. The results depicted that adolescents who experience parental support — as warm, involved, and responsive to their feelings in times of distress — promote informational identity style. Parents who engage in behavioral control— that provides sufficient regulation for their children's behavior— encourage normative identity style. Whereas parents who utilize psychological control — which pressures their children through manipulative and intrusive behaviors such as: guilt-induction, shaming, and conditional approval— lead to diffused avoidant identity style.

2. 7. 5. The Relationship between Parenting Style and Self-esteem

With regard to the relationship between parenting style and self esteem, myriad research evidences (e.g., Barnes & Farrell, 1992; Gecas & Schwalbe, 1986; Gecas & Seff, 1990; Goodyer

1990; Mechanic & Hansell, 1989) have shown that children and adolescents whose parents convey affection, acceptance, and support reported better self-esteem whereas, children and adolescents whose parents are punitive, demanding, emotionally aloof and restrictive reported poor self-esteem. Similarly, Peterson et al. (1983) stated that children with high self esteem view their parents as accepting and loving while children with low self-esteem view their parents as unaffectionate and emotionally distant.

Moreover, parents showing lack of interest or rejection in their child (Fischer & Lazerson, 1984), adolescents from parents who are uninvolved and use harsh punishment (Maccoby & Martin, 1983), adolescents reared by overprotective parents (Herz & Gullone, 1999), and children and adolescents from low-care and high-control parenting practices (Lamborn et al., 1991) associated significantly and negatively with self-esteem.

In line with parenting typology, a large number of studies (e.g. Buri, Kirchner, & Walsh, 1987; Doyle & Markiewicz, 2005; Steinberg, 2001) have shown that authoritative parents are most likely to have children or adolescents who have better in self esteem. In contrast, authoritarian parents are most likely to have children and adolescents who have poor self-esteem (Baumrind, 1991; Binger, 1994; Wenar, 1994).

With regard to permissive or indulgent parenting style, on the other hand, inconsistent findings were reported. For example, Reitman, Rhode, Hupp, and Altobello (2002) revealed that children and adolescents reared by permissive parents displayed poor self-esteem. In contrast, various researchers Llinares, 1998; Marchetti, 1997; Musitu and Garcia, 2001 (cited in Martinez & Garcia, 2007) indicated that adolescents from indulgent parents showed higher scores on self-esteem. Differently, Bun, Louiselle, Misukanis and Mueller (1988) reported that permissive parenting style was not significantly related to self-esteem.

2. 7. 6. The Relationship between Parenting Style and Psychological Wellbeing

One significant predictor of psychological well-being is the quality of parent-child relationship (Neher, 1998). Typically, children and adolescents who rate their parents high in affection, warmth, and caring, and reasonable control, are better able to cope with stressful events and tend to have better psychological wellbeing (Gladstone & Parker, 2005). In contrast, individuals who perceive their parents as lower on caring and higher on over-protection show a greater tendency for psychological disorders (Evans, 2003; Ferguson, 2006).

Moreover, children and adolescents who considered their parents as authoritative have shown significantly and positively related to psychological well-being (Baumrind, 1991; Maccoby & Martin, 1983), and lower psychological distress (Lamborn et al., 1991). In contrast, authoritarian, indulgent and neglectful parenting styles are typically associated significantly and negatively with psychological outcomes (Steinberg et al., 1994). On the other hand, Darling (1999) reported that children and adolescents from authoritative and indulgent homes are more likely to have lower levels of psychological problems while children and adolescents whose parents are authoritarian and uninvolved are more likely to have higher levels of psychological problems.

2. 8. The Mediating Roles of Self-esteem and Identity Style in the Relationship between Parenting Style and Psychological Wellbeing

Baron and Kenny (1986) provided extensive guidelines for detecting mediation, which specifically includes four requirements: First, the predictor explains variance in the mediator. Second, the mediator explains variance in the outcome. Third, the predictor explains variance in the outcome. Fourth, the predictor no longer explains variance in the outcome once the mediator is included in the model.

Accordingly, it is well documented that parenting style predicts adolescents' self-esteem (e.g. Barnes & Farrell, 1992; Doyle & Markiewicz, 2005; Steinberg, 2001), identity style (e.g. Berzonsky, 2004; Passmore et al., 2005), and psychological wellbeing (e.g. Gladstone & Parker, 2005; Neher & Short, 1998; Parker et al., 1979). On the other hand, studies have also shown that children and adolescents' self-esteem and identity style influenced their psychological wellbeing. For instance, self-esteem is thought to be one of the factors affecting psychological well-being and social functioning (Kling, Hyde, Showers, & Buswell, 1999). High self-esteem has been reported as a strong predictor of happiness and mental health (e.g. Furnham & Cheng, 2000; Gladstone & Parker, 2005). Moreover, individuals' high in self-esteem have the skills and resources that provide them protecting from psychological problems (Deater-Deckard, Ivy, & Smith, 2006). In contrast, low self-esteem is associated with depression (Tennen & Herzberger, 1987), loneliness (Jones, Freemon, & Goswick, 1981), and anxiety (Brockner, 1984).

Generally, various research findings (e.g. Hasnain & Adlakha, 2012; Restifo, Akse, Guzman, Benjamins, & Dick, 2009) revealed that adolescents who have better self-esteem tend to show significant contribution to their psychological wellbeing, whereas adolescents having poor self-esteem tend to show poor psychological wellbeing (Abe, 2004; Emmons & Diener, 1985).

With respect to the relationships between identity style and psychological wellbeing, Vleioras and Bosma (2005) indicated that a successful identity formation is related to being psychologically well. Notably, an informational identity style is related positively to psychological wellbeing, whereas a diffuse-avoidant identity style is negatively related to psychological wellbeing. Similarly, a study conducted by Rotenberg and Shalley (1999) also revealed that people with informational identity style are able to handle psychological problems

effectively, whereas those who have diffused identity suffer from depression and anxiety more often. Moreover, Abdizarrin, Sajjadian, Shahiadi, Sh., Baianmemar, and Azimi (2010) reported that informational identity style and normative identity style were significantly and positively associated with psychological wellbeing, while diffused identity style was significantly and negatively associated with psychological wellbeing.

Considering the above findings, therefore, it seems reasonable to hypothesize that these dispositional variables — identity style and self-esteem — would serve as potential mediators between parenting style and psychological wellbeing. To illustrate this notion, adolescents from authoritative parents — warm and reasonable control — would predict significantly and positively informational identity style, normative identity style and high self-esteem. In turn, adolescents with informational identity style, normative identity style and high in self-esteem would predict significantly and positively their psychological wellbeing. Moreover, adolescents from authoritarian parents — low warm and high control — would predict significantly normative identity style, diffused-avoidant identity style, and low self-esteem. In turn, adolescents with normative identity style would predict significantly and positively their psychological wellbeing, while diffused-avoidant identity style and low self-esteem would predict significantly and negatively their psychological wellbeing. On the other hand, no clear conclusion could be drawn out of the different studies conducted on the relation of permissive or indulgent parenting style to self-esteem and psychological wellbeing.

Generally, the aforementioned results which show that parenting style, on one hand, predicts psychological wellbeing; on the other hand, it also contributes to the differences in adolescents' identity style and self-esteem. In turn, adolescents' identity style and self-esteem also predict their psychological wellbeing.

2. 9. Parenting Styles in the Ethiopian Cultural Context

Although the study of child rearing practice has been given more attention in the developed nations, few local studies have attempted to show the type of parent child interaction exercised in the family in the Ethiopian context. For example, Ringness and Gander (1974) examining the methods of child rearing in rural Ethiopia, reported that family is structured in a hierarchical system between parents and their children. They further stated that parents' disciplinary practices are completely authoritarian and the father usually being the punisher agent while children are required to obey, support and respect their parents as well as other elders.

Another survey study conducted by Habtamu (1979) at Bahir Dar, in Amhara culture, found the following findings: a silent child is preferred to a talkative one; children are not allowed to involve in adults' issues at home; children commonly hiding their faults due to fear of physical punishment; children should not disagree with parents; and parents are not expected to admit mistakes in front of their children.

Moreover, by reviewing previous studies in the area, Habtamu (1995) concluded that the dominant parenting style in Ethiopian context is authoritarian type of parenting. Likewise, Abraham (1996) in Slitegna speaking community showed that parent-child interaction appears to be very formal, authoritarian and restrictive. Other studies by Cox (1967) and Renner (1974) on problems of Ethiopian adolescents found that strict authoritarian control is common in Ethiopia. Moreover, authoritarian parenting style was also found to be predominant in Amhara culture of the Menze (Levin, 1965). In contrast, as shown in Table 2, recent studies (e.g. Abesha, 1997; Berhanu, 1996; Markos, 1996; Sentayehu, 1998; Yekoyealem, 2005) conducted on high school students in different settings revealed that the dominant parenting style is authoritative type.

Generally, some local survey studies (e.g. Abraham, 1996; Cox, 1967; Habtamu, 1974; Levin, 1965; Renner, 1974; Ringness & Gander, 1974) revealed that the dominant parenting style is authoritarian type which is related to the findings of a non-Western collectivist culture. Contrary to this, other recent local studies (e.g. Abesha, 1997; Berhanu, 1996; Markos, 1996; Sentayehu, 1998; Yekoyealem, 2005) have shown that authoritative parenting style is the dominant one.

Table 2
Summary of the Predominant Parenting Style in the Local Studies Using Western Made Parenting Instruments

Local researcher	Sample size	Parenting styles				Author of the Instrument
		Authoritative	Authoritarian	Indulgent	Neglecting	
Birhanu Ayele (1996)	520	293 (56.34 %)	205 (39.42 %)	16 (3.08 %)	6 (1.15 %)	Dornbusch et al.,1987; McKinley,1964
Markos Tadesse (1996)	454	148 (32.59 %)	96 (21.15 %)	104 (22.91 %)	106 (23.35 %)	Maccoby & Martin, 1983
Abesha Ayele (1997)	335	151 (45.1 %)	65 (19.4 %)	46 (13.7 %)	73 (21.8 %)	Dornbusch et al., 1987; Lamborn et al.,1991; Steinberg et al., 1992
Sentayehu Tadesse (1998)	560	237 (42.32 %)	180 (32.14 %)	87 (15.54 %)	56 (10 %)	Baumrind & Black, 1967; Becker et al., 1962; Becker & Krug,1964; Dornbusch et al., 1987; Scheafer,1965
Yekoyealem Desie (2005)	210	91 (43.33 %)	32 (15.24 %)	25 (11.90 %)	62 (29.52 %)	Maccoby & Martin,1983

2. 10. Summary of the Literature Review and Directions for the Present Study

Parenting style and its impact on children and adolescents' development has long been a topic of interest for developmental psychologists. Parenting style is determined by the way the parents respond to the child's needs, the way they discipline the child and their impact on child's later development. The most influential work on this area was done by Diana Baumrind. In line with her parenting styles, various studies have conducted across cultures to understand the type of parenting style that is most effective to children and adolescents healthy development. As a result, inconsistent findings were documented between the individualistic and collectivistic cultures. The positive effect of authoritative parenting style and the negative effect of authoritarian style of parenting were consistently reported in the individualistic culture, whereas in the collectivistic cultures, authoritarian parenting style reported positively as compared with other parenting styles on children and adolescents' developmental outcomes. This difference might be the result of their cultural orientations. In the Western culture, for example, a parent's attempt to monitor the child was considered as violation of autonomy while in the non Western cultures such monitoring was viewed as a sign of parental concern.

With regard to the type of parenting style in the Ethiopian context, mixed findings were observed. For example, some local researchers reported that authoritarian parenting style was dominant, whereas others, who have used Western made measuring tools, reported authoritative style was the dominant one. This is evident that the type of parenting style commonly exercised in the families of Ethiopia at present is not clearly known. Filling this gap, therefore, this research aimed to examine two subsequent studies. First, because of the differences in child rearing orientations between the Western individualistic culture and the non-Western collectivist cultures, the tools developed in the West may not accurately measure the child rearing styles in

Ethiopia where religious, social and cultural factors have been found to be very influential. To meet this requirement, study one was conducted to develop and validate an indigenous tool for measuring parenting style by proposing and utilizing a scale development and validation model. Following study one, study two was undertaken to identify the type of parenting style which is most effective to adolescents' healthy development. For this purpose, the relations of parenting style with adolescents' self-esteem, identity style and psychological wellbeing were investigated. Moreover, as was evident in the preceding review, the mediating roles of self-esteem and identity style in the relationship between parenting style and psychological wellbeing were examined. Furthermore, the differences in adolescents' perceived parenting style due to their demographic variables were assessed.

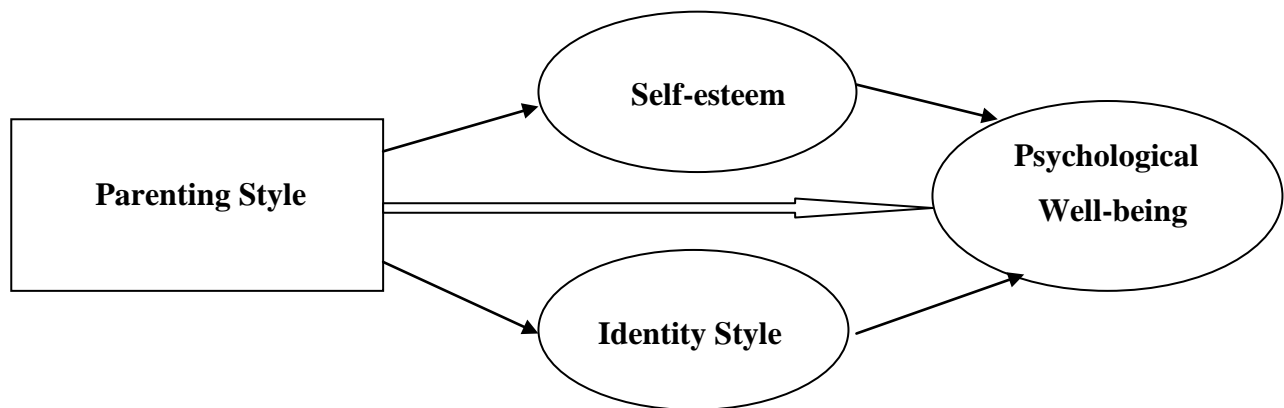


Figure 5. Conceptual Framework for Study Two

3. STUDY ONE

The main objective of study one was to develop and validate an indigenous self report measure of parenting style, named as Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style scale. In order to achieve this objective, a seven-phase model was proposed: The first phase of the study was designed to specify and define parenting style construct; the second phase was to generate items that represented the construct, the third phase was to determine scaling format, the fourth phase was to assess the content validity of the construct, the fifth phase was to purify the scale, the sixth phase was to assess the validity of the scale, and the seventh phase was to develop the norm of the scale. In general, the first three phases were explored qualitatively while the remaining four phases were examined quantitatively. Through these phases, therefore, the first two basic research questions were addressed in study one.

3. 1. Method of the Study

3. 1. 1. Research Design

In study one, an exploratory sequential mixed methods design was employed to develop and validate Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style scale. An exploratory sequential mixed methods design was chosen for this study because it is appropriate when the researcher first explores the types of parenting styles and their indicators qualitatively, then followed by quantitative method to examine the psychometric properties of the scale. With this regard, Creswell (2012) put it as

The purpose of an exploratory sequential mixed methods design involves the procedure of first gathering qualitative data to explore a phenomenon, and then collecting quantitative data to explain relationships found in the qualitative data. A popular application of this design is to explore a phenomenon, identify themes, design an instrument, and subsequently test it. Researchers use this design when existing instruments, variables, and measures may not be known or available for the population under study. (p.543)

3. 1. 2. Population of the Study

The population of the study consisted of government general secondary and preparatory school students in Amhara Region. In the region, there were 293 general secondary schools (9-10) and 134 preparatory schools (11-12), with the total population of 477, 518 students (Male = 237247; Female = 240271), from which 384114 general secondary school students (Male = 185825; Female = 198289) and 93404 preparatory school students (Male = 51422; Female = 41982) enrolled in 2005 E.C (2012 / 2013) (AREB, 2014).

3. 1. 3. Samples and Sampling Procedures

In Amhara Regional State, there are eleven zones (North Showa, Oromia, South Wollo, North Wollo, Waghimra, North Gonder, South Gonder, Bahir Dar, Awi, West Gojjam & East Gojjam). Out of the total eleven zones, three zones (Oromia, Awi & Waghimra) were excluded due to ethnic differences from the dominant ethnic group in the region, Amhara. Therefore, from the remaining eight zones, four zones (i.e., North Showa, West Gojjam, South Gonder & Bahir Dar) were selected using simple random sampling. Then, one general secondary school and one preparatory school from the respective four zonal towns were chosen randomly. The selected schools were Hailemariam Mamo preparatory school and Debre Birhan general secondary school from North Showa zone, Damot preparatory school and Damot general secondary school from West Gojjam zone, Tana Haik preparatory school and Fasilo general secondary school from Bahir Dar city administration, and Dagmawi Theodros preparatory school and Debre Tabor general secondary school from South Gonder zone. From these schools, two sections from each grade level were chosen randomly and participants from these sections were selected using stratified random sampling based on students' sex as stratum. With this procedure, independent samples were drawn from each school proportionally in two phases. First, 456 participants (Male

= 228; Female = 228) were randomly selected for item analysis, exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis. Second, 320 participants (Male = 160; Female = 160) were randomly selected for confirmatory factor analysis, convergent validity analysis and discriminant validity analysis.

Sample size determination was based on participant to item ratio for the first phase, and participant to parameter ratio for the second phase. As recommended by many researchers (e.g. Gorsuch, 1983; Hair et al., 1998, Hatcher, 1994), a minimum participant to item ratio of at least 5:1 is required for Exploratory Factor Analysis. In this phase, therefore, 414 samples were used for 69 potential items (i.e., 6:1 ratio), which were identified based on content validity analysis. Considering the non response rate, 10 % of the sample was added. Hence, the total sample size was 456.

Similarly, various researchers (e.g. Bentler & Chou, 1987; Kline, 2005) recommended that at least a 5:1 ratio of participants to number of parameters is required for Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Therefore, on the second phase, 290 samples were used for 58 parameters (i.e., number of items in the model = 26, number of errors in the model = 26, and number of correlations between factors in the model = 6), which were identified based on Exploratory Factor Analysis. Considering the non response rate, 10 % of the sample was added. Hence, the total sample size was 320.

3. 1. 4. Data Collection Procedures

Initially, permission for data collection was obtained from each school principal. Approval was sought from each school prior to data collection. The purpose of the study was explained to the participants, and informed verbal consent to participate in the study was obtained from all the

participants who involved in each data collection phase. Participation was entirely voluntary, and participants' responses were kept confidential.

In this study, both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered. First qualitative data were collected using focus group discussions about the types and meanings of parenting styles and their indicators. Second, the types of parenting styles and their indicators which were identified in the focus group discussions were subjected to expert judges to obtain data for assessing content validity. Based on the data obtained from the expert judges, appropriate items were selected. The selected items were then, administered to the study samples to get data for preliminary analysis such as item analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and reliability analysis. Following this, the refined items were also administered to the study samples to obtain data for confirmatory factor analysis, convergent validity analysis and discriminant validity analysis.

3. 1. 5. Methods of Data Analysis

In this study, the data collected were analyzed mainly in the following ways: to analyze content validity, Lawshe's (1975) Content Validity Ratio (CVR) was used; to analyze each item, item- mean, inter- item correlation, corrected item-total correlations, and alpha if item deleted were used; to analyze the underlying factors, Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was employed; to analyze reliability, Cronbach alpha (α) was used; to analyze whether or not the established parenting style measurement model fits to the new sample data, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was used; and to analyze both convergent validity and discriminant validity, Composite Reliability (CR), Average Variance Extracted (AVE), Maximum Shared Squared Variance (MSV), and Average Shared Squared Variance (ASV) were used.

In general, item analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and reliability analysis were conducted using *SPSS 20.0*, whereas confirmatory factor analysis, convergent validity analysis

and discriminant validity analysis were conducted using *LISREL 8.80*. Detailed information concerning the specific analyses used in each phase was presented below under the proposed scale development and validation model

3. 1. 6. The Proposed Model for Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style Scale Development and Validation

As depicted below in Figure 6, this model was proposed for the present study by adapting and integrating from Churchill (1979), DeVellis (2003), Hinkin (1998), and Slavec and Drnovsek's (2012) scale development and validation models.

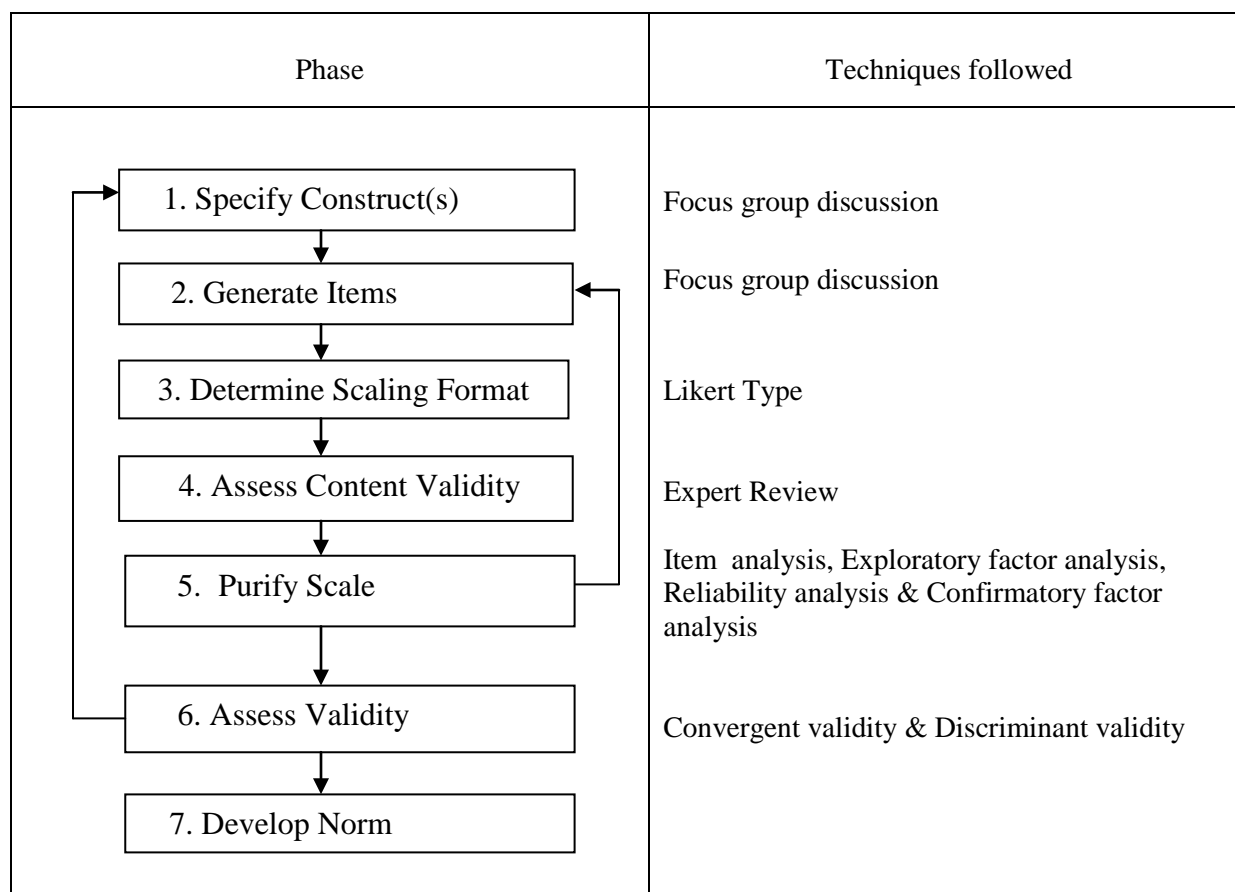


Figure 6. The proposed model for parenting style scale development and validation

The proposed model consisted of seven phases beginning with specifying the construct and culminating in the development of norms for the scale with techniques pertaining to each phase.

Phase 1. Specifying the Construct

The first phase in the proposed scale development and validation model was construct specification. In order to explore and identify the types of parenting styles exercised in Amhara region, qualitative data were gathered using focus group discussion. For the focus group discussion, Bahir Dar city was chosen purposefully since it is the capital city of the region, the data obtained from this city may represent the zones and the woredas of the region. Therefore, two focus group discussions were conducted in the city — one with Fasilo general secondary school students and the other with Tana Haik preparatory school students. In each school, eight volunteer students (Male = 4; Female = 4) were selected to participate in the focus group discussions. Prior to conducting focus group discussions, ethical issues were considered.

The first focus group discussion was held with Fasilo general secondary school students. In the focus group discussion, informants were asked first to elicit their perceived experiences of the types of parenting styles commonly exercised in Amhara region (for the focus group discussion protocol see Appendix C). Then, after the types of parenting styles have been identified, informants in the focus group discussion were also requested to define each of the emerged parenting styles.

Phase 2. Generating Items

After defining each parenting style, informants in the focus group discussion were asked to list as many indicators as possible to represent each of the identified parenting styles.

Following the first focus group discussion, the second focus group discussion was conducted with Tana Haik preparatory school students to make discussion and to obtain

feedback on the appropriateness of parenting styles, their definitions and indicators which were already identified in the first focus group discussion. On the second focus group discussion session, therefore, all the generated items were presented to the focus group informants one at a time and the discussion was made based on the definitions given. In line with this, if an item was misunderstood, the researcher asked them how the item could be improved.

Phase 3. Determining the Scaling Format

Once the drafted items were generated, they were converted into self descriptive statements with a five-point Likert type scale ranging from 5 (*Strongly Agree*) to 1 (*Strongly Disagree*), together with clear instruction.

Phase 4. Content Validity Assessment

Following item generation and determining its format, the resulting lists of items were given to expert judges for assessing content validity. The expert judges consisted of ten volunteer professionals, two each from Developmental Psychology, Social Psychology, Sociology, Measurement & Evaluation, and Ethiopian Languages. Content validity was then assessed using Lawshe's (1975) content validity ratio formula. For this purpose, these expert judges were asked to rate each item as *Not necessary* or *Useful but not essential*, or *Essential* in line with the definitions given for each parenting style.

Phase 5. Scale Purification

On the scale purification phase, item analysis, exploratory factor analysis, reliability analysis, and confirmatory factor analysis were conducted subsequently. In order to do this, data were collected twice, one for assessing both item analysis, exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis, and the other for examining confirmatory factor analysis, convergent validity analysis and discriminant validity analysis.

Phase 5a. Item Analysis, Exploratory Factor Analyses and Reliability Analysis

After assuring the content validity of the generated items, those items were subjected to further analysis to determine the underlying factors and to meet the standards of reliability. For this purpose, items retained on the content validity phase were administered to 456 participants (Male = 228; Female = 228) in grades nine through twelve. Based on the participants' response, data entry was performed using *SPSS* version 20.0. The data set was then checked for data entry accuracy using (a) the minimum and maximum scores of each item to detect responses outside of the acceptable ranges, and (b) frequency distribution to detect missing data.

Following data cleaning, first, item analysis was examined to make the factor structure simple using different item analysis procedures such as inter item correlation, corrected item total correlation, item mean, and alpha if item deleted. Second, exploratory factor analysis was computed using the Principal Component Analysis extraction method with varimax orthogonal rotation to determine the number of factors extracted and to select items that best represent each factor. Orthogonal method of rotation was applied since the correlation coefficients among factors (parenting style subscales) were found to be low.

Prior to conducting exploratory factor analysis, the underlying assumptions of exploratory factor analysis — random sampling, interval or ratio-scaled data, linearity, and normality — were checked. Moreover, the two indicators (i.e., Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy index & Bartlett's test of sphericity) were examined to check whether the sample and the correlation matrix appropriate for exploratory factor analysis. To determine the number of factors, three general rules of thumb (i.e., factors with eigenvalues greater than one; factors above the elbow line in the scree plot; & cumulative percent of variance extracted) were

considered. Following exploratory factor analysis, the internal consistency reliability of each factor was examined using Cronbach Alpha.

Phase 5b. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Once the number of factors and their indicators were identified with EFA, the next step was investigating whether or not the established parenting style measurement model fitted the new data observed. For this purpose, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was employed. To do this, items refined with EFA were administered to 320 participants (Male = 160; Female = 160) in grades nine through twelve. After data entry, with the same procedure like EFA, error data in the database and the underlying assumptions of confirmatory factor analysis were checked before running confirmatory factor analysis.

Confirmatory factor analysis was performed using *LISREL 8.80* software. The fit between the model and the data was assessed using: (1) the chi-square test; (2) alternative fit indices, such as the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), the normed fit index (NFI), the non-normed fit index (NNFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the chi-square / df ratio, and (3) significance tests for factor loadings.

Phase 6. Validity Assessment

Reliability is necessary but not sufficient to establish validity (Nunnally & Berstein, 1994). With this intent, both convergent validity and discriminant validity of APPS scale were evaluated.

In this study, convergent validity was examined by comparing the values of composite reliability (CR) with the values of average variance extracted (AVE). Moreover, convergent validity was assessed using the Bentler-Bonett coefficients (NFI & NNFI), and *t*-values.

On the other hand, discriminant validity was checked using the values of average variance extracted (AVE) compared with the values of maximum shared squared variance (MSV) and average shared squared variance (ASV). In addition to this, it was also assessed by comparing the square root of the average variance extracted of each factor with its correlation coefficients of other factors.

Phase 7. Developing Norms

The final phase in the scale development process was to develop norms to aid in the interpretation of scores on the scale. Therefore, the means and standard deviations of APPS sub scales were presented. Furthermore, the scoring criteria and their interpretation were addressed.

3. 2. Results of the Study

This section presented the results of the study in accordance with the proposed model for development and validation of Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style scale.

Specifying the Construct (Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style)

The first phase of the proposed scale development and validation process of this study was specifying the construct. On this phase, informants in the focus group discussion were invited to elicit their perceived experiences of the types of parenting styles exercised in Amhara region. As a result, five parenting styles were identified. These parenting styles were the following: (1) “ልቅ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት” (pampering parenting style), (2) “ጨዋ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት” (decent parenting style), (3) “ምክንያታዊ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት” (reasonable parenting style), (4) “ፈላጭ ቆራጭ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት” (autocrat parenting style) and (5) “ግድ የሌሽ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት” (laissez-faire parenting style).

Once the types of parenting styles were identified, the next task was defining each parenting style. Then, informants in the focus group discussion were asked to define the five styles of parenting they listed. Therefore, they defined these parenting styles as illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3.

Types of Parenting Styles and their Definition

Parenting style	Definition
ልቅ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት	ልቅ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት ወላጆች ምንም ይሁን ምን የልጆቻቸውን ስሜትና ፍላጎት በመከተል ለማስደሰት የሚፈልጉ፤ ወላጆች ልጆቻቸውን ለቅ የሚያደርጉና የሚያሞላቅቁ፤ እንዲሁም ወላጆች ልጆቻቸውን ያለምንም ተግሳጽ ልጆች እንደፈልጉ እንዲሆኑ የሚያደርጉ ናቸው።
Pampering Parenting Style	In this type of parenting style, parents try to fulfill the needs and desire of their children anything they are asked to do. Parents are overindulgent to their children. Parents do not reprimand their children whatever the children do.
ጨዋ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት	ጨዋ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት ወላጆች ልጆቻቸውን ማህበረሰቡ የሚጠበቀውን ወግ፣ ልማድ፣ ባህል አክብረው እንዲያድጉ የሚያበረታቱና ቁጥጥር የሚያደርጉ፤ ወላጆች ልጆቻቸውን በቅርብ የሚከታተሉ፣ የሚንከባከቡ ሲያጠፍም የሚቀጡ፤ እንዲሁም ወላጆች ለልጆቻቸው የሚነግሯቸውን ሁሉ እንዲከተሉና እንዲፈጽሙ የሚያደርጉ ናቸው።
Decent Parenting Style	In this parenting style, parents give due attention to cultural norms and expectations. As a result they direct their children to obey these cultural norms and expectations. Parents closely monitor their children's daily activities and reward or punish accordingly.

(Continued)

Parenting style	Definition
<p>ምክንያታዊ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት</p>	<p>ምክንያታዊ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት ወላጆች ልጆቻቸው ምክንያታዊ ሆነው ማስረዳትና ማሳመን እስከቻሉ ድረስ ማድረግ የፈለጉትን ነገር እንዲያደርጉ የሚፈቅዱ፤ ወላጆች ልጆች ሲያጠፍ ከመቅጣት ይልቅ ምክንያቱን ተረድተው በመምከርና በማስተማር ጥፋቱ እንዳይደገም የሚያደርጉ፤ ወላጆች ለልጆቻቸው ተገቢ እንክብካቤና ክትትል የሚያደርጉ፤ እንዲሁም ወላጆች ከልጆቻቸው ጋር ነጻ ሁነው በመወያየት የእለት ተዕለት ችግራቸውን እንዲፈቱ የሚያደርጉ ናቸው።</p>
<p>Reasonable Parenting Style</p>	<p>In this parenting style, parents allow their children to do what they want to do as long as the children have justification to convince their parents. Parents usually use advice rather than punishment for their children’s wrong doings. Parents also follow up and care their children reasonably. Moreover, parents freely discuss with their children on day to day activities.</p>
<p>ፈላጭ ቆራጭ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት</p>	<p>ፈላጭ ቆራጭ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት ወላጆች በልጆቻቸው ላይ ጥብቅ ቁጥጥር በማድረግ ልጆች በወላጆቻቸው ትዕዛዝ ብቻ ተመርተው እንዲያድጉ የሚያደርጉና ይህንንም ለማየት ቅጣትን በሰፊው የሚጠቀሙ፤ እንዲሁም ወላጆች ለልጆቻቸው ምንም ነጻነት የማይሰጡና ለልጆቻቸው ፍቅር የማያሳዩ ናቸው።</p>
<p>Autocrat Parenting Style</p>	<p>In this parenting style, parents over control their children’s overall activities. Children have no choice except strictly following their parents’ instructions. Parents usually do not show love to their children and excessively use punishment to discipline their children.</p>

(Continued)

Parenting style	Definition
ግድ የሌሽ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት	ግድ የሌሽ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት ወላጆች ለልጆቻቸው ጥሩም ሆነ መጥፎ ነገር ሲፈጽሙ ለማበረታታትም ሆነ ለመገሰጽ የማይሞክሩ ወይም ለማድረግ የማይፈልጉ፤ ወላጆች ለልጆቻቸው ጊዜ የማይሰጡና ስለልጆቻቸው ክትትል የማያደርጉ ናቸው።
Laissez-faire Parenting Style	In this parenting style, parents do not bother about their children's whereabouts. Parents do not give time and attention to their children or they ignore whatever the children do or say.

Item Generation

After parenting styles have been defined, the process of item generation followed. Therefore, informants in the first focus group discussion were asked to list as many indicators as possible to represent each of the five identified parenting styles. As a result, 20 items for pampering parenting style, 18 items for decent parenting style, 20 items for reasonable parenting style, 19 items for autocrat parenting style, and 17 items for laissez-faire parenting style were generated.

Moreover, informants in the second focus group discussion added 2 items for pampering parenting style, 4 items for decent parenting style, and 2 items for autocrat parenting style (See Appendix A).

Content Validity Assessment

On this phase, the generated 102 draft items with the definitions of the five parenting styles were subjected to 10 expert judges to rate each item as *Not necessary* or *Useful but not essential*,

or *Essential*. Based on the responses of expert judges, content validity ratio was computed. As shown in Table 4, the content validity ratio result revealed that 69 items were .60 and above, whereas 33 items were .40 and below.

Table 4.

Content Validity Ratio (CVR) Computation Results

CVR value	Number of items	Cumulative number of items
1.00	15	15
.80	32	47
.60	22	69
.40	11	80
.20	8	88
.00	7	95
-.20	5	100
-.40	2	102

Scale Purification

Following the content validity analysis, 69 items were administered to 456 participants (Male = 228; Female = 228) in grades nine through twelve for assessing item analysis, exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis. Out of 456 participants who participated in this phase, 436 (95.61 %) participants (Male = 216; Female = 220) whose ages ranged from 15 to 23 years ($M = 17.67$, $SD = 1.74$) responded to all of the items properly, whereas 20 (4.39 %) participants did not respond to all items. The latter were excluded from the study.

Before data analysis, the database was checked for data entry accuracy using frequency distribution and the minimum and maximum scores for each item. Thus, the frequency distribution output showed that all participants responded to each item and there was no missing data. Moreover, the minimum score of each item was one and the maximum score was five, indicating that there was no error data in the data set since the scale used was ranged from one to five (see Appendix D).

Item Analysis

In order to make the factor structure simple, item analysis was computed prior to exploratory factor analysis using the most commonly used procedures, such as item- mean, inter-item correlation, corrected item-total correlations, and alpha if item deleted.

Table 5

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of Pampering Parenting Style (n = 436)

Item	1	6	9	12	14	23	34	35	48	58	61	63	64	67
1	-													
6	.025	-												
9	.010	.044	-											
12	.003	.008	.099	-										
14	.045	.032	.672	.100	-									
23	.048	.036	.611	.041	.597	-								
34	.062	.084	.035	.082	.080	.001	-							
35	.083	.039	.523	.009	.562	.634	-.052	-						
48	.005	.015	.512	.074	.566	.604	.019	.573	-					
58	.006	.048	.487	.035	.522	.564	.066	.553	.505	-				
61	.001	-.003	.041	.042	.084	.159	.027	.066	.004	.110	-			
63	-.045	.095	-.032	.014	-.013	.026	.049	.055	.033	.046	.028	-		
64	.010	.013	.005	-.041	-.033	-.033	-.008	-.019	.005	.077	.100	-.041	-	
67	.009	.029	-.058	.053	-.036	.009	.027	.027	-.055	-.111	-.054	.026	-.022	-

Table 6

Item Mean, Standard Deviation, Item-Total Correlation, Alpha if Item Deleted and Alpha for Pampering Parenting Style (n = 436)

Item	Mean	Std. deviation	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's alpha
1	1.6216	.64068	.046	.733	.722
6	1.6032	.65100	.072	.731	
9	1.8486	1.03503	.622	.664	
12	1.6032	.62580	.088	.730	
14	1.8326	.99744	.670	.658	
23	1.8394	1.01569	.696	.653	
34	1.6766	.67364	.067	.733	
35	1.8234	1.03435	.641	.661	
48	1.8693	1.00750	.605	.668	
58	1.8028	.94326	.603	.670	
61	1.6674	.65175	.106	.729	
63	1.6904	.64896	.037	.734	
64	1.6904	.67330	.001	.738	
67	1.7248	.65209	-.033	.740	

As shown in Table 5, the inter item correlation coefficients of pampering parenting style ranged from a minimum of .00 to a maximum of .67. In this sub scale, item 9, item14, item 23,

item 35, item 48, and item 58 had .49 and above correlation coefficients, while other items in this subscale had .16 and below.

Besides, the results of item-total correlation coefficients and item mean values as displayed in Table 6, showed that item 9, item 14, item 23, item 35, item 48, and item 58 had .60 and above item total correlation coefficient and their item mean values were somewhat closer to the center (i.e., the median of five point scale ranging from 1 to 5 is 3). Furthermore, if item1, item 6, item12, item 34, item 61, item 63, item 64, and item 67 were deleted one at a time, the reliability coefficient of the pampering parenting subscale would be above .722 (see Table 6). In contrast, if item 9, item 14, item 23, item 35, item 48, and item 58 were removed one at a time from the subscale, the reliability coefficient of the subscale would be less than .722.

Table 7

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of Decent Parenting Style (n = 436)

Item	11	15	20	21	27	28	37	41	44	45	53	56	60	62	66	69
11	-															
15	.038	-														
20	-.006	.501	-													
21	.099	.010	-.021	-												
27	.096	.072	.035	-.087	-											
28	.043	.534	.574	.089	.047	-										
37	.066	.448	.374	.037	.026	.450	-									
41	-.035	.020	-.022	-.021	-.055	-.056	-.011	-								
44	.071	.478	.485	.062	.084	.491	.408	.005	-							
45	.026	.100	-.035	.010	.060	.013	.064	-.040	.051	-						
53	.004	.023	.006	-.047	-.053	.033	-.022	-.040	-.002	.021	-					
56	-.017	-.010	.035	-.071	.044	.045	-.039	.001	.088	.059	.101	-				
60	.090	.492	.471	.032	.071	.513	.432	.044	.434	.008	-.012	.013	-			
62	.031	.472	.446	.160	.010	.483	.429	-.003	.498	.110	-.031	.019	.476	-		
66	.129	.530	.426	.086	-.021	.475	.418	.051	.454	.055	-.034	-.025	.520	.483	-	
69	.044	-.049	-.091	.032	.018	-.030	-.086	-.002	-.051	.070	.039	.072	-.109	.013	-.033	-

Table 8

Item Mean, Standard Deviation, Item-Total Correlation, Alpha if Item Deleted and Alpha for Decent Parenting Style (n = 436)

Item	Mean	Std. deviation	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's alpha
11	1.6766	.65985	.095	.777	
15	2.1858	1.22235	.646	.733	
20	2.3670	1.33674	.576	.739	
21	1.6606	.63565	.067	.778	
27	1.7385	.73374	.056	.780	
28	2.2408	1.28985	.659	.731	.773
37	2.3945	1.30441	.527	.745	
41	1.7041	.66580	-.013	.782	
44	2.2546	1.26740	.616	.736	
45	1.7156	.66217	.080	.778	
53	1.6927	.65533	-.003	.782	
56	1.6995	.68756	.041	.780	
60	2.2661	1.29290	.612	.736	
62	2.3096	1.30534	.625	.734	
66	2.1835	1.18547	.616	.737	
69	1.9106	.99136	-.048	.792	

As Table 7 depicted, the inter item correlation coefficients of decent parenting style ranged from a minimum of .00 to a maximum of .57. From this subscale, the inter item correlation

coefficients of item 15, item 20, item 28, item 37, item 44, item 60, item 62, and item 66 had .37 and above, whereas item 11, item 21, item 27, item 41, item 45, item 53, item 56 and item 69 had .16 and below.

Moreover, as displayed in Table 8, the results of item-total correlation coefficients and item means revealed that item 15, item 20, item 28, item 37, item 44, item 60, item 62, and item 66 have shown .53 and above item total correlation coefficients and their mean values were closer to the center. Whereas item 11, item 21, item 27, item 41, item 45, item 53, item 56, and item 69 have shown .09 and below item total correlation coefficients and their mean values were not closer to the center as compared to other items in the subscale. In addition to this, alpha if item deleted result indicated that if item 11, item 21, item 27, item 41, item 45, item 53, item 56, and item 69 were deleted one at a time from the decent parenting style, the reliability coefficient of this parenting subscale would be above .773. On the other hand, if any of the remaining items in the decent parenting style was deleted one at a time, the reliability coefficient of the subscale would be less than .773.

Table 9

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of Reasonable Parenting Style (n = 436)

Item	16	18	19	22	26	32	33	39	40	46	49	50	54	68
16	-													
18	.007	-												
19	.025	-.012	-											
22	-.076	-.019	-.042	-										
26	.017	.648	-.018	-.029	-									
32	-.001	-.030	-.010	.005	-.042	-								
33	-.016	.696	-.028	.003	.675	-.018	-							
39	.078	-.009	-.010	-.056	-.042	.029	-.067	-						
40	-.060	.581	.006	.008	.569	-.019	.543	-.026	-					
46	-.010	.593	-.021	-.021	.635	-.005	.606	-.050	.557	-				
49	-.043	.014	.014	.031	-.028	.153	-.011	.047	-.055	-.011	-			
50	-.114	-.016	-.065	.094	.022	-.009	-.033	.011	-.016	.015	.020	-		
54	.032	.717	-.010	-.034	.686	-.055	.678	-.065	.581	.681	-.051	-.023	-	
68	.058	.644	.024	-.011	.644	-.065	.619	-.036	.590	.572	-.047	-.040	.668	-

Table 10

Item Mean, Standard Deviation, Item-Total Correlation, Alpha if Item Deleted and Alpha for Reasonable Parenting Style (n = 436)

Item	Mean	Std. deviation	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if Item deleted	Cronbach's alpha
16	1.6147	.63112	-.005	.819	
18	2.7775	1.45224	.766	.764	
19	1.6514	.65216	-.017	.819	
22	1.6927	.65533	-.021	.820	
26	2.6950	1.42266	.755	.766	
32	1.6720	.67142	-.027	.820	.809
33	2.6950	1.44670	.740	.767	
39	1.7110	.67736	-.043	.821	
40	2.8394	1.45804	.653	.776	
46	2.8394	1.43420	.708	.771	
49	1.7018	.68016	-.015	.820	
50	1.7156	.66563	-.020	.820	
54	2.7431	1.47876	.780	.762	
68	2.7179	1.48425	.727	.768	

In the reasonable parenting style, the inter item correlation coefficients ranged from a minimum of .00 to a maximum of .72. Among items in the subscale, the inter item correlation coefficient of item 16, item 19, item 22, item 32, item 39, item 49, and item 50 have shown .15 and below, whereas the remaining items have revealed .54 and above (see Table 9).

Besides, as shown in Table 10, the results of item-total correlation coefficients and item mean values revealed that item 18, item 26, item 33, item 40, item 46, item 54, and item 68 have shown .65 and above, and their mean values were also closer to the center. In contrast, item 16, item 19, item 22, item 32, item 39, item 49, and item 50 have shown below .10 item-total correlation coefficients and their mean values were not closer to the center. In addition, if item 16, item 19, item 22, item 32, item 39, item 49, and item 50 were removed one at a time, the reliability coefficient of the reasonable parenting subscale would be greater than .809. On the other hand, if item 18, item 26, item 33, item 40, item 46, item 54, and item 68 were excluded one at a time from the subscale, the reliability coefficient would be less than .809.

Table 11

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of Autocrat Parenting Style (n = 436)

Item	2	4	5	8	13	25	29	43	51	57	65
2	-										
4	.016	-									
5	.125	.133	-								
8	.134	.106	.728	-							
13	.125	.117	.651	.652	-						
25	-.075	.006	.045	.010	.072	-					
29	.070	.057	.637	.667	.547	.011	-				
43	.055	-.036	.006	-.022	.022	.058	-.028	-			
51	.022	-.038	.010	.031	-.033	.069	.017	.010	-		
57	.142	.103	.664	.654	.632	.040	.656	.056	.039	-	
65	.010	.039	.221	.165	.227	.015	.145	-.019	-.043	.219	-

Table 12

Item Mean, Standard Deviation, Item-Total Correlation, Alpha if Item Deleted and Alpha for Autocrat Parenting Style (n = 436)

Item	Mean	Std. deviation	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's alpha
2	1.6628	.70375	.131	.770	
4	1.6628	.69056	.109	.772	
5	1.9587	1.17175	.754	.690	
8	1.9174	1.18712	.739	.692	
13	2.0940	1.24582	.693	.699	.762
25	1.7087	.68817	.046	.777	
29	2.0229	1.23899	.655	.706	
43	1.7317	.68414	.015	.779	
51	1.6835	.66492	.015	.779	
57	1.9381	1.19321	.741	.691	
65	1.7913	.79366	.212	.764	

Table 11 showed that the inter item correlation coefficients of the autocrat parenting style ranged from a minimum of .00 to a maximum of .73. In this parenting subscale, item 2, item 4, item 25, item 43, item 51, and item 65 revealed .23 and below inter item correlation coefficients. Whereas item 5, item 8, item 13, item 29, and item 57 showed above .55 and above inter item correlation coefficients.

Moreover, as shown in Table 12, the results of item-total correlation coefficients and item means denoted that item 2, item 4, item 25, item 43, item 51, and item 65 have shown .21 and below item total correlation coefficients and their mean values were not closer to the center. On the contrary, item 5, item 8, item 13, item 29, and item 57 have shown .66 and above item total correlation coefficients and their mean values were closer to the center. On the other way, if item 2, item 4, item 25, item 43, item 51, and item 65 were deleted one at a time from autocrat parenting style, the reliability coefficient of the subscale would be above .762. In contrast, if one of the remaining items from the subscale was removed one at a time, the reliability coefficient of the subscale would be less than .762.

Table 13

Inter-Item Correlation Matrix of Laissez Faire Parenting Style (n = 436)

Item	3	7	10	17	24	30	31	36	38	42	47	52	55	59
3	-													
7	-.033	-												
10	-.076	-.007	-											
17	.022	-.068	-.004	-										
24	-.013	-.030	-.011	.049	-									
30	-.021	.048	-.023	-.026	.016	-								
31	.017	.114	.050	-.004	-.040	.026	-							
36	-.029	.010	-.060	-.047	.019	-.007	.051	-						
38	.048	-.075	.040	-.155	-.070	-.028	-.005	.022	-					
42	-.043	-.106	.082	.033	.043	-.006	.034	-.119	.037	-				
47	.077	.110	.005	-.025	-.010	-.046	.317	.013	.019	-.012	-			
52	-.045	-.002	.027	-.040	-.059	-.020	.285	.055	.003	.062	.362	-		
55	-.069	-.019	-.048	.009	.023	-.014	-.074	-.066	.063	-.032	-.025	.018	-	
59	-.031	-.067	.019	.102	.011	-.009	.056	.052	.074	.350	.054	.021	-.050	-

Table 14

Item Mean, Standard Deviation, Item-Total Correlation, Alpha if Item Deleted and Alpha for Laissez faire Parenting Style (n = 436)

Item	Mean	Std. deviation	Corrected item-total correlation	Cronbach's alpha if item deleted	Cronbach's alpha
3	1.6422	.65070	-.036	.255	
7	1.6606	.63565	.005	.240	
10	1.5711	.73468	.002	.244	
17	1.5780	.66150	-.048	.259	
24	1.6445	.67789	-.031	.254	.230
30	1.7110	.70072	-.029	.255	
31	1.8303	.95103	.283	.093	
36	1.6950	.67879	-.006	.245	
38	1.7248	.66258	-.007	.245	
42	1.4610	.50364	.069	.219	
47	2.0138	1.02151	.295	.074	
52	2.0505	1.09847	.238	.105	
55	1.6995	.66027	-.065	.266	
59	1.5206	.53993	.125	.201	

As shown in Table 13, the inter item correlation coefficients of laissez faire parenting style ranged from a minimum of .00 to a maximum of .36 . From this parenting style subscale, only item 31, item 42, item 47, item 52, and item 59 had .32 and above inter item correlation coefficients. Whereas item 3, item 7, item 10, item 17, item 24, item 30, item 36, item 38, and

item 55 have shown .29 and below inter item correlation coefficients. On the other hand, as shown in Table 14, the results of item total correlation coefficients showed that all items in laissez faire parenting subscale had .295 and below item total correlation coefficients though only the item means of item 31, item 47, and item 52 were found to be closer to the center. Furthermore, the overall alpha coefficient of laissez faire parenting subscale was not strong (.230).

Generally, on the item analysis part, items having both inter item correlation coefficients above .30, item total correlation coefficients above .50, and their mean values closer to the center were subjected to exploratory factor analysis. For this purpose, twenty-six items (item 5, item 8, item 9, item 13, item 14, item 15, item 18, item 20, item 23, item 26, item 28, item 29, item 33, item 35, item 37, item 40, item 44, item 46, item 48, item 54, item 57, item 58, item 60, item 62, item 66, & item 68) were used.

Before conducting exploratory factor analysis, the underlying assumptions were assessed using the selected 26 items. One of the assumptions of EFA is normality. In relation to this, as shown in Table 15 for multivariate normality and Appendix E for univariate normality, the values of skewness and kurtosis were within normal ranges, revealing that there were no problems with skew or kurtosis. Moreover, the distribution of the data was checked using graphical presentation, and Q-Q plot. The results showed that the distribution seemed to be symmetrical and the plots were closer to diagonal line, indicating normality evidences (see Appendix J). The second assumption is linearity and this was checked using scatter plot. As shown in Appendix J, the plot showed that there was linear relationship between items. The other assumptions are random sampling and interval or ratio-scaled data. With this regard, participants in this study were selected using random sampling technique, and Likert type scale was assumed as interval

level data. It is because Floyd and Widaman (1995) suggested that Likert-scaled or multipoint rating items are generally considered as interval scale and classified as continuous. Thus, the current data maintained the assumptions of EFA.

Table 15

The Distribution of the Parenting Style Data Used for Exploratory Factor Analysis (n = 436)

Scale	No. of items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Median	Mode	Skew	Kurt	Mimi.	Maxi.
APPS	26	58.41	7.88	59.00	57.00	-.25	-.19	37.00	79.00

Exploratory Factor Analysis

In order to identify the underlying factors or components of parenting style, Principal Component Analysis extraction method with orthogonal rotation was employed. Orthogonal rotation was appropriate when there is low correlation between factors. As shown in Table 16, the correlation coefficients between parenting style subscales were found to be -.30 and below.

Table 16

The Correlation between Parenting Style Subscales (n=436)

Parenting style subscale	1	2	3	4
1. Pampering	-			
2. Decent	-.195**	-		
3. Reasonable	-.243**	-.301**	-	
4. Autocrat	-.025	-.219**	-.284**	-

** $P < .01$

Prior to interpreting the EFA output, the Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy, Bartlett's Chi-square test, and participant to item ratio were examined to determine if the data are likely to factor well. As the result, the Kaiser Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy index was .91, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, $\chi^2 (df = 325, n = 436) = 6325.26, p < .001$, and participant-item ratio of 16:1 (i.e., $436 / 26$) was met.

To determine the number of factors, three general rules of thumb were used: (1) factors with eigenvalues > 1.0 , (2) cumulative percentage of variance extracted, and (3) the eigenvalues above the elbow line in the scree plot. As shown in Table 17, the Principal Components Analysis with varimax rotation yielded a four-component solution with eigenvalues greater than one. Component one accounted for 23.62 % of the variance with eigenvalue 6.14, component two accounted for 19.95 % of the variance with eigenvalue 5.19, component three accounted for 14.68 % of the variance with eigenvalue 3.82, and component four accounted for 5.69 % of the variance with eigenvalue 1.48. In general, the four components accounted for about 63.95 % of the total variance (see the total output in Appendix G).

Table 17

The Eigenvalues, Total Percentage of Variance and the Cumulative Percentage of Variance Accounted for by the Four Components

Component	Total	Initial Eigenvalues % of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.141	23.621	23.621
2	5.188	19.954	43.575
3	3.817	14.682	58.256
4	1.479	5.690	63.946

The criterion of eigenvalue greater than one was complemented with the scree test. As shown in Figure 7, the maximum number of components extracted was indicated by the point before the plot levels off (i.e., the point preceding the elbow). Components beyond this point contributed negligible variance. Thus, the first four components (above eigenvalue 1) were meaningful. In contrast, the remaining components having eigenvalues below one (i.e., 5 to 26) were found to be trivial. Therefore, the eigenvalue greater than one, the scree plot, and the cumulative percentage of variance criteria indicated that four components were to be retained.

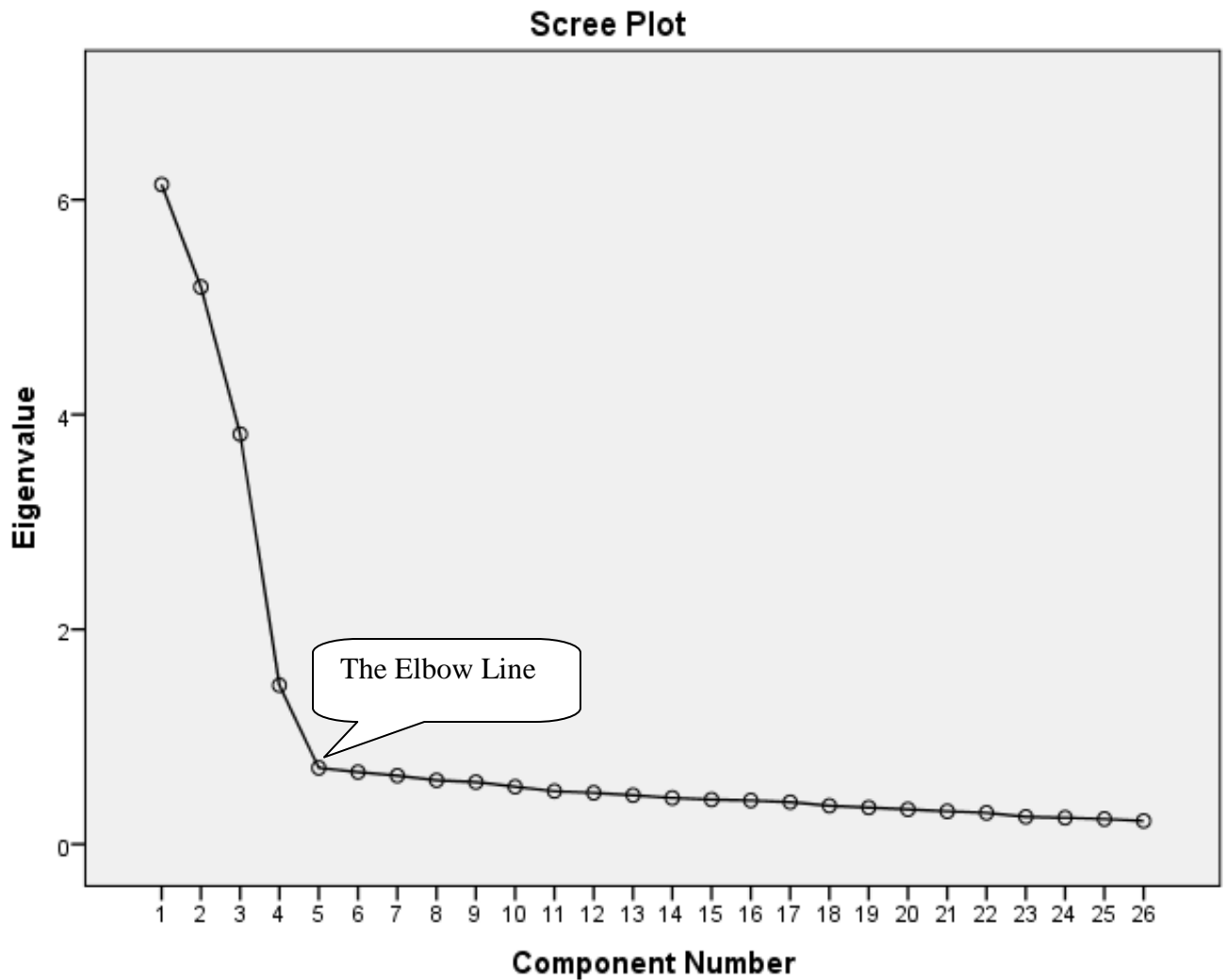


Figure 7. The scree plot of the eigenvalues and the components

With regard to the factor loadings of the four components, as shown in Table 18, item 7, item 10, item 13, item 16, item 18, item 20, and item 26 loaded high on component one ranging from .77 to .82 and with communalities ranging from .61 to .76. Item 6, item 8, item 11, item 15, item 17, item 23, item 24, and item 25 loaded high on component two ranging from .69 to .74 and with communalities ranging from .51 to .59. Item 3, item 5, item 9, item 14, item 19, and item 22 loaded high on component three ranging from .75 to .83 and with communalities ranging from .57 to .71. Item 1, item 2, item 4, item 12, and item 21 loaded high on component four ranging from .81 to .85 and with communalities ranging from .68 to .76.

Table 18

The Rotated Component Matrix and Commuality

Item	Component				h^2
	1	2	3	4	
Item10	.819	-.120	-.122	-.109	.712
Item20	.812	-.255	-.104	-.154	.759
Item26	.802	-.124	-.097	-.088	.676
Item7	.797	-.204	-.128	-.131	.711
Item13	.775	-.203	-.145	-.158	.688
Item18	.773	-.138	-.105	-.126	.644
Item16	.769	-.002	-.103	-.106	.613
Item11	-.148	.736	-.126	-.107	.591
Item24	-.096	.730	-.085	-.036	.551

(Continued)

Item	Component				h^2
	1	2	3	4	
Item6	-.225	.722	-.063	-.098	.586
Item25	-.126	.721	-.069	-.047	.542
Item15	.060	.708	-.021	-.063	.509
Item17	-.099	.707	-.080	-.098	.526
Item23	-.166	.698	-.104	-.125	.542
Item8	-.176	.688	-.086	-.105	.522
Item9	-.137	-.062	.829	.032	.711
Item5	-.122	-.081	.809	-.006	.675
Item3	-.066	-.140	.781	-.040	.635
Item14	-.148	-.111	.777	-.061	.642
Item19	-.100	-.142	.761	-.042	.612
Item22	-.097	-.032	.750	-.031	.574
Item2	-.166	-.129	-.057	.846	.763
Item1	-.229	-.163	-.006	.825	.759
Item21	-.181	-.119	-.073	.818	.722
Item12	-.083	-.105	-.010	.816	.684
Item4	-.095	-.101	-.017	.811	.678

Note: Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

h^2 - denotes communality

Reliability Analysis

The most common method of assessing internal consistency reliability estimates is through the use of coefficient alpha. Therefore, the reliability estimate for internal consistency was computed based on Cronbach's Alpha for each of the four parenting subscales (see Table 19). The reliability estimates for reasonable, decent, pampering and autocrat parenting subscales were .92, .88, .89, and .90 respectively.

Table 19

Items and Reliability Coefficients of the Four Parenting Subscales (n = 436)

Subscale	Items	No of items	Reliability coefficient
Reasonable	7, 10, 13, 16, 18, 20, 26	7	.922
Decent	6, 8, 11, 15, 17, 23, 24, 25	8	.877
Pampering	3, 5, 9, 14, 19, 22	6	.887
Autocrat	1, 2, 4, 12, 21	5	.901

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Following exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis, the final 26 items were administered to 320 participants (Male = 160; Female = 160) in grades nine through twelve to carry out confirmatory factor analysis. Of the total 320 participants who participated in this phase, 314 (98.13 %) participants (Male = 156; Female = 158) whose ages ranged from 15 to 22 years ($M = 17.59$, $SD = 1.51$) responded to all of the items properly, whereas 6 (1.87 %) participants who did not attempt to most of the items were excluded from the study.

Before running Confirmatory Factor Analysis, like EFA, error data in the database and the underlying assumptions of confirmatory factor analysis were checked. First, whether or not there

were erroneous data and missing value in the database, the minimum and maximum scores and the frequency distributions of each item were assessed. Thus, the minimum and maximum scores were within the limits (i.e., from one to five), and no missing data were observed in the database (see Appendix D). Second, the assumption of normality was examined using skewness and kurtosis values, the graphical presentation, and the Q-Q plot, whereas linearity was examined using scatter plot. The results revealed that both the values of skewness and kurtosis of all items (see Table 20), and for each item (Appendix E) were within normal limits. In addition, the graphical representation of the data and the Q-Q plot indicated that the distribution was found to be normal (see Appendix J). In relation to linearity, the scatter plot displayed that there was linear relationship between items in the data (see Appendix J).

Table 20

The Distribution of the Parenting Style Data Used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (n = 314)

Scale	No. of items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Median	Mode	Skew	Kurt	Mimi.	Maxi.
APPS	26	58.92	5.64	59.00	57.00	-.19	-.13	42.00	72.00

After data cleaning and the underlying assumptions were checked, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to investigate how well a four- factor parenting style measurement model, which was identified in this study with EFA, fits the new sample data. Therefore, the fit between the model and the data was evaluated using: the chi-square test; the fit indices such as the goodness-of-fit index (GFI), the adjusted goodness-of-fit index (AGFI), the normed fit index (NFI), the non-normed fit index (NNFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and the chi-square / df ratio; and significance tests for factor loadings.

As the result, the observed chi-square value was 330.71 and the p value was .06, indicating that this measurement model was not significant. Moreover, the chi-square / df ratio of the model was 1.13 ($\chi^2 = 330.71$; $df = 293$). The results of the fit indices also revealed that GFI = .92, AGFI = .91; NFI = .98, NNFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .02 (See Appendix L).

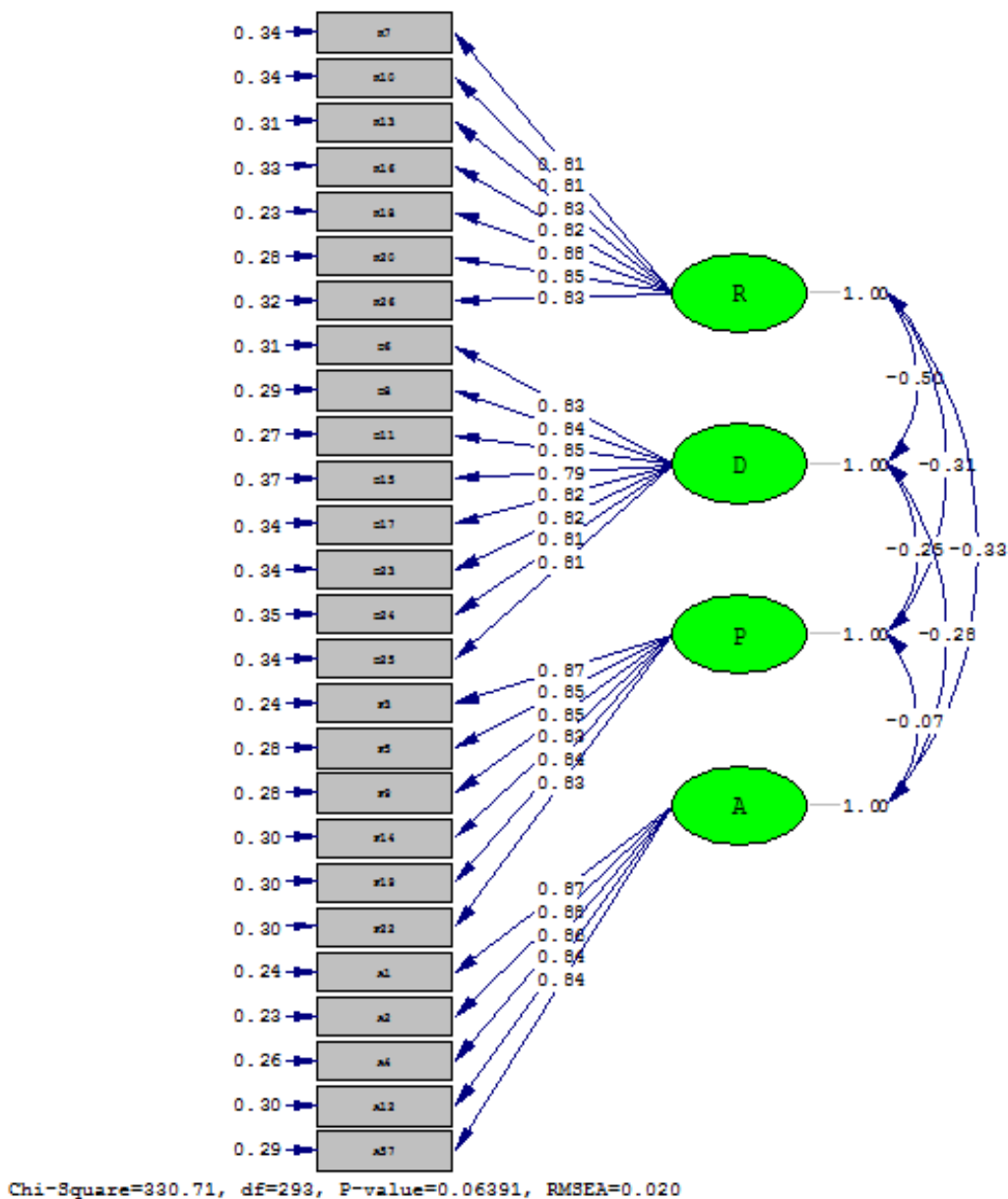


Figure 8. Standardized loadings for the four- factor parenting style measurement model (n =314)

As shown in Figure 8, items in the four-factor parenting style measurement model estimated in the expected direction with no cross loading. That is, items (R7, R10, R13, R16, R18, R20, R26) were estimated by reasonable parenting subscale, items (D6, D8, D11, D15, D17, D23, D24, D25) were estimated by decent parenting subscale, items (P3, P5, P9, P14, P 19, P 22) were estimated by pampering parenting subscale, and items (A1, A2, A4, A12, A21) were estimated by autocrat parenting subscale.

Moreover, as displayed in Figure 8 and Figure 9, the results of standardized loadings and t-values for reasonable parenting subscale ranging from .81 (17.32) to .88 (19.59), for decent parenting subscale ranging from .79 (16.71) to .85 (18.67), for pampering parenting subscale ranging from .83 (17.93) to .87 (19.18), and for autocrat parenting subscale ranging from .84 (17.99) to .88 (19.35), indicating that all factor loadings were significant at $p < .001$.

The standardized factor loading squared represents coefficient of determination (R^2), which means the extent that a factor can explain the variance in an item. Therefore, the minimum standardized loading of this measurement model was found to be .79 ($R^2 = .62$), which revealed that each item explained 62 % of the variance and above.

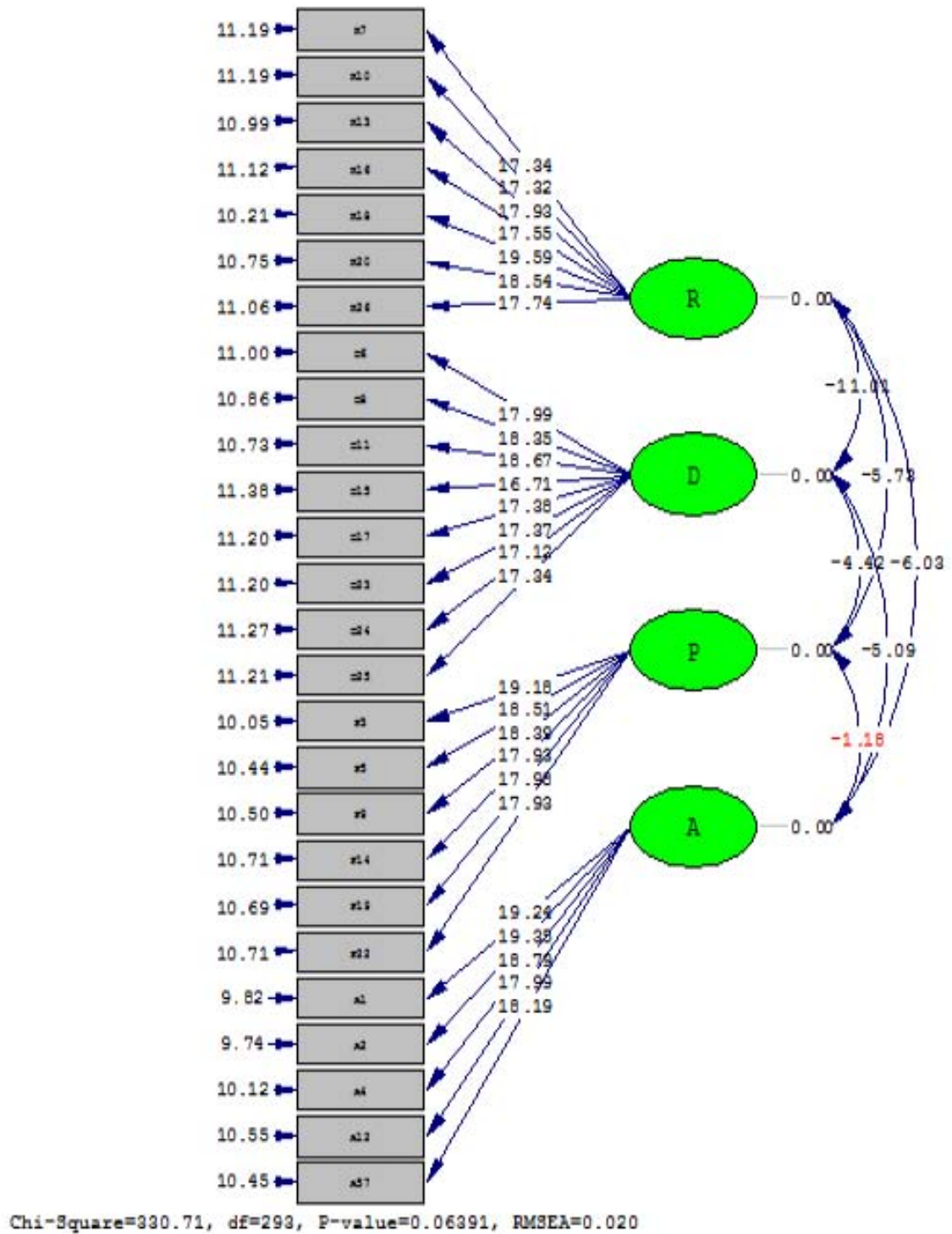


Figure 9. T-values for the four-factor parenting style measurement model (n=314)

Validity Assessment

Once the dimensionality and the reliability of a scale was determined and found to be appropriate, the scale was also further checked for its convergent and discriminant validity. Convergent validity was assessed by comparing the values of composite reliability (CR) with the values of average variance extracted (AVE); the Bentler-Bonett coefficients (NFI & NNFI); and *t*-values for the factor loadings.

On the other hand, discriminant validity was assessed by comparing the average variance extracted (AVE) with the values of the maximum shared squared variances (MSV) and average shared squared variance (ASV). Moreover, it was assessed by the square root of the average variance extracted for each subscale with the correlation coefficients of other subscales.

Table 21

Composite Reliability, Average Variance Extracted, Maximum Shared Squared Variance and Average Shared Squared Variance Values of the Four Parenting Subscales (n =314)

Parenting style subscale	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Reasonable	.94	.69	.25	.15
Decent	.94	.68	.25	.13
Pampering	.93	.72	.09	.05
Autocrat	.92	.74	.11	.06

Note. CR = composite reliability; AVE = average variance extracted; MSV = maximum shared squared variance; ASV = average shared square variance.

In this study, as illustrated in Table 21, the values of composite reliability (CR) and the average variance extracted (AVE) of all parenting subscales were $\geq .92$ and $\geq .68$ respectively,

and the value of composite reliability of each parenting subscales was greater than the value of average variance extracted. Moreover, the Bentler-Bonett coefficients of NFI and NNFI had values of .98 and 1.00 respectively. Furthermore, the *t*-values for the factor loadings of all items in each parenting subscale were found to be ≥ 16.71 .

With regard to discriminant validity, as shown in Table 21, the result revealed that the values of average variance extracted of each parenting subscale were greater than both the values of maximum shared squared variance and average shared squared variance. Moreover, as shown in Table 22, the square root of the average variance extracted value of each parenting subscale was higher than its correlation coefficients with other parenting subscales.

Table 22

The Square Root of Average Variance Extracted and the Correlation between Parenting Style Subscales (n =314)

Subscale	Reasonable	Decent	Pampering	Autocrat
Reasonable	.83			
Decent	-.50	.82		
Pampering	-.31	-.25	.85	
Autocrat	-.33	-.28	-.07	.86

Note. The bold diagonal values are the square root of average variance extracted (AVE) for each subscale. The lower off-diagonal values are the correlation between subscales

Norms of the Scale

In order to show the norms of the scale, the mean and standard deviation of the four parenting style subscales were computed.

Table 23

Items, Mean, Standard Deviation, Minimum Score and Maximum Score of the Four Parenting Style Subscales (n =314)

Parenting style subscale	Items	Mean	SD	Minim.	Maxim.
Reasonable	7, 10, 13, 16, 18, 20, 26	16.89	8.06	8.00	35.00
Decent	6, 8, 11, 15, 17, 23, 24, 25	19.93	9.16	8.00	37.00
Pampering	3,5, 9, 14, 19, 22	11.89	5.72	6.00	30.00
Autocrat	1, 2, 4, 12, 21	10.20	5.30	5.00	25.00

As shown in Table 23, the mean and standard deviation values of reasonable, decent, pampering and autocrat parenting subscales were 16.89 (8.06), 19.93 (9.16), 11.89 (5.72) and 10.20 (5.30) respectively.

Moreover, in order to determine which individual scores signify, the percentile rankings of reasonable, decent, pampering, and autocrat parenting subscales were presented in Table 24.

Table 24

The Norms of Parenting Style Subscales in Terms of Percentile Rank (n = 314)

Reasonable		Decent		Pampering		Autocrat	
Score	Percentile	Score	Percentile	Score	Percentile	Score	Percentile
8.00	2.9	8.00	1.0	6.00	2.5	5.00	3.5
9.00	9.6	9.00	1.9	7.00	7.6	6.00	13.4
10.00	21.3	10.00	5.1	8.00	18.8	7.00	32.5
11.00	36.0	11.00	11.8	9.00	35.7	8.00	52.5
12.00	44.3	12.00	26.4	10.00	56.4	9.00	68.5
13.00	54.1	13.00	35.7	11.00	72.0	10.00	77.4
14.00	62.1	14.00	45.5	12.00	80.9	11.00	84.1
15.00	65.6	15.00	51.6	13.00	86.0	12.00	85.0
16.00	68.5	16.00	58.9	14.00	87.6	13.00	85.7
17.00	68.8	17.00	60.8	15.00	88.2	20.00	86.0
21.00	69.1	18.00	63.4	18.00	88.5	21.00	87.6
22.00	69.7	22.00	63.7	21.00	88.9	22.00	93.3
23.00	70.7	23.00	64.0	24.00	90.1	23.00	96.8
24.00	71.7	24.00	65.0	25.00	90.8	24.00	99.7
25.00	73.2	25.00	66.2	26.00	93.0	25.00	100.0
26.00	76.4	26.00	66.6	27.00	95.9		
27.00	80.3	27.00	68.5	28.00	97.5		
28.00	83.8	28.00	72.3	29.00	98.7		
29.00	88.5	29.00	73.2	30.00	100.0		
30.00	93.0	30.00	76.1				
31.00	97.5	31.00	78.3				
32.00	98.1	32.00	84.1				
33.00	99.0	33.00	87.9				
34.00	99.7	34.00	93.3				
35.00	100.0	35.00	96.8				
		36.00	99.0				
		37.00	100.0				

3.3. Discussion

This section discussed the results of the analyses in line with the phases of the proposed model of the study.

Specifying the Construct

In the first stage of a scale development process, a scale developer should specify the nature of a construct and its conceptual theme (Churchill, 1979; MacKenzie, 2003; Schwab, 1980; Spector, 1992). For this purpose, two focus group discussions were used, one for specifying and defining parenting styles as well as generating their indicators; and the other for getting feedback on the data obtained from the first focus group discussion. Focus group discussion provides an opportunity to learn more about informants' experiences and perspectives that would not be captured through the use of questionnaires. Some of the advantages of focus group discussion over individual interview include: (1) Gathering greater amount of information more efficiently, (2) fosters group synergy to get more creative thought, ideas, and expressions, and (3) peer validation which is inherent in focus group can serve as a means to generate a broader discussion of the topic of interest (Nassar- McMillan & Borders, 2002).

Therefore, informants in the first focus group discussion were invited to elicit their perceived experiences of the types of parenting styles exercised in Amhara region. As a result, five parenting styles were identified: (1) “ልቅ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት” (pampering parenting style), (2) “ጨዋ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት” (decent parenting style), (3) “ምክንያታዊ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት” (reasonable parenting style), (4) “ፈላጭ ቆራጭ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት” (autocrat parenting style) and (5) “ግድ የሌሽ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት” (laissez-faire parenting style).

Once a construct is clearly identified, it should be carefully defined in a clear and an unambiguous term to address what the construct is intended to conceptually represent or capture (Hinkin, 1995; Hudson, 1994; Kerlinger, 1986; MacKenzie, 2003). With this intent, informants in the first focus group discussion were also asked to define the five identified styles of parenting. Therefore, informants defined these parenting styles as follow:

Pampering parenting style defined as a type of parenting style that parents try to fulfill the needs and desires of their children anything they are asked to do. In this type of parenting, parents are usually overindulgent to their children and they do not reprimand their children whatever the children do.

Decent parenting style defined as a type of parenting style that parents give due attention to cultural norms and expectations. Thus, they direct their children to obey these cultural norms and expectations. Moreover, they also closely monitor their children's daily activities and provide reward for their children's good deeds and punish for their wrong doings.

Reasonable parenting style defined as a type of parenting style that parents allow their children to do what they want to do as long as the children have justification to convince their parents. In this type of parenting, parents use advice rather than punishment for their children's wrong doings. Parents also follow up and care their children reasonably. Moreover, they freely discuss with their children on day to day activities.

Autocrat parenting style defined as a type of parenting style that parents over control their children's overall activities. In this type of parenting, children have no choice except strictly following their parents' instructions. Moreover, parents usually do not show love to their children and use punishment excessively to discipline their children.

Laissez-faire parenting style defined as a type of parenting style that parents do not bother about their children's whereabouts. In this type of parenting, parents do not give time and attention to their children or they ignore whatever the children do or say.

Item Generation

According to Clark and Watson (1995), the fundamental nature of item generation is to represent adequate sample of items that are potentially relevant to the target construct. With respect to this, in the first focus group discussion, initially 94 items: 20 for pampering parenting style, 18 for decent parenting style, 20 for reasonable parenting style, 19 for autocrat parenting style, and 17 for laissez-faire parenting style were generated. In addition, informants in the second focus group discussion added two items for pampering parenting style, four items for decent parenting style, and two items for autocrat parenting style. Therefore, a total of 102 items were generated for the five styles of parenting.

Scaling Format

Items should also be designed in the appropriate scaling format. The most commonly used scaling format is Likert type. Likert type scale typically involves an item in the form of a statement, followed by response options — the number of options rarely exceeds seven — that indicate varying degrees of agreement or frequency (Dawis, 1998; De Vellis, 1991).

Therefore, the generated 102 items were converted into self descriptive statements with a 5-point Likert type scale ranged from 5 (*Strongly Agree*) to 1 (*Strongly Disagree*), with clear instructions.

Content Validity Assessment

Content validity is often viewed as the minimum psychometric requirement for measurement adequacy and is the first step in construct validation of a new measure

(Schriesheim et al., 1993). With this regard, Lawshe (1975) specified a formula to determine a minimum Content Validity Ratio (CVR) for different expert judge sizes. Accordingly, Lawshe suggested that a minimum CVR value of .62 is required for 10 expert judges. In the current study, therefore, out of 102 draft items, 69 items with values .60 and above CVR were retained on this phase.

Scale Purification

On this phase, the results of item analysis, exploratory factor analysis, reliability analysis, and then confirmatory factor analysis were discussed so far.

Item Analysis

Item analysis provides an overview of the power of the items in the scale. According to Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), the most commonly used procedures for analyzing items in a scale development process are: item- mean, inter- item correlation, corrected item-total correlations, and alpha if item deleted. With this regard, an item having less than .30 correlation coefficient (Flynn et al., 1994; Hair et al., 2010); below .50 item total correlation coefficient (Hair et al, 2010); and extremely low or high mean value (DeVellis, 1991) should be excluded from the scale. Based on these criteria, 26 items were found to be appropriate for further analysis. Following item analysis, therefore, 26 items were subjected to exploratory factor analysis.

As part of preparing data for exploratory factor analysis, it was important to check the distribution of the data. Whether or not the distribution is symmetrical, it can be detected using skewness and kurtosis values (Harrington, 2009). The absolute values of skew greater than 3.0 indicating the distribution is extremely skewed, and absolute values of kurtosis greater than 10.0 suggesting a problem, and values greater than 20.0 indicate serious problem with kurtosis (Kline,

2005). In this study, therefore, the values of skewness and kurtosis for all items as well as for each item were below these cutoff points, indicating normal distribution.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

EFA is used to determine the underlying factors that exist in a set of data (Stevens, 1996). Principal component analysis (PCA) is the desired method of EFA to reduce a number of items into components (Netemeyer et al., 2003). Therefore, in order to determine the underlying factors or components of parenting style, exploratory factor analysis was employed using the PCA extraction method with orthogonal rotation. Orthogonal rotation method was preferred to this study since the correlation between parenting style subscales have shown below.32. Regarding this, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) stated that orthogonal rotation method is appropriate when the factor correlation matrix for values below.32.

Before interpreting the EFA output, Kaiser- Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Measure of Sampling Adequacy, Bartlett's Chi-square test, and participant to item ratio were examined in order to determine if the sample and correlation matrix were appropriate for EFA.

KMO measure of sampling adequacy examines sample sufficiency, whereas Bartlett's test of sphericity measures the presence of correlations among items (Kaiser, 1974). To precede EFA, the value of KMO should be greater than .50, and Bartlett's test of sphericity should be significant ($< .05$) (Malhotra, 2005). In the current data, therefore, the value of KMO was .91, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, $\chi^2 (df = 325, n = 436) = 6325.26, p < .001$, indicating that the sample and correlation matrix were appropriate for EFA.

With regard to participant to item ratio, various researchers set different criteria ranging from 5: 1 (e.g. Floyd & Widaman, 1995; Gorsuch , 1983; Hair et al., 1998) to 20: 1 (e.g.

Stevens, 1996). Accordingly, the result of the current study revealed that 16 to 1 ratio, indicating participant to item ratio was found to be in the acceptable range.

On the other hand, to determine the number of factors, the most common criteria were recommended by researchers: (1) eigenvalues greater than one (e.g., Gorsuch, 1983; Norris et al., 2009); ≥ 50 % cumulative variance extracted (e.g., Hair et al., 1995); and the eigenvalues above the elbow line in the scree plot (e.g., Fabrigar et al., 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Cognizant of these criteria, the Principal Components Analysis with orthogonal rotation revealed a four-component solution that accounted for 63.95% of the total variance. The eigenvalue and percentage of variance accounted for by component one, component two, component three, and component four were 6.14 (23.62 %), 5.19 (19.95 %), 3.82 (14.68 %), and 1.48 (5.69 %) respectively. Further evidence in support of this finding was also assured by the scree test. That is, in the scree plot, four meaningful components were identified before the plot leveled off.

With regard to interpreting a factor or giving that factor a name, a minimum of three items (Comrey, 1988), greater than .32 factor loadings, and communality above .50 (Maccallum, 1990; Worthington & Whittaker, 2006) are required although the choice of a cutoff point for factor loading to be interpreted is a matter of a researcher preference within these ranges. Regarding the factor loading, Comrey and Lee (1992) suggested that loadings $> .71$ are considered excellent, $> .63$ are considered very good, $> .55$ are considered good, $> .45$ are considered fair, and less than .32 are considered poor. In this study, therefore, seven items under component one, eight items under component two, six items under component three, and five items under component four had factor loadings of above .32, with communalities $> .50$.

Following factor rotation, the labeling of factors was also examined. With this regard, Kim and Meuller (1978) noted that once the number of factors and their indicators are identified, each

cluster of items should be carefully examined to determine the underlying factor and its substantive meaning. Accordingly, items (7, 10, 13, 16, 18, 20, 26) with the strongest factor loadings on component one were labeled as reasonable parenting style; items (6, 8, 11, 15, 17, 23, 24, 25) with the strongest factor loadings on component two were labeled as decent parenting style ; items (3, 5, 9, 14, 19, 22) with the strongest factor loadings on component three were labeled as pampering parenting style; and items (1, 2, 4, 12, 21) with the strongest factor loadings on component four were labeled as autocrat parenting style as proposed initially.

Reliability Analysis

Reliability is the stability or consistency of scores over time or across raters (De Vos et al., 2002). One of the aspects of reliability is internal consistency. Internal consistency is estimated through split-half reliability, coefficient alpha or the Kuder-Richardson formula 20 (KR-20). Among these, coefficient alpha is typically used for scale development with items that have several response options.

Reliability estimates can range in value from 0 to 1, and a reliability coefficient of .70 or greater is considered acceptable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Therefore, in this study, the reliability estimates for internal consistency were computed using Cronbach's Alpha for each of the four parenting subscales. Thus, the reliability estimates for reasonable, decent, pampering, and autocrat parenting subscales were .92, .88, .89, and .90 respectively, indicating good subscale reliability.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to investigate the factor stability of a hypothesized four- factor parenting style measurement model fits the observed data. The fit

between the model and the data was examined using the chi-square test, fit indices, and significance tests for factor loadings.

Chi-square test was used to test the hypothesized model fits the data. According to Hatcher (1994), if the model provides a good fit, the chi-square value should be non significant ($p > .05$). In the present study, therefore, the observed chi-square value of 330.71 was not significant ($p = .06$), suggesting that the model was a good fit to the data. Moreover, the chi-square / degree of freedom ratio was calculated to determine if the ratio was less than 2 as Ullman (2001) recommended. The Chi-square / *df* ratio for this model was 1.13 ($\chi^2 = 330.71$; $df = 293$) confirming that the model fitted the data.

Furthermore, since literature has widely noted that the chi-square statistic is highly sensitive to large samples (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Byrne, 2001; Stevens, 1996), alternative fit indices have been recommended. As recommended by Joreskog and Sorbom (2002), and Lindquist et al. (2001), the areas of greater focus were goodness of fit index (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit index (AGFI), normed fit index (NFI), non-normed fit index (NNFI), and root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA).

Therefore, GFI with value above .90 (Joreskog & Sorbom, 2002), AGFI with value above .90 (Garver & Mentzer, 1999), NFI and NNFI with values above .90 (Byrne, 2001), and RMSEA with value less than .08 (Hatcher, 1994) are generally acceptable. The results of these fit indices in this study revealed that GFI = .92, AGFI = .91, NFI = .98, NNFI = 1.00, and RMSEA = .02, confirming that the model was a good fit to the observed data.

Moreover, items with *t*- values above 2.0 were considered as significant loadings (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Therefore, the standardized factor loadings and *t*-values of this parenting style measurement model ranged from a minimum of .79 (16.71) to a maximum of .88 (19.59) which

meant that from 62.41 % to 77.44 % of variance accounted for, indicating that all items significantly loaded on the expected parenting subscales and they were considered as important to the model, and none of them deleted from this measurement model.

In general, the results of the Confirmatory Factor Analysis provided evidence that the measurement model fitted the data. First, the chi-square test was not significant. Second, the chi-square / *df* ratio, and the indices of fit examined were all within the acceptable range. Third, the *t*- values for the factor loadings were also significant.

Validity Assessment

Among other types of validities, construct validity is usually assessed using convergent and discriminant validity. A construct is said to possess convergent validity if items of a construct are highly correlated (Kaplan & Sacuzzo, 1993), whereas discriminant validity is the extent to which items representing a construct discriminate that construct from other items representing another construct (Mentzer et al., 1999). Convergent and discriminant validities of a construct were examined in several ways. To examine the convergent validity of an instrument, Ahire et al. (1996) and Green et al. (2006) suggested that the Bentler-Bonett coefficients (i.e., NFI & NNFI) with values greater than .90 indicating strong convergent validity exists. Moreover, convergent validity is examined using *t*-values for the factor loadings. If all *t*-values are > 2 , then this is viewed as evidence supporting convergent validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Moreover, for convergent validity check, Bagozzi et al. (1991) suggested that all items should load on their hypothesized dimensions with values greater than .32 and the loadings should be positive and significant. Furthermore, Hair et al. (2010) suggested that there is convergent validity if composite reliability is greater than average variance extracted, where the values of composite reliability and average variance extracted are greater than .70 and .50 respectively. In line with

this, the convergent validity results of this study revealed that the Bentler-Bonett coefficients were greater than .90 (NFI = .98 & NNFI = 1.00), and the *t*-values of all subscales were above 2 (≥ 16.71), and all items loaded above .32 ($\geq .79$) with no cross loading. Moreover, the composite reliabilities of all subscales exceeded the minimum limit of .70 ($\geq .92$) and were larger than the average variance extracted (AVE). The average variance extracted estimates were all above the recommended .50 level ($\geq .68$). Therefore, all subscales in this study had sufficient convergent validity.

With regard to discriminant validity check, on the other hand, Garver and Mentzer (1999) suggested that items from one factor should not load on a different factor. Moreover, Hair et al. (2010) recommended that if the values of maximum shared squared variance and average shared square variance are less than the value of average variance extracted, indicating that there is strong discriminant validity. Furthermore, it is evidenced that there is discriminant validity if the square root of the average variance extracted for each factor is greater than its correlations with other factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In the present study, therefore, both the values of maximum shared squared variance and average shared squared variance of each subscale were less than the values of average variance extracted. In addition to this, the square root of the average variance extracted value of each parenting subscale was higher than its correlation coefficients with other parenting subscales. Therefore, these findings revealed that all parenting subscales displayed sufficient discriminant validity.

Norms of the Scale

Norms, which establish the pattern of scores on a scale for a target population, provide researchers to compare an individual's score with other scores in the population (Spector, 1992).

Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style (APPS) scale consisted of 26 items with a multidimensional construct, which contained four parenting subscales: reasonable parenting style, decent parenting style, pampering parenting style, and autocrat parenting style.

Reasonable parenting style scale included seven items. The mean and the standard deviation values of this parenting subscale were 16.89 and 8.06 respectively. Decent parenting subscale included eight items with the mean score of 19.93 and standard deviation of 9.16. Pampering parenting subscale included six items. The mean and the standard deviation values of this scale were 11.89 and 5.72 respectively. Autocrat parenting style subscale contained five items. The mean and the standard deviation values of this scale were 10.20 and 5.30 respectively.

Scoring and Interpretation

The APPS scale is a self reported tool used to measure perceived parenting styles. Seven items (7, 10, 13, 16, 18, 20, 26) are related to the reasonable parenting style measure. Eight items (6, 8, 11, 15, 17, 23, 24, 25) are related to the decent parenting style measure. Six items (3, 5, 9, 14, 19, 22) are related to the pampering parenting style measure. Five items (1, 2, 4, 12, 21) are related to the autocrat parenting style measure. All these items are phrased in a positive direction, and each item of the four parenting subscales is answered on a 1–5 scale that ranges from *Strongly Disagree* to *Strongly Agree*. The sum of scores of the responses to items in each subscale produces a total score for each subscale. Thus, scores for reasonable parenting subscale can range from 7 (Strong Disagreement with all items) to 35 (Strong Agreement with all items). Scores for decent parenting subscale can range from 8 (Strong Disagreement with all items) to 40 (Strong Agreement with all items). Scores for pampering parenting subscale can range from 6 (Strong Disagreement with all items) to 30 (Strong Agreement with all items). Scores for autocrat parenting subscale can range from 5 (Strong Disagreement with all items) to 25 (Strong

Agreement with all items). The total score for each category provides a dimensional measure showing the degree to which that parental style was experienced by an individual.

In line with this, Hudson (1982) suggested a standard scoring formula for all scales. This formula always generates a score from 0 to 100. Such a score simplifies the process of interpreting the score – the higher the score the more of the construct is present. This is done using the following formula:

$$S = \frac{(\sum X - N) (100)}{N (K-1)}$$

Where,

X = Item responses

N = Number of items

K = Largest item response permitted

S = Final score

Based on the above formula, for instance, the minimum summed score of reasonable parenting subscale is 7 which is equivalent to 0, and its maximum summed score is 35, which is equivalent to 100. Therefore, high score in such a parenting subscale signifies that a respondent experienced that parental style.

4. STUDY TWO

The first purpose of study two was to examine the extent to which the types of parenting styles related to adolescents' self-esteem, identity style and psychological wellbeing. The second purpose was to investigate the direct and indirect effects of parenting styles on psychological wellbeing via self esteem and identity style. With this regard, two possible pathways were assessed. The first path implicated self-esteem as a mediator between parenting style and psychological wellbeing, while the second path implicated identity style as a mediator between parenting style and psychological wellbeing. The third purpose was to identify whether or not there was a significant difference in adolescents' perceptions of their parents' style of parenting due to their sex, number of siblings, and family structure.

4. 1. Method of the Study

4. 1. 1. Research Design

In this study, an explanatory research design was used to explain the relations of adolescents' perceived parenting style with their self-esteem, identity style and psychological wellbeing. An explanatory research design is a correlational design that enables the researcher to examine the extent to which two or more variables are associated. Moreover, this type of research design provides the researcher to collect data at one point in time (Creswell, 2012).

4. 1. 2. Population of the Study

The population of the study consisted of government general secondary and preparatory school students in Amhara Region.

4. 1. 3. Samples and Sampling Procedures

From the total population of 477518 general secondary and preparatory school students (Male = 237247; Female = 240271) found in the Amhara region (AREB, 2014), 702 students

(Male = 351; Female = 351) in grades nine through twelve were selected from the four zonal towns with the same procedure in study one. Out of these, 280 participants (Male = 140; Female = 140) took part for validating instruments (i.e., identity style, self-esteem & psychological wellbeing), which were utilized in study two, whereas the remaining 422 participants (Male = 211; Female = 211) used for the main study (i.e., examining the relations of parenting style with self-esteem, identity style & psychological wellbeing). In this study, therefore, data were collected in two phases. On the first phase, data were gathered for the purpose of instrument validation, and on the second phase, data were collected for the main study.

Sample size determination for instrument validation was based on participant to parameter ratio since the validation process was conducted using Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). CFA is commonly used to aid support the validity of a scale (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). As recommended by various researchers (e.g. Bentler & Chou, 1987; Kline, 2005), at least a 5:1 ratio of participant to parameter is required for Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Therefore, among the measures validated in this study, the identity style measure has maximum number of parameters (i.e., 51 parameters) — number of items in the model = 24, number of errors in the model = 24, and number of correlations between factors in the model = 3. Thus, on this phase, 255 samples (i.e., 5 X 51) were used, and by considering the non response rate, 10 % of the sample was also added. Hence, the total sample size was 280 for validating instruments.

On the other hand, sample size determination for the main study was based on Krejcie and Morgan (cited in Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2000) recommendation. They recommended that a sample size of 384 is representative of 1,000,000 population with a confidence level of 95 %. Therefore, on the second data collection phase, 384 samples and by considering the non-response rate, 10 % was added, and hence, a total of 422 samples were used for the main study.

Out of the 422 samples, 411 (97.39 %) participants (Male = 211; Female = 200) whose ages ranged from 15 to 23 years ($M = 17.69$, $SD = 1.76$) responded to all of the items. The remaining 11 (2.61 %) participants were excluded from the analysis.

4. 1. 4. Variables of the Study

In study two, the following variables were considered: Demographic variables included sex, family structure, and number of siblings. Sex was categorized and coded as female = 1 and male = 2. Family structure was categorized and coded as intact family = 1 and non intact family = 2, where intact family was a family in which biological parents resided in home with the adolescents, whereas non-intact family encompassed all other living situations, including, adolescents living with step-parent, relatives, and other guardians. Number of siblings were also categorized and coded as parents living with an adolescent-child = 1 and parents living with more than one adolescent-child = 2. Parenting style variable was of prime interest in the study, which included reasonable parenting style, decent parenting style, pampering parenting style, and autocrat parenting style. Identity style variable included informational identity style, normative identity style, and diffuse-avoidant identity style. The other variables were self esteem and psychological wellbeing.

Accordingly, on one hand, parenting style was the predictor variable while self-esteem, identity style, and psychological wellbeing were the criterion variables. On the other hand, parenting style was the predictor variable and psychological wellbeing was the criterion variable while identity style and self-esteem were the mediator variables. Additionally, demographic variable was the predictor variable while parenting style was the criterion variable.

In sum, variables were treated as predictor variables (parenting styles & demographic variables), mediator variables (self-esteem & identity styles), and criterion variables (psychological wellbeing, self-esteem, identity style, & parenting styles)

4. 1. 5. Measures

In study two, adolescents' self-report questionnaire contained five sets of items (see Appendix B). The first set comprised of five items related to adolescents' demographic information. The remaining four sets of items consisted of the following measures: Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style scale, Psychological Wellbeing scale, Self-esteem scale, and Identity Style Inventory.

Parenting Style — parenting style was measured using the newly established Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style scale, which was developed and validated in study one of this dissertation work. Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style Scale was employed to measure adolescents' perception of their parents' style of parenting. The scale consisted of 26 items rated on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). Of these 26 items, seven items were aimed at measuring reasonable parenting style, eight items were intended to measure decent parenting style, six of them were designed to measure pampering parenting style, and five items were aimed at measuring autocrat parenting style. Higher scores for each subscale represented higher endorsement of the measured parenting style. Internal consistency reliability has also been determined and resulted in the following alpha value for each subscale: .92 for reasonable parenting style, .88 for decent parenting style, .89 for pampering parenting style, and .90 for autocrat parenting style.

Psychological Wellbeing — Psychological Wellbeing was measured using the Flourishing Scale (Diener et al., 2009). This scale has good psychometric properties, and is strongly associated

with Ryff's (1989) psychological well-being scale. The scale contained eight items (e.g. "I lead a purposeful and meaningful life") and each item rated on a 7- point Likert-type scale ranged from 1 (*Strong Disagreement*) to 7 (*Strong Agreement*). All items are phrased in a positive direction, and a high score indicates a person with many psychological resources and strengths. The scale has an internal consistency reliability of .87.

Self-esteem — Self-esteem was measured using the revised positive version of Rosenberg's Self-Esteem Scale (Greenberger, Chen, Dmitrieva, Farruggia, 2003). It is a 10-item measure designed to assess global feelings of self-acceptance and self- worth (e.g. "On the whole, I am satisfied with myself"). These items were rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale ranged from 1 (*Very Strongly Disagree*) to 6 (*Very Strongly Agree*). This measure has an internal consistency reliability of .92.

Identity Style — Identity Style was measured using the revised version of Identity Style Inventory- 4 (Smits et al., 2008). The ISI- 4 is a 24-item inventory, from which seven items (e.g. "Talking to others helps me explore my personal beliefs") assessed the informational identity style, eight items (e.g. "I automatically adopt and follow the values I was brought up with") assessed the normative identity style, and nine items (e.g. "I'm not sure where I'm heading in my life; I guess things will work themselves out") assessed the diffuse-avoidant identity style. Items were rated on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranged from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly Agree*). This measure on the US and the Dutch samples reported to have the reliabilities of .71 (informational), .78 (normative), and .82 (diffuse-avoidant) for the US sample, and the reliabilities of .76 (informational), .69 (normative), and .77 (diffuse-avoidant) for the Dutch (i.e., Belgium & Netherlands) sample.

4. 1. 5. 1. Validation of the Measures

Since the original psychological wellbeing, self-esteem, and identity style measures were developed and validated in abroad, they may not work in our context. Therefore, these instruments need to be validated to be utilized locally. To this effect, Confirmatory Factor Analysis was used. It is because if a measure has strong theoretical basis (i.e., a prior knowledge about number of factors, number of items, & which item loads on which factor), then it is advisable to skip the initial Exploratory Factor Analysis step and go directly to the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (Harrington, 2009).

For this purpose, psychological wellbeing, self-esteem, and identity style measures were administered to 280 participants (Male = 140; Female = 140) in grades nine through twelve. Out of 280 participants who participated on this validation phase, 274 (97.86 %) participants (Male = 136 ; Female = 138) whose ages ranged from 15 to 21 years ($M = 16.84$, $SD = 1.06$) responded to all of the psychological wellbeing items; 276 (98.57 %) participants (Male = 137; Female = 139) whose ages ranged from 15 to 21 years ($M = 16.84$, $SD = 1.06$) responded to all of the self-esteem items; and 273 (97.5 %) participants (Male = 135; Female = 138) whose ages ranged from 15 to 20 years ($M = 16.82$, $SD = 1.04$) responded to all of the identity style items properly, whereas those participants who did not respond to all items of each measure were excluded from the analysis.

Before data analysis, the database was checked for data entry accuracy using frequency distribution and the minimum and maximum scores for each item. Moreover, the underlying assumptions of Confirmatory Factor Analysis were checked for each measure and found to be appropriate for the analysis (see Appendix D, E, & J).

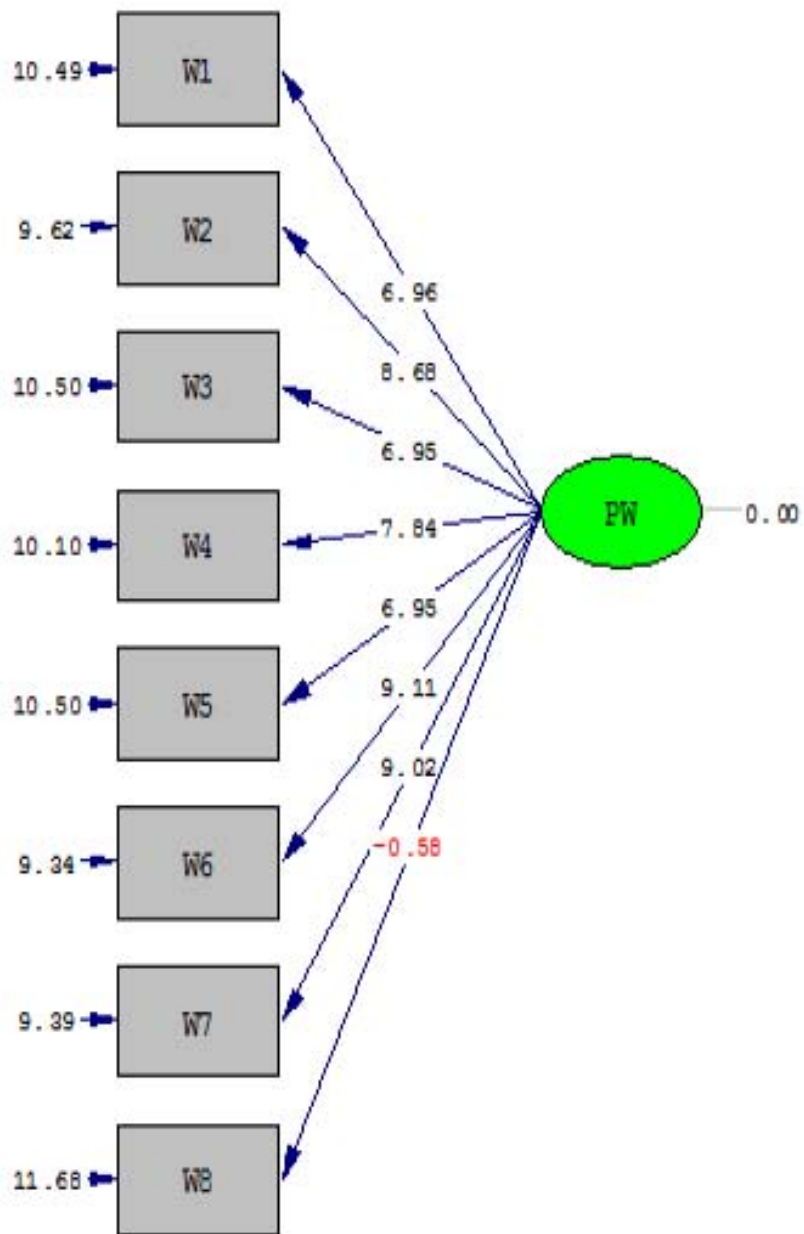
Table 25

The Model Fit Indices and T-Values for the Original and the Refined Psychological Wellbeing Scale (n=274)

Fit indices*	Ideal Value	Original Psychological Wellbeing scale (8 Items)	Refined Psychological Wellbeing scale (7 Items)
GFI	>.90	.98	.98
AGFI	>.90	.96	.97
CFI	>.90	1.00	1.00
NFI	>.90	.95	.97
NNFI	>.90	.99	1.00
RMSEA	< .08	.02	.02
t-value range	>2.00	≥ -0.58	≥ 6.92

*Note: * GFI = Goodness of Fit Index; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; NNFI = Non-Normed Fit Index; RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation*

As depicted in Table 25, the fit indices of the original psychological wellbeing scale were found to be in the expected range. But, the t-value of item PW8 (“People respect me”) was - 0.58 (see Figure 10), indicating below the standard. Therefore, this item was excluded from the original psychological wellbeing scale. Thus, the fit indices of the refined psychological wellbeing model somewhat improved.



Chi-Square=22.24, df=20, P-value=0.32747, RMSEA=0.020

Figure 10. T-values for the one factor psychological wellbeing measurement model (n =274)

Table 26

The Model Fit Indices and T-Values for the Original and the Refined Self-Esteem Scale (n=276)

Fit indices*	Ideal Value	Original Self-esteem scale (10 Items)	Refined Self-esteem scale (9 Items)
GFI	>.90	.96	.97
AGFI	>.90	.94	.95
CFI	>.90	.98	.99
NFI	>.90	.96	.97
NNFI	>.90	.98	.98
RMSEA	< .08	.04	.04
t-value range	>2.00	≥ -1.00	≥ 9.46

*Note: * GFI = Goodness of Fit Index; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; NNFI = Non-Normed Fit Index; RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation*

As shown in Table 26, the fit indices of the original self-esteem scale were found to be in the acceptable range. However, the t-value of item SE9 (“All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am not a failure”) was -1.00 (see Figure 11), indicating below the criterion. Therefore, this item was removed from the original self-esteem scale. As a result, the fit indices of the refined self-esteem model somewhat increased.

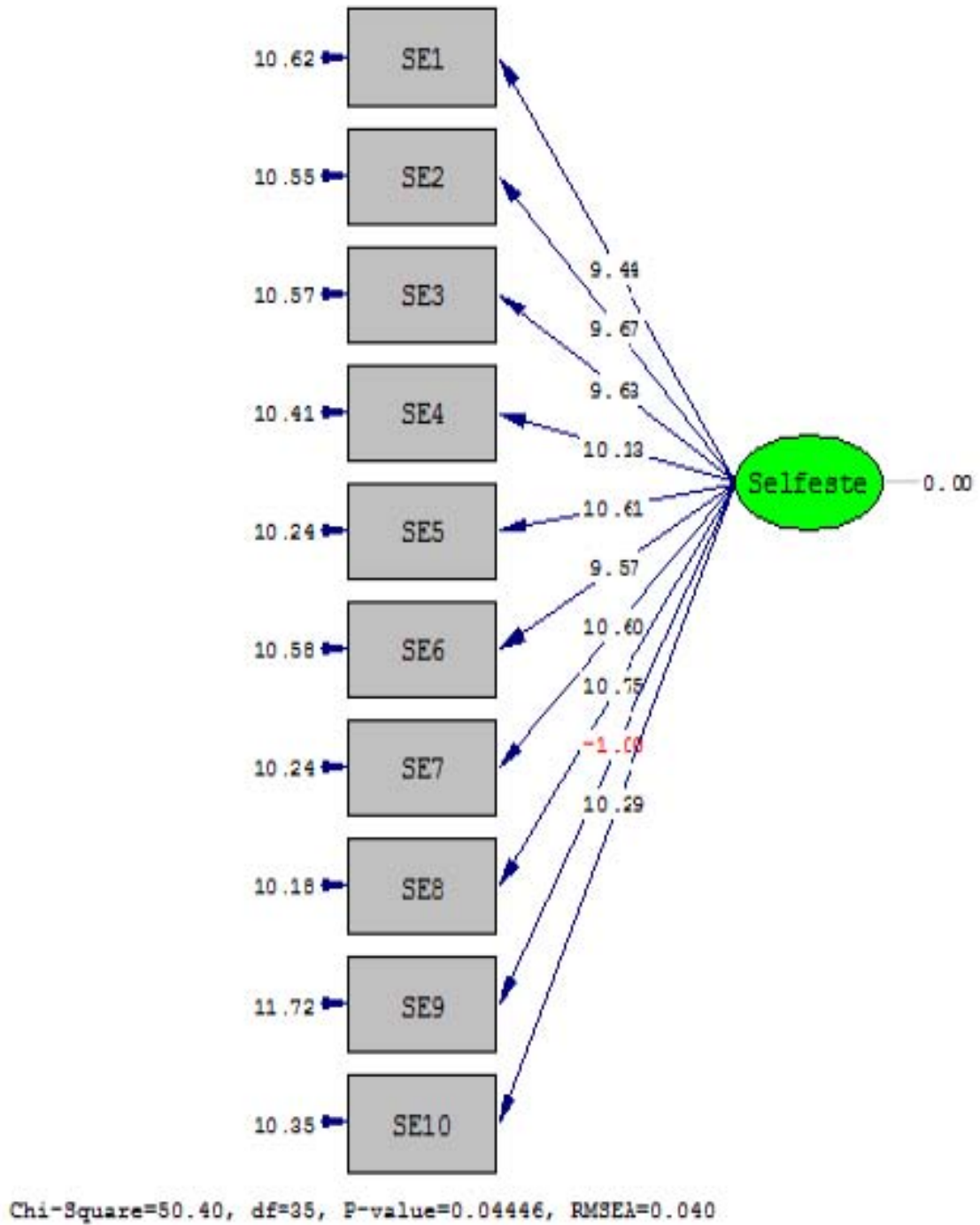


Figure 11. T-values for the one factor self-esteem measurement model (n =276)

Table 27

The Model Fit Indices and T-Values for the Original and the Refined Identity Style Inventory (n = 273)

Fit indices*	Ideal value	Original Identity Style	Refined Identity style
		Inventory-4 (ISI-4) 24 Items	Inventory-4 (ISI-4) 22 Items
GFI	>.90	.93	.94
AGFI	>.90	.92	.93
CFI	>.90	1.00	1.00
NFI	>.90	.98	.98
NNFI	>.90	1.00	1.00
RMSEA	< .08	.00	.00
t-value	>2.00	≥ -1.38	≥ 13.07

*Note: * GFI = Goodness of Fit Index; AGFI = Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; NFI = Normed Fit Index; NNFI = Non-Normed Fit Index; RMSEA= Root Mean Square Error of Approximation*

As indicated in Table 27, the fit indices of the original identity style inventory were found to be in the acceptable range. However, the t-values of two items, one from normative identity style subscale N8 (“When others say something that challenges my personal values or beliefs, I automatically disregard what they have to say”), and the other from diffused avoidant identity style subscale D9 (“When personal problems arise, I try to delay acting as long as possible”) were 1.48 and -1.38 respectively (see Figure 12), indicating below the criteria. Therefore, these two items were excluded from the original identity style model. After excluding these items, the results of the fit indices of the refined identity style measurement model were somewhat improved.

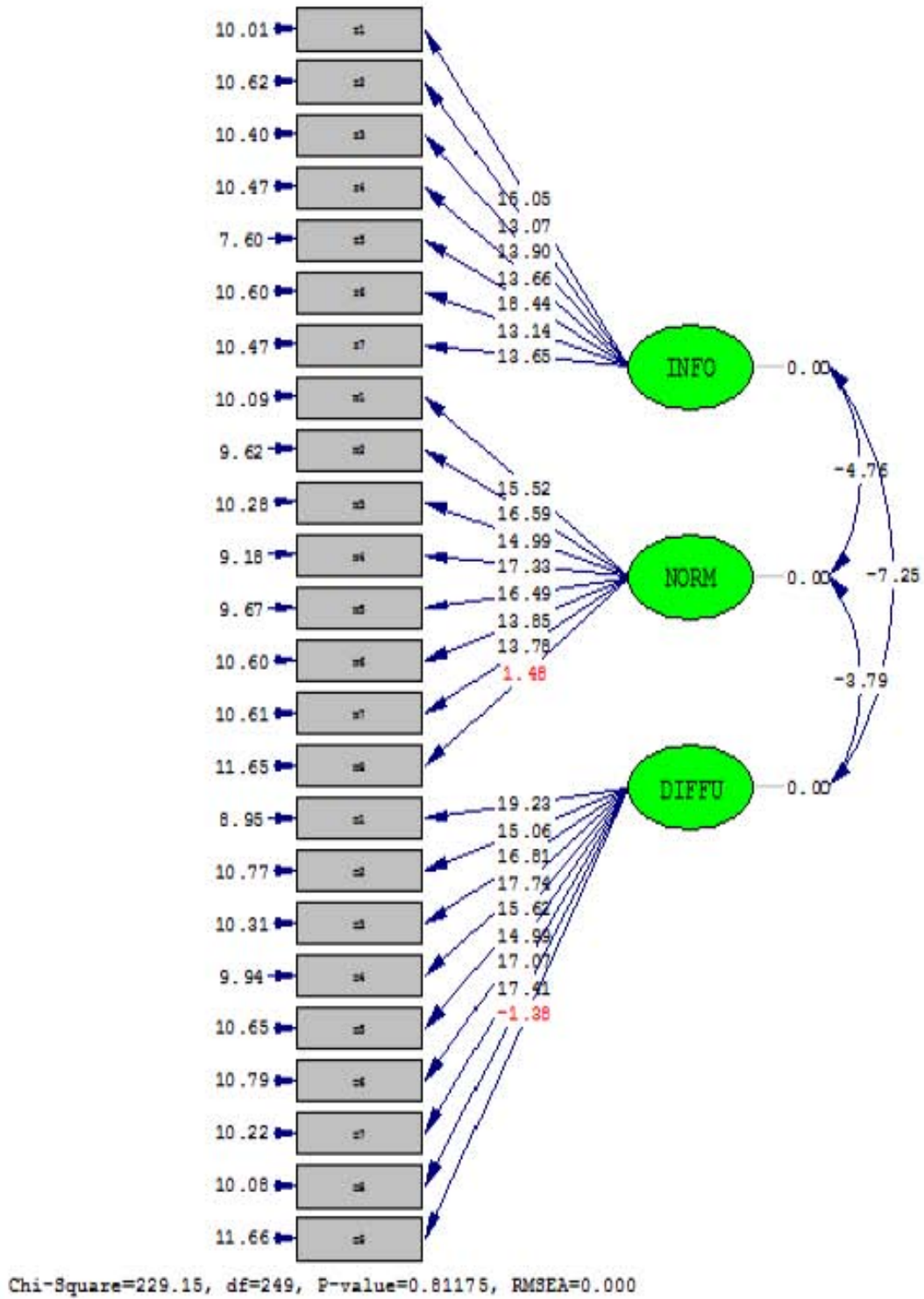


Figure 12. T-values for the three- factor identity style measurement model (n =273)

In addition, the reliability coefficients of the refined measures were $\alpha = .73$ for psychological wellbeing, $\alpha = .83$ for self-esteem, $\alpha = .90$ for informational identity style, $\alpha = .92$ for normative identity style, and $\alpha = .95$ for diffused avoidance identity style, indicating acceptable reliability coefficients, as $\alpha = .70$ and above is considered adequate (Hair et al., 1998; Kline, 2005).

Generally, the refined psychological wellbeing, self-esteem, and identity style measures were found to be reliable and valid.

4. 1. 6. Data Collection Procedures

In this study, data were collected twice, one for validating the instruments used and the other for analyzing the main study. In order to validate instruments (psychological wellbeing, self-esteem, & identity style), all measures were translated into Amharic language and back translations were also made by two graduate students, one from Ethiopian language and the other from English language from Addis Ababa University.

Before data collection for both instrument validation and the main study, permission was obtained from each school principal. Following this, informed verbal consent was also obtained from all participants before the administration of the questionnaires. Then, all the Amharic version instruments were administered during a regular class time with close supervision in two phases.

4. 1. 7. Methods of Data Analysis

Once the data were collected and entered to computer, different statistical methods were employed for the following purposes: to examine the relationship between variables, bivariate correlation was used; to investigate the extent to which parenting styles related with psychological wellbeing, self-esteem, and identity style (i.e., informational, normative &

diffused), multiple regression analysis was employed for each predictor variable. Particularly, to examine the contribution of each parenting style on the criterion variables, hierarchical regression analysis was also used; to analyze the direct and indirect effects of parenting style on psychological wellbeing through self-esteem and identity style, path analysis was employed; to check whether or not there were significant differences in adolescents' perceptions of their parents' style of parenting due to their sex, family structure and number of siblings, *MANOVA* was used; and an alpha (α) value of .05 was used for all statistical significance tests.

4. 2. Results of the Study

The results of this study began with presenting and describing the demographic characteristics of the study sample. This was followed by the results of the preliminary analysis pertaining to the study variables. Finally, regression analysis, path analysis and multivariate analysis of variance were presented in line with the objectives set to be addressed in the present study.

Demographic Characteristics of the Study Sample

The frequencies and percentages of the demographic characteristics of the study sample were presented in Table 28 below.

Table 28

Demographic Characteristics of the Study Sample

Demographic Characteristics		n (Percentage)
Sex	Female	200 (48.7 %)
	Male	211 (51.3 %)
	Total	411 (100 %)
Family Structure	Intact	249 (60.6 %)
	Non-intact	162 (39.4 %)
	Total	411 (100 %)
Number of Siblings	One	98 (23.8 %)
	More than one	313 (76.2 %)
	Total	411 (100 %)

As shown in Table 28, the sample sizes of female and male participants were proportionate [$\chi^2 (1) = .29, p > .05$], whereas participants reported from intact and non-intact families [$\chi^2 (1) = 18.42, p < 0.001$] and from one child and more than one child families [$\chi^2 (1) = 112.47, p < 0.001$] were significantly disproportionate. Specifically, the participants reported from intact and from more than one child families were overrepresented compared with the participants reported from non-intact and one child families.

The Relationships among the Study Variables

As a first step in analysis, means, standard deviations and inter correlations of the variables (i.e., parenting style, self-esteem, identity style, & psychological wellbeing) were computed. The results are presented in Table 29.

Table 29

Means, Standard Deviation, and Inter Correlations between the Variables of the Study

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Autocrat	13.1971	4.48494	-.230**	-.206**	-.201**	-.141**	-.037	.019	.207**	-.249**
2. Pampering	11.8054	3.86934	-	-.212**	-.235**	-.102*	-.087	-.129**	-.093	-.070
3. Decent	18.7153	7.81520		-	-.209**	.305**	.037	.382**	-.064	.338**
4. Reasonable	16.4501	6.34683			-	.209**	.362**	-.049	.042	.223**
5. Self-esteem	22.3771	6.53593				-	.383**	.379**	-.015	.467**
6. Informational	18.1119	5.38219					-	.031	.071	.293**
7. Normative	17.7202	5.51292						-	.091	.308**
8. Diffused	18.4380	4.57863							-	-.115*
9. Psyc. Wellbeing	20.6496	7.13725								-

* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

As can be seen in Table 29, the results of inter-correlation between variables showed that autocrat parenting style was significantly and negatively related to self-esteem ($r = -.14, p < .01$), psychological wellbeing ($r = -.25, p < .01$), but significantly and positively associated with diffused identity style ($r = .21, p < .01$). Pampering parenting style was significantly and negatively related to self-esteem ($r = -.10, p < .05$) and normative identity style ($r = -.13, p < .01$), whereas decent parenting style was significantly and positively related to self-esteem ($r = .31, p < .01$), normative identity style ($r = .38, p < .01$) and psychological wellbeing ($r = .34, p < .01$). Reasonable parenting style was significantly and positively correlated with self-esteem ($r = .21, p < .01$), informational identity style ($r = .36, p < .01$), and psychological wellbeing ($r = .22, p < .01$). Psychological wellbeing was significantly and positively associated with self-esteem ($r = .47, p < .01$), informational identity style ($r = .29, p < .01$) and normative identity style ($r = .31, p < .01$), but significantly and negatively associated with diffused identity style ($r = -.12, p < .05$).

Since examining whether or not adolescents' perceived parenting styles differ due to their sex, family structure and number of siblings, the means and standard deviations of the scores of parenting styles both by adolescents' sex, family structure and number of siblings were presented in Table 30.

Table 30

The Means and Standard Deviations of the Scores of Parenting Styles by Sex, Family Structure and Number of Siblings

Sex	FS	NS	Autocrat			Pampering			Decent			Reasonable		
			<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Female	Intact	One	29	13.55	4.76	29	12.52	3.31	29	18.03	8.31	29	15.97	6.23
		> One	91	12.63	4.01	91	11.46	3.71	91	18.84	8.13	91	17.19	7.10
	Non-intact	One	23	14.26	5.33	23	11.87	4.29	23	19.87	8.49	23	15.22	7.17
		> One	57	15.61	4.55	57	10.51	3.38	57	20.46	7.83	57	15.53	5.32
Male	Intact	One	25	11.56	4.08	25	13.56	4.15	25	17.52	6.89	25	15.60	5.88
		> One	104	12.38	3.84	104	12.38	3.63	104	17.59	7.579	104	16.88	6.61
	Non-intact	One	21	12.43	4.88	21	13.33	4.49	21	19.62	8.53	21	15.95	4.59
		> One	61	13.56	4.88	61	10.95	4.18	61	18.90	7.32	61	16.67	6.09

Note: FS - indicates family structure; NS - number of siblings

The Relationships between Predictor Variables and Criterion Variables

In order to examine the extent to which adolescents' perceived parenting styles associated with their self-esteem, identity style (informational, normative & diffused) and psychological wellbeing independently, multiple regression analysis was employed. In addition to this, to identify the type of parenting style accounting significantly for variation in each of the criterion variable (i.e., self-esteem, identity style, & psychological wellbeing), hierarchical regression analyses were conducted.

Before proceeding to the data analyses, all variables were screened for statistical assumption violations, as well as for missing values and outliers.

Missing values and data entry accuracy were checked using frequency distribution and minimum and maximum values for each variable under study, indicating no problems of data entry and incompleteness (see Appendix D).

With regard to outliers, different methods have been suggested in the literature to test for a single variable (univariate outliers) and a combination of variables (multivariate outliers) in the data of the study (see Barnett & Lewis, 1994, for review). From the suggested methods, a box plot method developed by Tukey (1977) was used in this study to identify univariate outliers because it is less sensitive to extreme values of the data than the other methods, and it is also a simple graphical method to exhibit information about univariate outliers. Therefore, as displayed in Appendix J, the box plot test showed that only 1 case in diffused identity style was identified to be univariate outlier.

On the other hand, multivariate outliers were detected by Mahalanobis D^2 . It measures the distance in standard deviation units between the sample means for all variables and a set of scores for an individual case in the analysis (Kline, 2005). The Mahalanobis distance values are

evaluated with Chi-square distribution at a stringent alpha level of *.001*, with degrees of freedom equal to the number of variables included in the calculation (in this case, nine variables: autocrat parenting, pampering parenting, decent parenting, reasonable parenting, informational identity, normative identity, diffused identity, self-esteem, & psychological wellbeing for the overall sample & one variable each for the sub sample: sex, family structure, & number of siblings). Cases that reach this significant threshold are considered as multivariate outliers. In this study, therefore, any case with a Mahalanobis distance value $\chi^2_{(9)} = 27.88, p < .001$ and $\chi^2_{(1)} = 10.83, p < .001$ was considered a multivariate outlier for the total sample and the sub-sample respectively. As a result, out of a total of 411 cases, 3 cases, 1 case both form univariate and multivariate outliers, and 2 cases only from multivariate outliers were detected (see Appendix F & J). However, these univariate and multivariate outliers were retained in the data set because they were not extremely distant from the distribution. Moreover, as suggested by Bollen and Stine (1988), the removal of cases that are outliers in any distribution would reduce the sample size.

With regard to normality of the data, one of the common methods for assessing normality is to examine skewness and kurtosis statistics. According to Kline (2005), skewness value should not be greater than 3 and kurtosis value should not be greater than 10 for the data to be taken normal distribution. Therefore, as displayed in Appendix E, the skewness and kurtosis values of this study fall with the range of ± 1 , suggesting no normality violation. In addition to skewness and kurtosis statistic, graphical inspection for normality was used using normal probability plot (normal Q-Q plot), indicating that the data points were fairly close to the diagonal lines (see Appendix J).

Linearity was also assessed using scatter plot matrix. The scatter plot is a visual inspection for evidence of linearity (Garson, 2007). Based on the scatter plot matrix, none of the relationships among the metric variables in the analysis of this study showed obvious violation of linearity (see Appendix J).

The other assumption of multiple regression analysis is multicollinearity. Multicollinearity occurs when inter-correlation among independent variables are so high ($r \geq .85$), indicating variables measuring the same thing (Garson, 2007; Keith, 2006). Multicollinearity is also identified by tolerance or variance inflation factor (VIF). Tolerance value of less than .10 or VIF greater than 10 indicates multicollinearity (Kline, 2005; Stevens, 2002). In this study, therefore, the tolerance and VIF values were within the normal bounds, suggesting that multicollinearity was not a problem among independent variables in the analyses.

In general, the assumptions of normality, linearity and multicollinearity were met in the present data. Thus, the data were found to be appropriate for the analyses.

Table 31

The Results of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Psychological Wellbeing from Parenting Styles

Variables	Unstandardized		Standardized	<i>t</i>	Collinearity	
	B	SE	Beta		Tolerance	VIF
Autocrat	-.146	.080	-.092	-1.825	.759	1.318
Pampering	.119	.094	.064	1.264	.740	1.351
Decent	.362	.046	.396	7.894***	.764	1.309
Reasonable	.341	.057	.303	6.005***	.755	1.325

Constant = 8.802

R = .469

R² = .220Adjusted R² = .212****p* < .001

Table 32

The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Psychological Wellbeing from Parenting Styles

Step	Variables Entered	R	R ²	R ² Change	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i> Change
1	Decent	.338	.114	—	52.662***	—
2	Decent, Reasonable	.452	.205	.090	52.462***	46.414***
3	Decent, Reasonable, Autocrat	.466	.217	.012	37.543***	6.334*
4	Decent, Reasonable, Autocrat, Pampering	.469	.220	.003	28.598***	1.599

p* < .05, **p* < .001

As shown in Table 31, decent parenting style ($\beta = .39, p < .001$) and reasonable parenting style ($\beta = .30, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively psychological wellbeing, whereas autocrat parenting style and pampering parenting style did not predict significantly adolescents' psychological wellbeing. When psychological wellbeing was regressed on autocrat, pampering, decent, and reasonable parenting styles, 22 % of the variance in psychological wellbeing was accounted for by these parenting styles.

Moreover, in order to identify the contributions of each parenting style on psychological wellbeing, hierarchical regression analysis was employed. As shown in Table 32, when all the parenting styles were entered hierarchically into the regression equation based on their beta weights, decent parenting style accounted for the highest variation in psychological wellbeing. This variable explained 11.4 % of the total variance in psychological wellbeing and it was statistically significant ($F_{(1, 409)} = 52.66, p < .001$). Reasonable parenting style was the second highest predictor that was entered to the regression equation. Its inclusion raised the proportion of variance in psychological wellbeing by 9 %, which was a statistically significant increase ($F_{(1,408)} = 46.41, p < .001$). Autocrat parenting style was the third highest predictor that was entered to the regression equation, which accounted for 1.2 % of variance. This was statistically significant ($F_{(1,407)} = 6.33, p < .05$). On the other hand, the contribution of pampering parenting style was very negligible and not significant.

Table 33

The Results of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Self-Esteem from Parenting Styles

Variables	Unstandardized		Standardized	<i>t</i>	Collinearity	
	B	SE	Beta		Tolerance	VIF
Autocrat	.016	.076	.011	.213	.759	1.318
Pampering	.090	.089	.053	1.011	.740	1.351
Decent	.320	.043	.382	7.399***	.764	1.309
Reasonable	.312	.054	.303	5.839***	.755	1.325

Constant = 9.987

****p* < .001

R = .416

R² = .173Adjusted R² = .165

Table 34

The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Self-Esteem from Parenting Styles

Step	Variables Entered	R	R ²	R ² Change	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i> Change
1	Decent	.305	.093	—	41.959***	—
2	Decent, Reasonable	.413	.171	.078	41.997***	38.217***
3	Decent, Reasonable, Pampering	.416	.173	.002	28.339***	1.018
4	Decent, Reasonable, Pampering, Autocrat	.416	.173	.000	21.216***	.046

****p* < .001

The results of multiple regression analysis, as depicted in Table 33, revealed that decent parenting style ($\beta = .38, p < .001$) and reasonable parenting style ($\beta = .30, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively self-esteem, whereas autocrat parenting style and pampering parenting style did not predict significantly adolescents' self-esteem. When self-esteem was regressed on autocrat, pampering, decent, and reasonable parenting styles, 17.30 % of the variance in self-esteem was accounted for by these parenting styles. As shown in Table 34, when all the parenting styles were entered into the regression equation hierarchically, decent parenting style was found to be the variable that accounted for the highest variation in self-esteem. This variable explained 9.30 % of the total variance in self-esteem, which was statistically significant ($F_{(1, 409)} = 41.96, p < .001$). Reasonable parenting style was the second highest predictor that was entered to the regression equation. Its inclusion raised the proportion of variance in self-esteem by 7.80 %, which was a statistically significant increase ($F_{(1, 408)} = 38.22, p < .001$). However, the contributions of pampering and autocrat parenting styles to self-esteem were not significant.

Table 35

The Results of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Informational Identity Style from Parenting Styles

Variables	Unstandardized		Standardized	<i>t</i>	Collinearity	
	B	SE	Beta		Tolerance	VIF
Autocrat	.121	.063	.101	1.919	.759	1.318
Pampering	.101	.074	.073	1.370	.740	1.351
Decent	.113	.036	.164	3.133**	.764	1.309
Reasonable	.367	.045	.433	8.236***	.755	1.325

Constant = 7.170

p* < .01, *p* < .001

R = .391

R² = .153Adjusted R² = .144

Table 36

The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Informational Identity Style from Parenting Styles

Step	Variables Entered	R	R ²	R ² Change	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i> Change
1	Reasonable	.362	.131	—	61.492***	—
2	Reasonable, Decent	.379	.144	.013	34.307***	6.322*
3	Reasonable, Decent, Autocrat	.386	.149	.005	23.694***	2.255
4	Reasonable, Decent, Autocrat, Pampering	.391	.153	.004	18.278***	1.876

p* < .05, **p* < .001

As can be seen in Table 35, the magnitudes of the beta coefficients indicated that reasonable parenting style ($\beta = .43, p < .001$) and decent parenting style ($\beta = .16, p < .01$) predicted significantly and positively informational identity style, whereas autocrat and pampering parenting styles were not found to be significant predictors of informational identity style.

Table 36 also showed that 15.30 % of the variance in informational identity style was accounted for by the linear combination of autocrat, pampering, decent, and reasonable parenting styles. Of these parenting styles, reasonable parenting style accounted for the highest variation in informational identity style. This variable explained 13.10% of the total variance in informational identity style, and statistically significant ($F_{(1, 409)} = 61.49, p < .001$). Decent parenting style was the next significant predictor ($F_{(1, 408)} = 6.32, p < .05$) that was entered to the regression equation, which accounted for 1.30 % of the variation in informational identity style. However, the contributions of autocrat and pampering parenting styles were very negligible.

Table 37

The Results of multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Normative Identity Style from Parenting Styles

Variables	Unstandardized		Standardized	<i>t</i>	Collinearity	
	B	SE	Beta		Tolerance	VIF
Autocrat	.147	.064	.120	2.289*	.759	1.318
Pampering	.004	.075	.003	.054	.740	1.351
Decent	.296	.037	.420	8.072***	.764	1.309
Reasonable	.056	.046	.064	1.222	.755	1.325

Constant = 9.269

R = .399

R² = .159Adjusted R² = .151**p* < .05, ****p* < .001

Table 38

The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Normative Identity Style from Parenting Styles

Step	Variables Entered	R	R ²	R ² Change	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i> Change
1	Decent	.382	.146	—	69.719***	—
2	Decent, Autocrat	.395	.156	.010	37.617***	4.857*
3	Decent, Autocrat, Reasonable	.399	.159	.004	25.692***	1.711
4	Decent, Autocrat, Reasonable, Pampering	.399	.159	.000	19.222***	.003

p* < .05, **p* < .001

As indicated in Table 37, decent parenting style ($\beta = .42, p < .001$) and autocrat parenting style ($\beta = .12, p < .05$) predicted significantly and positively normative identity style, whereas pampering parenting style and reasonable parenting style did not predict significantly adolescents' normative identity style. When normative identity style was regressed on autocrat, pampering, decent, and reasonable parenting styles, 15.90 % of the variance in normative identity style was accounted for by these parenting styles. When all the parenting styles were entered into the regression equation sequentially based on their beta weights, decent parenting style was the variable that accounted for the highest variation in normative identity style. This parenting style explained 14.60 % of the total variance in normative identity style, which was statistically significant ($F_{(1, 409)} = 69.72, P < .001$). Autocrat parenting style was the next significant predictor ($F_{(1, 408)} = 4.86, p < .05$) that was entered to the regression equation, which accounted for 1% of the variation in normative identity style. On the other hand, the contributions of the remaining parenting styles (i.e., reasonable parenting style & pampering parenting style) were found to be not significant (see Table 38).

Table 39

The Results of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Diffused Identity Style from Parenting Styles

Variables	Unstandardized		Standardized	<i>t</i>	Collinearity	
	B	SE	Beta		Tolerance	VIF
Autocrat	.218	.057	.214	3.849***	.759	1.318
Pampering	-.033	.067	-.028	-.496	.740	1.351
Decent	-.006	.032	-.010	-.175	.764	1.309
Reasonable	.055	.040	.076	1.363	.755	1.325

Constant = 15.155

R = .225

R² = .051Adjusted R² = .041****p* < .001

Table 40

The Results of Hierarchical Regression Analysis Predicting Diffused Identity Style from Parenting Styles

Step	Variables Entered	R	R ²	R ² Change	<i>F</i>	<i>F</i> Change
1	Autocrat	.207	.043	—	18.282***	—
2	Autocrat, Reasonable	.224	.050	.007	10.734***	3.092
3	Autocrat, Reasonable, Pampering	.225	.050	.001	7.214***	.216
4	Autocrat, Reasonable, Pampering, Decent	.225	.051	.000	5.405***	.031

****p* < .001

As shown in Table 39, the results of multiple regression analysis revealed that only autocrat parenting style ($\beta = .21, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively diffused-avoidant identity style, whereas pampering, decent, and reasonable parenting style did not predict significantly adolescents' diffused identity style. When diffused identity style was regressed on autocrat, pampering, decent, and reasonable parenting styles, 5.10 % of the variance in diffused identity style accounted for by these parenting styles. As displayed in Table 40, the results of hierarchical regression analysis showed that when all the parenting styles were entered into the regression equation sequentially, autocrat parenting style was the only variable that accounted for the highest variation in diffused identity style. Autocrat parenting style explained 4.30 % of the variance in diffused identity style, and statistically significant ($F_{(1, 409)} = 18.28, p < .001$). On the other hand, reasonable, pampering and decent parenting styles were not significant predictors of diffused identity style.

The Direct and Indirect Effects of Parenting Styles on Adolescents' Psychological Wellbeing

In order to examine the direct and indirect effects of adolescents' perceived parenting style on their psychological wellbeing, a couple of path analyses were made. The first path analysis was intended to examine the mediating role of adolescents' self-esteem in the relationship between parenting style and psychological wellbeing. This was done by regressing psychological wellbeing on adolescents' self-esteem and parenting style simultaneously; and by regressing adolescents' self-esteem on parenting style.

The second path analysis was designed to examine the mediating role of adolescents' identity style (i.e., informational, normative, & diffused) in the relationship between parenting style and psychological wellbeing. This was also done by regressing psychological wellbeing on

each of adolescents' identity style and parenting style simultaneously; and by regressing each of adolescents' identity style on parenting style.

As recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986), the following four conditions are required to establish a mediational relationship (a) the predictor variable (i.e., parenting style) should predict significantly the criterion variable (i.e., psychological wellbeing), (b) the predictor variable should predict significantly the mediating variable (c) the mediating variable (i.e., self-esteem or identity styles) should predict significantly the criterion variable, and (d) the relationship between the predictor variable and criterion variable is reduced when the mediating variable is included in the prediction equation.

Accordingly, the mediating roles of self-esteem and identity styles in the link between parenting style and psychological wellbeing were investigated below.

Table 41

The Results of multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Psychological Wellbeing from Parenting Style and Self-Esteem

Variables	Unstandardized		Standardized	<i>t</i>	Collinearity	
	B	SE	Beta		Tolerance	VIF
Autocrat	-.152	.075	-.096	-2.020*	.759	1.318
Pampering	.086	.088	.047	.973	.738	1.354
Decent	.245	.046	.268	5.338***	.673	1.486
Reasonable	.227	.056	.201	4.080***	.696	1.436
Self-esteem	.366	.049	.335	7.389***	.827	1.209

Constant = 5.152

R = .559

R² = .312

Adjusted R² = .304

****p* < .001

As depicted in Table 41, based on the first criterion, both decent parenting style ($\beta = .27, p < .001$) and reasonable parenting style ($\beta = .20, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively psychological wellbeing while autocrat parenting style ($\beta = -.09, p < .05$) predicted significantly and negatively psychological wellbeing. In contrast, pampering parenting style was not found to be a significant predictor of psychological wellbeing. As required by the second criterion, only decent parenting style ($\beta = .38, p < .001$) and reasonable parenting style ($\beta = .30, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively self-esteem while autocrat parenting style and pampering parenting style were not found to be significant predictors of self-esteem. As required by the third criterion, self esteem ($\beta = .34, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively psychological wellbeing. Therefore, further analyses were restricted to decent parenting style and reasonable parenting style. That is, the variables that did not maintain all the first three meditational criteria (autocrat parenting style & pampering parenting style) were excluded from the subsequent path analysis.

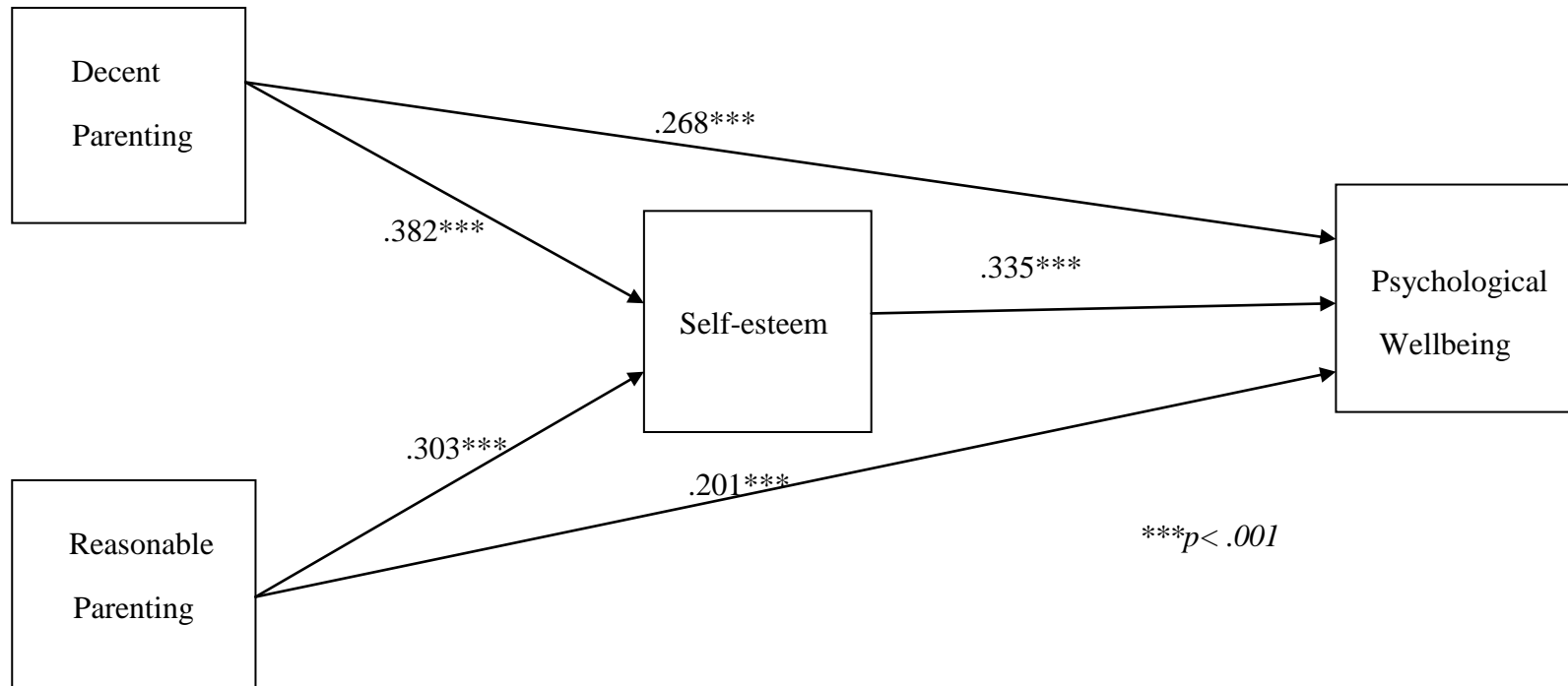


Figure 13. Path coefficients for predicting psychological wellbeing from parenting style and self-esteem variables

In order to examine the fourth requirement, path analysis was carried out. As shown in Figure 13, the direct effect of decent parenting style on psychological wellbeing was .27, while the indirect effect of decent parenting style on psychological wellbeing via self-esteem (.38 X .34) was .13. On the other hand, the direct effect of reasonable parenting style on psychological wellbeing was .20, while the indirect effect of reasonable parenting style on psychological wellbeing via self-esteem (.30 X .34) was .10. Thus, the path analysis revealed that both the direct effects of decent parenting style and reasonable parenting style on psychological wellbeing were significant, indicating the relations of decent and reasonable parenting styles on psychological wellbeing were partially mediated by self-esteem.

Table 42

The Results of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Psychological Wellbeing from Parenting Styles and Informational Identity Style

Variables	Unstandardized		Standardized	<i>t</i>	Collinearity	
	B	SE	Beta		Tolerance	VIF
Autocrat	-.179	.079	-.112	-2.267*	.752	1.330
Pampering	.092	.092	.050	.995	.737	1.357
Decent	.331	.045	.363	7.304***	.746	1.341
Reasonable	.242	.060	.215	4.038***	.647	1.547
Informational	.268	.062	.202	4.337***	.847	1.180

Constant = 6.880

R = .504

R² = .254

Adjusted R² = .245

p* < .05, **p* < .001

Table 43

The Results of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Psychological Wellbeing from Parenting Styles and Normative Identity Style

Variables	Unstandardized		Standardized	<i>t</i>	Collinearity	
	B	SE	Beta		Tolerance	VIF
Autocrat	-.187	.079	-.118	-2.383*	.749	1.335
Pampering	.118	.092	.064	1.284	.740	1.351
Decent	.278	.048	.305	5.784***	.658	1.519
Reasonable	.325	.055	.289	5.863***	.752	1.330
Normative	.281	.060	.217	4.648***	.841	1.189

Constant = 6.201

R = .509

R² = .259

Adjusted R² = .250

p* < .05, **p* < .001

Table 44

The Results of Multiple Regression Analysis Predicting Psychological Wellbeing from Parenting Styles and Diffused Identity Style

Variables	Unstandardized		Standardized	<i>t</i>	Collinearity	
	B	SE	Beta		Tolerance	VIF
Autocrat	-.118	.081	-.074	-1.457	.732	1.366
Pampering	.115	.094	.062	1.223	.740	1.352
Decent	.361	.046	.395	7.901***	.764	1.309
Reasonable	.348	.057	.309	6.131***	.751	1.331
Diffused	-.127	.070	-.081	-1.815	.949	1.053

Constant = 10.726

*** $p < .001$

R = .476

R² = .226

Adjusted R² = .217

The regression equations were repeated with each of the identity styles as the mediator. As required by the first criterion with regard to the mediating role of informational identity style, Table 42 showed that both decent parenting style ($\beta = .36, p < .001$) and reasonable parenting style ($\beta = .22, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively psychological wellbeing while autocrat parenting style ($\beta = -.11, p < .05$) predicted significantly and negatively psychological wellbeing. However, pampering parenting style was not found to be a significant predictor of psychological wellbeing. As required by the second criterion, decent parenting style ($\beta = .16, p < .01$) and reasonable parenting style ($\beta = .43, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively informational identity style, whereas autocrat parenting style and pampering parenting style were not significant. As required by the third criterion, informational identity style ($\beta = .20, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively psychological wellbeing.

On the other hand, as required by the first criterion with regard to the mediating role of normative identity style, both decent parenting style ($\beta = .31, p < .001$) and reasonable parenting style ($\beta = .29, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively psychological wellbeing, while autocrat parenting style ($\beta = -.12, p < .05$) predicted significantly and negatively psychological wellbeing. However, pampering parenting style was not found to be a significant predictor of psychological wellbeing. As required by the second criterion, decent parenting style ($\beta = .42, p < .001$) and autocrat parenting style ($\beta = .12, p < .05$) predicted significantly and positively normative identity style, whereas reasonable parenting style and pampering parenting style were not significant. As required by the third criterion, normative identity style ($\beta = .22, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively psychological wellbeing.

With regard to the mediating role of diffused identity style, the results of the first criterion showed that both decent parenting style ($\beta = .39, p < .001$) and reasonable parenting style (β

$\beta = .31, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively psychological wellbeing, while autocrat parenting style and pampering parenting style were not found to be significant predictors of psychological wellbeing. As required by the second criterion, only autocrat parenting style ($\beta = .21, p < .001$) predicted significantly and positively diffused identity style, whereas decent parenting style, reasonable parenting style and pampering parenting style were not statistically significant. As required by the third criterion, diffused identity style did not predict significantly psychological wellbeing. Therefore, variables from these regression equations that did not fulfill the meditational criteria were excluded from the path analysis.

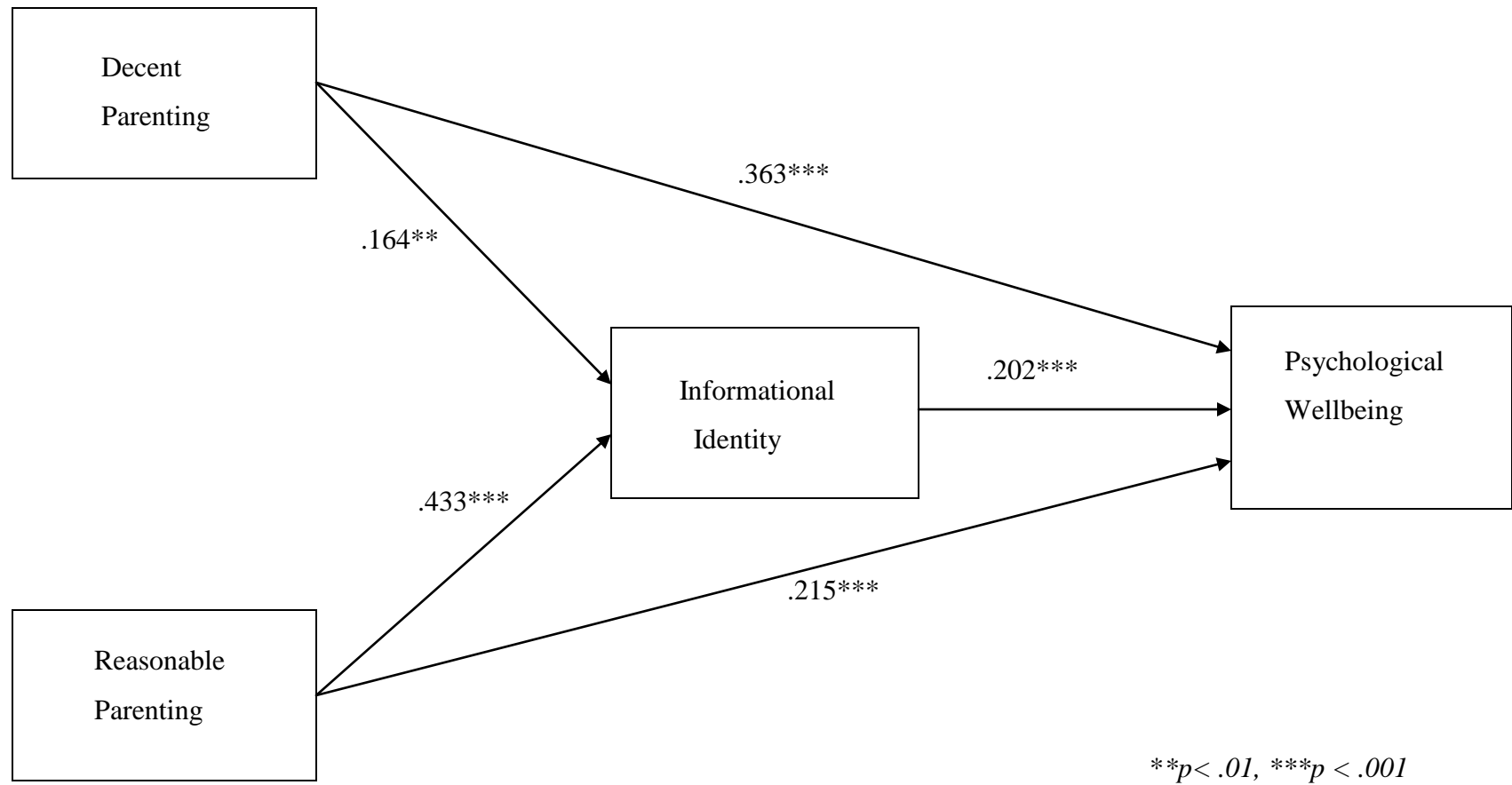


Figure 14. Path coefficients for predicting psychological wellbeing from parenting style and informational identity style variables

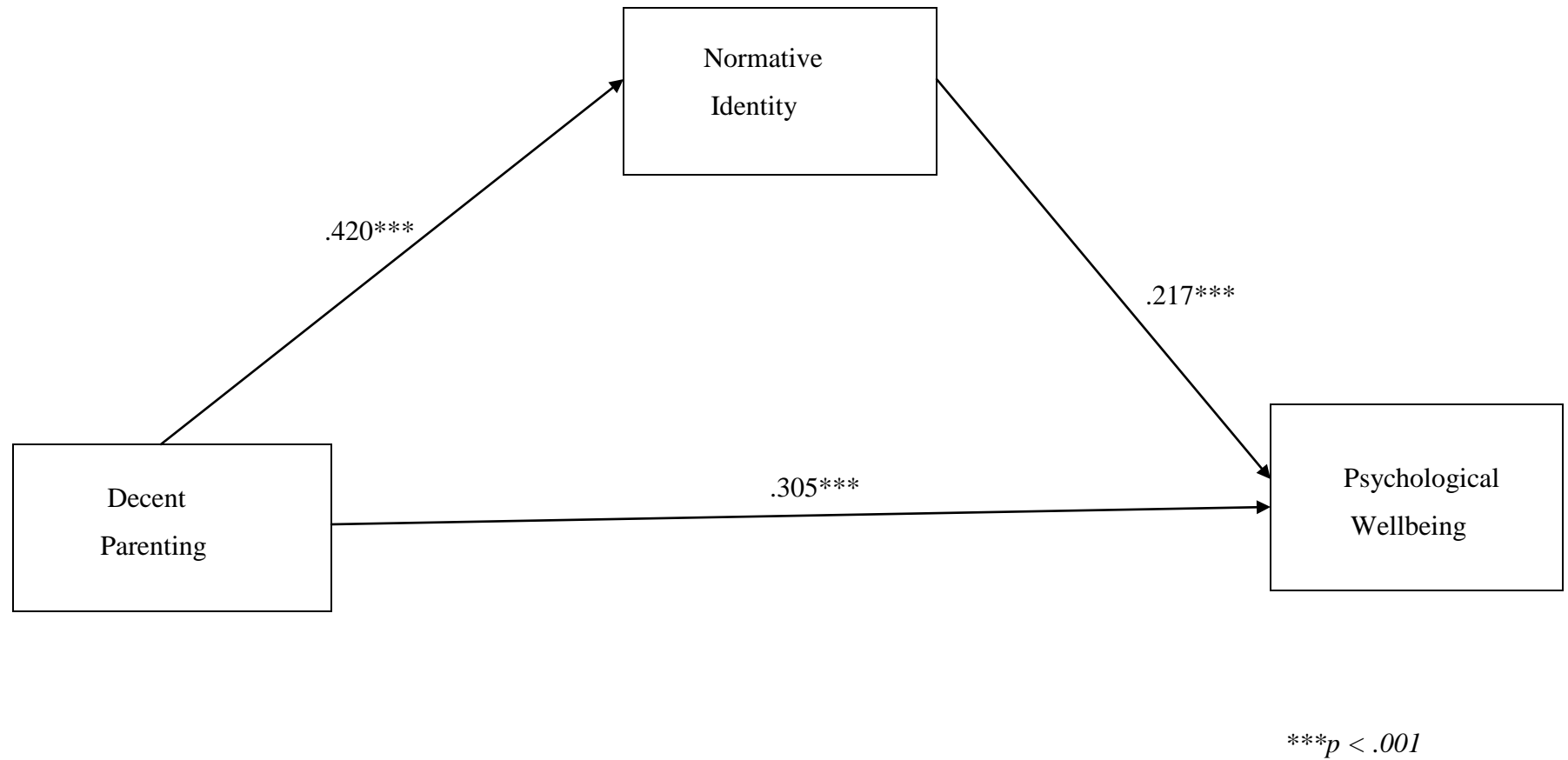


Figure 15: Path coefficients for predicting psychological wellbeing from parenting style and normative identity style variables

As shown in Figure 14, the direct effects of decent parenting style and reasonable parenting style on psychological wellbeing were .36 and .22 respectively, whereas the indirect effects of decent parenting style on psychological wellbeing via informational identity style (.16 X .20) was .03, while the indirect effect of reasonable parenting style on psychological wellbeing via informational identity style (.43 X .20) was .09.

As shown in Figure 15, the direct effect of decent parenting style on psychological wellbeing was .31, whereas the indirect effect of decent parenting style on psychological wellbeing via normative identity style (.42 X .22) was .09.

Therefore, all the direct effects of decent and reasonable parenting styles on psychological wellbeing were found to be significant, indicating the relations of decent and reasonable parenting styles on psychological wellbeing were partially mediated by informational identity style and normative identity style.

The Differences in Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Styles Due to their Sex, Family Structure and Number of Siblings

In order to examine whether there were differences in adolescents' perceived parenting styles due to their sex, family structure, and number of siblings, *Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)* was employed.

Before proceeding with the *MANOVA*, the underlying assumptions for *MANOVA* were performed. As suggested by Hair et al. (1998), it is desirable that the dependent variables that are entered in the *Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA)* should be correlated. Therefore, Pearson's correlation was performed to determine whether or not the criterion variables (i.e., autocrat parenting style, pampering parenting style, decent parenting style & reasonable parenting style) were significantly correlated. As shown in Table 29, the results revealed that the

correlations between autocrat parenting style and pampering parenting style, autocrat parenting style and decent parenting style, autocrat parenting style and reasonable parenting style, pampering parenting style and decent parenting style, pampering parenting style and reasonable parenting style, and decent parenting style and reasonable parenting style were $r = -.23, p < .01$, $r = -.21, p < .01$, $r = -.20, p < .01$, $r = -.21, p < .01$, $r = -.24, p < .01$, and $r = -.21, p < .01$ respectively, which met the requirement of *MANOVA*. In line with this, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also found to be significant ($\chi^2 = 44.06, p < .001$), indicating sufficient correlation coefficients between the criterion variables to proceed with the analysis.

In addition, normality and linearity of the criterion variables (i.e., parenting styles) were checked on the data screening phase and found to be appropriate for the analysis (see Appendix E & J). With regard to homogeneity of variance, *Box's M* test was used. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), more than one quantitative criterion variables are being assessed, the *Box's M* test is an appropriate tool to test for homoscedasticity, where statistical significance ($p < .001$) is indicative of heterogeneity or inequality. In this study, therefore, *Box's M* test of equality of covariance matrices was not statistically significant ($Box's M = 79.12, p > .310$), indicating the criterion variables covariance matrices were equal across the levels of predictor variables (i.e., sex, family structure, & number of siblings). Thus, for the *MANOVA* test statistic, Wilk's lambda is appropriate for use in the case of homogeneity of variance-covariance observed. The summary of *MANOVA* results was reported below in Table 45.

Table 45

The Summary of MANOVA Results for the Main Effects of Adolescents Sex, Family Structure and Number of Siblings on Parenting Styles

	Effect	Value	<i>F</i>	Hypothesis df	Error df	<i>P</i>	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.984	6255.329	4.000	400.000	.000	.984
	Wilks' Lambda	.016	6255.329	4.000	400.000	.000	.984
	Hotelling's Trace	62.553	6255.329	4.000	400.000	.000	.984
	Roy's Largest Root	62.553	6255.329	4.000	400.000	.000	.984
Sex	Pillai's Trace	.032	3.347	4.000	400.000	.010	.032
	Wilks' Lambda	.968	3.347	4.000	400.000	.010	.032
	Hotelling's Trace	.033	3.347	4.000	400.000	.010	.032
	Roy's Largest Root	.033	3.347	4.000	400.000	.010	.032
FS	Pillai's Trace	.036	3.788	4.000	400.000	.005	.036
	Wilks' Lambda	.964	3.788	4.000	400.000	.005	.036
	Hotelling's Trace	.038	3.788	4.000	400.000	.005	.036
	Roy's Largest Root	.038	3.788	4.000	400.000	.005	.036
NS	Pillai's Trace	.029	2.937	4.000	400.000	.021	.029
	Wilks' Lambda	.971	2.937	4.000	400.000	.021	.029
	Hotelling's Trace	.029	2.937	4.000	400.000	.021	.029
	Roy's Largest Root	.029	2.937	4.000	400.000	.021	.029

Note: FS = family structure; NS = number of sibling

As it can be seen in Table 45, the *MANOVA* results showed that the main effect for adolescents' sex [*Wilks' Lambda* = .968, $F(4, 400) = 3.35$, $p < .05$, *partial* $\eta^2 = .032$], family structure [*Wilks' Lambda* = .964, $F(4, 400) = 3.79$, $p < .01$, *partial* $\eta^2 = .036$], and number of siblings [*Wilks' Lambda* = .971, $F(4, 400) = 2.94$, $p < .05$, *partial* $\eta^2 = .029$] on the four parenting styles (i.e., autocrat, pampering, decent, & reasonable), taken simultaneously as outcome variables, were found to be statistically significant, while the interaction effects among adolescents' sex, family structure, and number of siblings on their perceived parenting styles were not significant (see the total output in Appendix H & I).

Hence, the main effect of adolescents' sex, family structure, and number of siblings on each of the parenting style was assessed using a univariate Analysis of Variance (*ANOVA*), to identify on which parenting style(s) sex, family structure, and number of siblings have significant effects. Therefore, the result of a follow-up *ANOVA* test of between-subject effects of adolescents' sex, family structure, and number of siblings on parenting styles was summarized in Table 46.

Table 46

The Summary of ANOVA Results for Tests of Between-Subject Effects of Adolescents' Sex, Family Structure and Number of Siblings on Parenting Styles

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	DF	Mean Square	F	p	Partial η^2
Intercept	Autocrat	51019.390	1	51019.390	2671.228	.000	.869
	Pampering	42371.893	1	42371.893	2937.651	.000	.879
	Decent	103340.304	1	103340.304	1690.454	.000	.807
	Reasonable	75618.002	1	75618.002	1866.306	.000	.822
Sex	Autocrat	170.824	1	170.824	8.944	.003	.022
	Pampering	67.759	1	67.759	4.698	.031	.012
	Decent	57.839	1	57.839	.946	.331	.002
	Reasonable	6.565	1	6.565	.162	.688	.000
FS	Autocrat	150.084	1	150.084	7.858	.005	.019
	Pampering	48.023	1	48.023	3.329	.069	.008
	Decent	214.426	1	214.426	3.508	.062	.009
	Reasonable	23.610	1	23.610	.583	.446	.001
NS	Autocrat	25.552	1	25.552	1.338	.248	.003
	Pampering	162.675	1	162.675	11.278	.001	.027
	Decent	2.463	1	2.463	.040	.841	.000
	Reasonable	57.110	1	57.110	1.410	.236	.003
Error	Autocrat	7697.140	403	19.100			
	Pampering	5812.765	403	14.424			
	Decent	24636.065	403	61.132			
	Reasonable	16328.539	403	40.517			
Total	Autocrat	79828.000	411				
	Pampering	63418.000	411				
	Decent	169000.000	411				
	Reasonable	127735.000	411				

Note: FS = family structure; NS = number of sibling

As shown in Table 46, the results of a follow-up ANOVA test indicated that there were statistically significant differences in adolescents' perceived autocrat parenting style ($F_{(1, 403)} = 8.94, p < .01, \eta^2 = .022$) and pampering parenting style ($F_{(1, 403)} = 4.69, p < .05, \eta^2 = .012$) as a function of their sex, where sex accounting for 2.2 % and 1.2 % of the variations in the autocrat parenting style and pampering parenting style respectively. However, decent parenting style and reasonable parenting style did not vary significantly as a function of adolescents' sex.

With regard to the family structure of adolescents, the result showed a statistically significant difference in adolescents' perceived autocrat parenting style ($F_{(1, 403)} = 7.86, p < .01, \eta^2 = .019$), with family structure accounting for 1.9 % of the variation in autocrat parenting style, whereas pampering parenting style, decent parenting style and reasonable parenting style did not vary significantly as a function of family structure.

On the other hand, a statistically significant difference in adolescents' perceived pampering parenting style ($F_{(1, 403)} = 11.28, p < .01, \eta^2 = .027$) was observed as a function of number of siblings in the adolescents' family, with number of siblings accounting for 2.7 % of the variation in pampering parenting style, while autocrat parenting style, decent parenting style and reasonable parenting style did not vary significantly as a function of number of siblings.

As can be seen from multivariate and a follow up univariate analyses, for all those effects which were found to be statistically significant, both multivariate and univariate effect sizes (η^2) were small, signifying small strength in associations. It is because, as suggested by Cohen (1990), the effect size of $\geq .371$ is considered large, between .100 and .371 is considered medium, and $\leq .100$ is considered small.

In addition, the pairwise comparison simple effect test was used to identify the direction of the differences for the effects of sex, family structure, and number of siblings, which were found

to be significant statistically. For pairwise comparison simple effect test, the estimated marginal means, which are desirable when comparing the means of unequal sample sizes, were employed. Therefore, the estimated marginal means and standard errors of the scores of parenting styles and the summary of results for pairwise comparison simple effect tests by adolescents' sex, family structure, and number of siblings were presented below.

Table 47

The Estimated Marginal Means and Standard Errors of the Scores of Parenting Styles by Sex

Dependent Variable	Sex	Mean	SE	95 % Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Lower Bound
Autocrat	F	14.013	.357	13.312	14.714
	M	12.480	.368	11.756	13.204
Pampering	F	11.589	.310	10.980	12.198
	M	12.555	.320	11.926	13.184
Decent	F	19.299	.638	18.045	20.553
	M	18.407	.659	17.112	19.702
Reasonable	F	15.977	.519	14.956	16.998
	M	16.277	.536	15.223	17.332

Table 48

The Summary of Results for Pairwise Comparison Simple Effect Tests

Dependent Variable	(I) Sex	(J) Sex	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	P	95 % Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Lower Bound
Autocrat	F	M	1.533*	.513	.003	.525	2.541
	M	F	-1.533*	.513	.003	-2.541	-.525
Pampering	F	M	-.966*	.445	.031	-1.841	-.090
	M	F	.966*	.445	.031	.090	1.841
Decent	F	M	.892	.917	.331	-.911	2.695
	M	F	-.892	.917	.331	-2.695	.911
Reasonable	F	M	-.301	.747	.688	-1.768	1.167
	M	F	.301	.747	.688	-1.167	1.768

Note: * denotes the mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

As shown in Tables 47 and 48 above, the paired comparison simple effect test revealed that there was a significant mean difference ($p < .05$) between the female and the male adolescents on their perceived autocrat parenting style and pampering parenting style. That is, the mean score of adolescents' perceived autocrat parenting style was higher in female adolescents ($M = 14.01$, $SE = .36$) than male adolescents ($M = 12.48$, $SE = .37$), whereas the mean score of adolescents' perceived pampering parenting style was higher in male adolescents ($M = 12.56$, $SE = .32$) than female adolescents ($M = 11.59$, $SE = .31$). However, no significant mean differences were

observed between the female and the male adolescents on their perceived decent parenting style and reasonable parenting style.

Table 49

The Estimated Marginal Means and Standard Errors of the Scores of Parenting Styles by Family Structure

Dependent Variable	FS	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Lower Bound
Autocrat	Intact	12.528	.337	11.866	13.191
	Non-intact	13.965	.386	13.206	14.725
Pampering	Intact	12.478	.293	11.903	13.054
	Non-intact	11.666	.336	11.006	12.326
Decent	Intact	17.994	.603	16.809	19.179
	Non-intact	19.712	.691	18.353	21.070
Reasonable	Intact	16.412	.491	15.447	17.377
	Non-intact	15.842	.563	14.736	16.948

Table 50

The Summary of Results for Pairwise Comparison Simple Effect Tests

Dependent Variable	(I) FS	(J) FS	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	P	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Lower Bound
Autocrat	Intact	Non-intact	-1.437*	.513	.005	-2.445	-.429
	Non-intact	Intact	1.437*	.513	.005	.429	2.445
Pampering	Intact	Non-intact	.813	.445	.069	-.063	1.689
	Non-intact	Intact	-.813	.445	.069	-1.689	.063
Decent	Intact	Non-intact	-1.718	.917	.062	-3.520	.085
	Non-intact	Intact	1.718	.917	.062	-.085	3.520
Reasonable	Intact	Non-intact	.570	.747	.446	-.898	2.038
	Non-intact	Intact	-.570	.747	.446	-2.038	.898

*Note: * denotes the mean difference is significant at the .05 level; FS = family structure*

As displayed in Table 49 and 50, the paired comparison simple effect test revealed that there was a statistically significant mean difference ($p < .05$) between the intact and non intact adolescents on their perceived autocrat parenting style. That is, the mean score of adolescents' perceived autocrat parenting style was higher in non-intact adolescents ($M = 13.97$, $SE = .39$) than intact adolescents ($M = 12.53$, $SE = .34$). But, statistically significant differences in adolescents' perceived pampering parenting style, decent parenting style, and reasonable parenting style were not found between adolescents from intact and non-intact families.

Table 51

The Estimated Marginal Means and Standard Errors of the Scores of Parenting Styles by Number of Siblings

Dependent Variable	NS	Mean	SE	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Lower Bound
Autocrat	One	12.950	.445	12.076	13.824
	> One	13.543	.255	13.042	14.045
Pampering	One	12.820	.386	12.061	13.580
	> One	11.324	.222	10.888	11.760
Decent	One	18.761	.795	17.197	20.324
	> One	18.945	.456	18.047	19.842
Reasonable	One	15.684	.648	14.411	16.957
	> One	16.570	.372	15.840	17.301

Note: NS = number of siblings

Table 52

The Summary of Results for Pairwise Comparison Simple Effect Tests

Dependent Variable	(I) NS	(J) NS	Mean Difference (I-J)	SE	P	95 % Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Lower Bound
Autocrat	One	> One	-.593	.513	.248	-1.601	.415
	> One	One	.593	.513	.248	-.415	1.601
Pampering	One	> One	1.496*	.445	.001	.620	2.372
	> One	One	-1.496*	.445	.001	-2.372	-.620
Decent	One	> One	-.184	.917	.841	-1.987	1.619
	> One	One	.184	.917	.841	-1.619	1.987
Reasonable	One	> One	-.886	.747	.236	-2.354	.581
	> One	One	.886	.747	.236	-.581	2.354

Note: * denotes the mean difference is significant at the .05 level; NS = number of siblings

As shown in Tables 51 and 52 above, a significant mean difference ($p < .05$) was observed between adolescents reared in the only child family and more than one child family on their perceived pampering parenting style. That is, the mean score of adolescents' perceived pampering parenting style was higher in adolescents who reared in the only child family ($M = 12.82$, $SE = .39$) than adolescents who reared in more than one child family ($M = 11.32$, $SE = .22$). However, no statistically significant differences observed between adolescents reared in the only child family and more than one child family on their perceived autocrat parenting style, decent parenting style, and reasonable parenting style.

4. 3. Discussion

The discussion was made under three categories contingent on the major findings. First, it was made about the results obtained with regard to the relationship of parenting style with psychological wellbeing, self-esteem, and identity style. Discussions were also made with regard to the findings about the direct and indirect effects of parenting styles on psychological wellbeing. Finally, the differences in adolescents perceived parenting styles due to their sex, family structure and number of siblings were dealt.

The Relationships of Parenting Style with Psychological Wellbeing, Self-Esteem and Identity Style

Parenting is one of the most important perspectives in the study of relationships between parents and children. Parenting style and its influence on children's developmental outcomes has traditionally been studied widely using Baumrind's (1967) parenting typology. Since Baumrind's parenting typology has been developed and validated in the context of individualistic culture, it may not work in the context of collectivistic cultures like Africa including Ethiopia due to the differences in their cultural orientations. Therefore, in our cultural context particularly in Amhara regional context, four parenting typologies (i.e., autocrat, pampering, decent & reasonable) were identified in the study one of this dissertation work.

Autocrat parents tend to over control their children's overall activities. They usually do not show love and excessively use punishment to discipline their children. Conceptually, this type of parenting style is related to authoritarian type. As described by Baumrind (1971, 1991), authoritarian parents are strict disciplinarians, highly controlling, punitive style, and unlikely to show affection or to praise their children.

Pampering parents tend to fulfill the needs and desires of their children. They do not reprimand their children whatever the children do. Pampering parenting style is related to permissive or indulgent parenting style. Permissive or indulgent parents are non-punitive, affectionate, overly tolerant, and allow children to make things by their own decisions (Baumrind, 1971; Maccoby & Martin, 1983).

Reasonable parents allow their children to do what they want to do as long as the children have justification to convince their parents. They freely discuss with their children on day to day activities and they usually use advice rather than punishment for their children's wrong doings. This type of parenting is more related to authoritative parenting style. Authoritative parents explain and justify their expectations and actions to their children, and they are responsive to feedback. They set clear guidelines and they implement reasonable control in a legitimate and loving manner (Baumrind, 1971, 1991).

Decent parents tend to give due attention to cultural norms and expectations, and they direct their children to obey these cultural norms and expectations. They closely monitor their children's daily activities and reward or punish accordingly. Decent parenting style is conceptually distinct from that of Baumrind's (1967, 1991) parenting typology. This clearly indicated that parenting style is culture based as noted by different researchers (e.g., Bornstein, 1995; Tamminen, 2006).

Within the frame of the aforementioned parenting styles, therefore, the first concern of study two was examined to show the extent to which adolescents' perceived parenting style related with their psychological wellbeing, self-esteem, and identity style.

With regard to the relations of parenting style with psychological wellbeing, the findings of the present study revealed that decent parenting style and reasonable parenting style contributed

significantly and positively to psychological wellbeing, while autocrat parenting style and pampering parenting style did not contribute significantly. However, the result of inter-correlation coefficient between autocrat parenting style and psychological wellbeing showed significant and negative relationship.

Out of the 22 % of total variance accounted for by the four parenting styles, 11.4 % and 9 % of the variance were explained by decent and reasonable parenting styles respectively.

Since decent parenting style was new and unique, it was not possible to compare the finding of this parenting style with the findings of previous studies. However, the possible explanation for the finding observed may be adolescents who maintain the cultural norms and expectations of the society in which they live can be encouraged, and this may in turn lead them to have better psychological wellbeing. Whereas the finding of reasonable parenting style, being an aspect of authoritative parenting style, is compatible with other previous studies. For instance, Gladstone and Parker (2005) reported that children and adolescents who perceived their parents high in affection, warmth, and caring, but low in over-control tend to have better psychological wellbeing. Similarly, Baumrind (1991), and Maccoby and Martin (1983) also revealed that children and adolescents who considered their parents as authoritative related positively to their psychological well-being.

On the other hand, the result of autocrat parenting style (i.e., the characteristics of authoritarian type) is supported by the previous finding (Steinberg et al.,1994), which demonstrated that authoritarian parenting style was significantly and negatively associated with psychological wellbeing.

With regard to the relations of parenting style with self-esteem, the results of multiple regression analysis revealed that decent parenting style and reasonable parenting style predicted

significantly and positively adolescents' self-esteem, whereas autocrat parenting style and pampering parenting style did not predict self-esteem. But, the inter-correlation coefficients between autocrat parenting style and self-esteem and between pampering parenting and self-esteem were found to be significant and negative. When self-esteem was regressed on autocrat, pampering, decent and reasonable parenting styles, 17.3 % of the variance in self-esteem was accounted for by these parenting styles. Of these, decent parenting style accounted for 9.3 % of the variance, while reasonable parenting style accounted for 7.8 % of the variance in self-esteem.

Since there has been no previous study regarding the relation of decent parenting style on self-esteem, it was not possible to relate the current finding to other previous studies. However, the likely explanation why decent parenting style significantly and positively related to adolescents' self-esteem could be that adolescents from decent parenting style are highly compatible with the cultural norms. Being attached to the cultural norms and expectations, they may get acceptance by the society in which they live. In turn, this may lead them to have high self-esteem. On the other hand, the results of reasonable, autocrat and pampering parenting styles are in agreement with the previous findings. For example, children or adolescents reared by authoritative parents (reasonable type) were most likely to have high self esteem (Doyle & Markiewicz, 2005; Steinberg, 2001). In contrast, children or adolescents from authoritarian parents (autocrat type) and permissive parents (pampering type) have shown poor self-esteem (Binger, 1994; Reitman et al., 2002; Wennar, 1994).

With regard to the relations of parenting style with identity styles, reasonable parenting style and decent parenting style predicted significantly and positively informational identity style, whereas autocrat and pampering parenting styles were not found to be significant predictors of informational identity style. From 15.3 % of the total variance in informational identity style,

13.1 % of the variance explained by reasonable parenting style while 1.3 % of the variation in informational identity style was explained by decent parenting style.

The current finding of reasonable parenting style with informational identity style is consistent with the findings of previous studies (Berzonsky, 2004; Fullinwider-Bush & Jacobvitz, 1993; Mathis & Adams, 2004; Passmore et al., 2005), which indicated that parental authoritativeness (reasonable type) was positively and significantly associated with an informational identity style. However, the finding that decent parenting style positively and significantly predicted informational identity style may not go in line with the expectation. Since adolescents from decent parenting style are highly dictated by cultural norms and significant others, they may not get too much freedom to explore a variety of identity alternatives, which is the feature of informational identity style. Therefore, this may need further investigation.

On the other hand, autocrat parenting style and decent parenting style predicted significantly and positively normative identity style, whereas pampering parenting style and reasonable parenting style did not predict significantly adolescents' normative identity style. However, the inter-correlation coefficient between pampering parenting style and normative identity style was significant and negative. Out of 15.9 % of the total variance in normative identity style, 14.6 % of the variance accounted for by decent parenting style, and 1% of the variance accounted for by autocrat parenting style. The finding of this study is supported by previous studies (Berzonsky, 2004; Fullinwider-Bush & Jacobvitz, 1993; Mathis & Adams, 2004; Passmore, et al., 2005), which showed that authoritarian style (autocrat type) was significantly and positively related to the normative identity style. Although there is a paucity of previous study in line with decent parenting style, one can anticipate that decent parents, who direct their children to obey cultural norms and parental expectations, would predict positively normative identity style as adolescents

with normative identity style try to adapt to the norms of significant others (Berzonsky, 1992). Moreover, one may also expect that pampering parents who do not reprimand their children whatever the children do, would associate negatively with normative identity style.

With regard to diffused identity style, the finding of the study revealed that only autocrat parenting style predicted significantly and positively diffused identity style, whereas pampering, decent and reasonable parenting style did not predict significantly adolescents' diffused identity style. Out of 5.1% of the total variance in diffused identity style, 4.3% of the variance was explained by autocrat parenting style. This finding is related to the findings of Berzonsky (2004), which revealed that parental authoritarianism, which is the characteristic of autocrat type, was positively and significantly associated with diffused avoidance identity style.

The Direct and Indirect Effects of Parenting Styles on Psychological Wellbeing

One of the objectives of the present study was to determine whether or not self-esteem and identity style would mediate the relationships between adolescents' perceived parenting style and psychological wellbeing. Therefore, two models were tested separately. The first model focused on the relationship between parenting style and psychological wellbeing via self-esteem. This model included both the direct effects from parenting style to psychological wellbeing, and the indirect effects through self-esteem. The results of the current study provided evidence for partial mediation. Specifically, the paths from decent parenting style and reasonable parenting style to psychological wellbeing were partially mediated by self-esteem. These findings revealed that adolescents who perceived their parents as decent and reasonable parenting styles showed better self-esteem compared to their counterparts who perceived their parents as autocrat and pampering parenting styles, and, in turn, adolescents having better self-esteem also revealed better psychological wellbeing. This finding is corresponded with previous research findings,

which demonstrated that authoritative parenting style, being an aspect of the reasonable parenting style, predicted positively high self-esteem of adolescents (e.g. Doyle & Markiewicz, 2005; Steinberg, 2001), and in turn adolescents having high self-esteem predicted positively psychological wellbeing (e.g. Furnham & Cheng, 2000; Gladstone & Parker, 2005). Moreover, it is also possible to anticipate that adolescents from decent parenting style, who adapt themselves in line with the cultural norms of the society, would develop high self-esteem. In turn, adolescents having high self-esteem would also contribute to better psychological wellbeing.

The second model implicated the relationship between parenting style and psychological wellbeing through identity style. The findings revealed that the relationship between parenting style and psychological wellbeing was mediated by identity style. Specifically, the relations of reasonable parenting style and decent parenting style to psychological wellbeing were partially mediated by informational identity style. That is, adolescents who perceived their parents as reasonable and decent parenting styles led them to have informational identity style, which in turn, adolescents with informational identity style contributes to have better in psychological wellbeing. These findings are in concordance with the findings of previous studies (e.g. Berzonsky, 2004; Mathis & Adams, 2004; Passmore et al., 2005), which showed that authoritative parents who provide adolescents with the confidence to actively explore identity alternatives (Smits et al., 2008), associated significantly and positively with informational identity style. In turn, informational identity style related positively and significantly to psychological wellbeing (Abdizarrin et al., 2010; Vleioras & Bosma, 2005).

On the other hand, the relation of decent parenting style to psychological wellbeing was partially mediated by normative identity style, indicating adolescents who perceived their parents as decent parenting style led them to have normative identity style, which relies on the desires

and expectations of significant others. In turn, adolescents with normative identity style also contributed to better psychological wellbeing.

Parenting Style Differences as a Function of adolescents' Sex, Family Structure and Number of Siblings

Examining the effects of sex, family structure and number of siblings of adolescents on their perceived parenting styles were also another goal of this study. The findings revealed that sex of the adolescents had a significant effect on their perceived autocrat parenting style and pampering parenting style. That is, the mean score of adolescents' perceived autocrat parenting style was higher in female adolescents than their counterpart male adolescents. This finding corresponded with previous studies (Dwairy, 1997; Sigal & Barclay, 1982; Zakareya, 1999), which reported that parental control or strictness, being an aspect of the autocrat parenting style, was greater for daughters than for sons. The possible reason, particularly in the Ethiopian cultural context, might be, if female adolescents are not controlled and supervised by their parents, they may be exposed to different problems like rape and early marriage, which is highly prevalent in the country (Seblework, 2004).

On the other hand, the mean score of adolescents' perceived pampering parenting style was higher in male adolescents than their counterpart female adolescents. The finding of this study is inconsistent with previous findings (e.g., Dornbusch et al., 1987), which revealed that parents are more permissive (pampering) toward girls than boys. For the inconsistency of finding, perhaps, parents in Amhara culture may give more privilege and freedom to male adolescents than their counterpart female adolescents.

With regard to family structure, the result showed that adolescents from different family structure had a significant difference on their perceived autocrat parenting style. That is, the

mean score of adolescents' perceived autocrat parenting style was higher in adolescents from non intact family than adolescents from intact family. This finding is in agreement with the finding of Dornbusch et al. (1987), which showed that step-parents tended to be more authoritarian (autocrat) than biological parents.

In relation to number of siblings, on the other hand, the findings of the present study revealed that the number of siblings in the adolescents' family had a significant effect on their perceived pampering parenting style, favoring the only child adolescent. That is, the mean score of adolescents' perceived pampering parenting style was higher in adolescents reared in the only child family than adolescents reared in more than one child family. This result accords with the previous finding of Shek (2006), which demonstrated that parents with the only child family become more lenient, overprotective, and child-centered than parents with more children.

5. GENERAL CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

This section drew conclusions, and discussed the practical and theoretical contributions of the study. It also underscored the limitations of the study, and suggested directions for future research.

5. 1. Conclusion

Parenting is universal but parenting style varies from culture to culture. A type of parenting style which is appropriate in one culture may not be appropriate in other cultures. Therefore, in order to identify parenting styles in a given culture, there is a need for developing and validating parenting style instrument that would reflect that culture. Therefore, the primary concern of this research was to develop and validate Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style (APPS) scale in the context of Amhara region (study one), and then followed by assessing the relations of parenting style with adolescents' self- esteem, identity style, and psychological wellbeing, so as to show the type of parenting style which is most effective to adolescents' positive development (study two).

The newly developed and validated Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style (APPS) scale was found to be a four factor parenting subscales such as reasonable parenting style, decent parenting style, pampering parenting style, and autocrat parenting style. The final APPS scale has shown good reliability estimates, model fit, discriminant validity, and convergent validity. Thus, it would be suffice to say that APPS scale measures what it purports to measure.

Following study one, the findings of study two indicated that adolescents who described their parents as decent and reasonable are better in their self-esteem, identity style and psychological wellbeing than adolescents who described their parents as autocrat and pampering.

In contrast, adolescents who characterized their parents as autocrat lead them to immature identity style (i.e., diffused avoidance).

Both self-esteem and identity styles played important roles in mediating the effects of parenting styles on psychological wellbeing. When self-esteem, informational identity style and normative identity style facilitated positively to psychological wellbeing, diffused avoidance identity style was not found to be a mediator variable.

The differences in parenting styles due to adolescents' sex, family structure and number of sibling, the results indicated that there were significant differences between female and male adolescents in their perceived autocrat parenting style and pampering parenting style; between adolescents from intact family and non- intact family in their perceived autocrat parenting style; and between adolescents from only child family and more than one child family in their perceived pampering parenting style.

Generally, one can conclude from the results of these studies that four parenting styles were identified that commonly practiced in Amhara region. Of these parenting styles, decent parenting style and reasonable parenting style were found to be appropriate type of parenting styles for enhancing the positive development of adolescents, while autocrat parenting style contributed negatively. Pampering parenting style, on the other hand, did not contribute significantly to adolescents' positive development.

Moreover, self-esteem, informational identity style and normative identity style were found to be the possible intervention areas to enhance adolescents' positive development. Furthermore, the differences in parenting styles due to adolescents' sex, family structure and number of siblings were clearly shown.

5. 2. Practical and Theoretical Contributions of the Study

This study has both practical and theoretical contributions. Some of the main contributions were summarized as follow:

5. 2. 1. Practical Contributions of the Study

The findings of the present study have practical contributions for researchers, students who are studying in the field of Measurement and Evaluation, parents, and practitioners who are working in the area. For example, local researchers, who are interested in conducting research on parenting style, can save their time and money by easily accessing this reliable and valid locally made parenting instrument. Moreover, previous researchers those who have conducted their research using Western made instrument, would be beneficial to reexamine their findings and fill a gap in empirical work with this instrument, which is developed and validated in a contextual sensitive manner.

Students in the field of Measurement and Evaluation can get an insight from this study about the basic procedures on how a reliable and valid instrument is developed, and thereby they can develop and validate a new measure accordingly. Furthermore, they can also use this instrument for convergent validity check for other locally made parenting style measures.

Parents and stakeholders will also benefit from this study by being informed about the type of parenting style that is most effective to children and adolescents positive development. In particular, the use of decent and reasonable parenting styles in their child-rearing practices and facilitate the conditions which are essential to foster their adolescents' self-esteem, identity style and psychological wellbeing. The findings of this study would also help adolescents themselves to know and understand that their own personal characteristics (i.e., self-esteem & identity style) have significant roles in their psychological wellbeing.

In addition, the findings of the current study indicated that female adolescents and adolescents from non-intact family structure perceived their parents as more of autocrat than their counterparts. Since autocrat type of parenting style contributes negatively to adolescents' healthy development, the society in general and parents in particular, should be encouraged to change their autocratic style of child rearing towards female adolescents and adolescents from non-intact family.

5. 2. 2. Theoretical Contributions of the Study

The findings of the present study have theoretical contributions. First, this study provides us to understand better for those who are interested in developing and validating a new instrument in general and parenting style instrument in particular. Second, the newly developed Adolescents' Perceived Parenting Style scale can serve as a theoretical model for parenting studies in our context. Third, based on indigenous data, the findings of this study provide to expand knowledge about the type of parenting styles that are commonly exercised in Amhara regional context, which will in turn initiate researchers to conduct research in this given context. Finally, the findings of this study could have a great importance for theorists in the area of socialization to understand the type of parenting styles that are most effective to adolescents' positive development in Amhara regional context.

5. 3. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Research

Although this study provides relevant and previously undocumented findings, it has some limitations that would be considered for future studies.

First, the newly developed and validated instrument was designed to measure parent's style of parenting as perceived by adolescents. However, the maternal and the paternal child rearing styles may differ in line with the four parenting styles identified. Therefore, future researchers

who are interested in studying the maternal parenting style and paternal parenting style on adolescents' developmental or behavioral outcomes, they may use this instrument separately by substituting the word "parents" from each item with "mother" or "father".

Second, this study was limited to government general secondary and preparatory school students in the Amhara region. Thus, the findings cannot be generalized to private, community, and missionary school adolescents. Therefore, future research could move some steps forward to assess the psychometric properties of the instrument by including these schools.

Third, due to the influences of mass media, technologies, modernization and globalization, parents' style of parenting may change from time to time. Therefore, future researchers can improve and revise this instrument periodically.

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Appendix A

Initial Draft Items Generated by Informants in the Focus Group Discussions

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ

የሳይክሎጂ ት/ቤት

ለትምህርት ባለሙያዎች የቀረበ የጽሑፍ መጠይቅ

የዚህ ጽሑፍ መጠይቅ ዋና ዓላማ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነት በልጆቻቸው እይታ ምን እንደሚመስል ለመለካት የሚያስችል መሳሪያ (scale) ለማዘጋጀት ነው። ይህም በዚህ መስክ ምርምር ለሚያደርጉ ምሁራን ጠቀሜታው የጎላ ነው።

ስለዚህ እርስዎ የሚሰጧቸው መልሶች ጥናቱ ያለመለትን ግብ እንዲመታ በጣም ጠቃሚ በመሆናቸው የቀረቡት ሁሉ ጥያቄዎች ወይም አረፍተ ነገሮች የእርስዎን መልስ ይሻሉ። በመሆኑም ከዚህ በታች በቀረበው ሰንጠኝ ላይ አምስት የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነቶች ከነመገለጫቸው የቀረቡ ሲሆን የእያንዳንዱን የወላጅ የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት ይገልጻሉ የተባሉ አረፍተ ነገሮች በእያንዳንዱ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት ስር ተዘርዝረዋል። ስለዚህ እያንዳንዱ አረፍተ ነገር ምን ያህል አስፈላጊ እንደሆነ ከተሰጠው የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነት መገለጫ ጋር በማገናዘብ እርስዎ በይበልጥ የሚስማሙበትን ሀሳብ የያዘውን ቁጥር በማክበብ ይመልሱ።

ስለ ትብብርዎ በቅድሚያ በጣም አመሰግናለሁ።

መግለጫ

1 = አስፈላጊ አይደለም

2 = ጠቃሚ ቢሆንም አያስፈልግም

3 = አስፈላጊ ነው

ልቅ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት - ወላጆች ምንም ይሁን ምን የልጆቻቸውን ስሜትና ፍላጎት በመከተል ለማስደሰት የሚፈልጉ፤ ወላጆች ልጆቻቸውን ለቅ የሚያደርጉና የሚያሞላቅቁ፤ እንዲሁም ወላጆች ልጆቻቸውን ያለምንም ተግላጽ ልጆች እንደፈልጉ እንዲሆኑ የሚያደርጉ ናቸው።

ተ.ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	1	2	3
1	ወላጆቹ ከራሳቸው በላይ ለእኔ ይጨነቃሉ።	1	2	3
2	ወላጆቹ እኔ ተከፍቼ ማየት አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3
3	ወላጆቹ እኔ ሁሌም ከእነሱ ጎን ባልለይ ደስተኞች ናቸው።	1	2	3
4	ወላጆቹ በቂ ገንዘብ ባይኖራቸውም እንኳ እኔን ለማስደሰት ተበድረውም ቢሆን የምፈልገውን ያሟሉልኛል።	1	2	3
5	ወላጆቹ እኔ ጥፋት ባጠፋም እንኳ ለምን የሚል ጥያቄ አያነሱብኝም።	1	2	3
6	ወላጆቹ እኔ እንደፈለግሁት ብሆን ምንም አይናገሩኝም።	1	2	3
7*	ወላጆቹ እኔ ከሌለሁ ምግብ እንኳ እንደማይበላቸው ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
8	ወላጆቹ እኔ ጥፋተኛ መሆኔን ቢያውቁም ጥፋቴን ይደብቁልኛል።	1	2	3
9	ወላጆቹ እኔን በቅርብ ካለገኙኝ ይረበሻሉ።	1	2	3
10	ወላጆቹ እኔን ሁሌም እንደህጻን ልጅ ነው የሚንከባከቡኝ።	1	2	3
11*	ወላጆቹ እኔ በአንድ ነገር ስናደድ ወዲያውኑ ያባብሉኛል።	1	2	3

12*	እኔ በራሴ ፍላጎት የማደርገው ነገር ካልሆነ በስተቀር በወላጆቼ ተጽዕኖ የማደርገው ነገር የለም።	1	2	3
13	ወላጆቼ እኔን ማንም ሰው እንዲናገረኝ አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3
14*	ወላጆቼ ችግር ሲገጥማቸው እኔ እንዳልሰማና እንዳልጨነቅ ሊነገሩኝ አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3
15	ወላጆቼ እኔን በጣም ያቀብጡኛል።	1	2	3
16	ወላጆቼ ለእኔ ከፍተኛ እንክብካቤ ያደርጉልኛል ።	1	2	3
17*	ወላጆቼ ሁሌም ስለእኔ ጥሩ ነገር ነው የሚያወሩት።	1	2	3
18*	ወላጆቼ ከእንግዳ ጋር እንኳ ቢሆኑ ትኩረታቸው ከእኔ ጋር ነው።	1	2	3
19*	የእኔ ወላጆች ከጓደኞቼ ጋር ቤት ውስጥ እንደሌለግሁት እንድሜዋት ይፈቅዱልኛል።	1	2	3
20*	ወላጆቼ በእረፍት ጊዜያቸው ለመዝናናት እኔን ሳይዙ አይሑዱም።	1	2	3
21**	እኔ ወላጆቼን የሚያስከፋ ንግግር እንኳ ብናገራቸው አይቀየሙኝም።	1	2	3
22**	እኔ ከሌሎች ልጆች ጋር ከተጣለሁ ወላጆቼ የተጣለሁበትን ምክንያት ከማወቅ ይልቅ እኔን በማገዝ ይጣላሉ።	1	2	3

ጨዋ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት- ወላጆች ልጆቻቸውን ማህበረሰቡ የሚጠብቀውን ወግ፣ ልማድ፣ ባህል አክብረው እንዲያድጉ የሚያበረታቱና ቁጥጥር የሚያደርጉ፤ ወላጆች ልጆቻቸውን በቅርብ የሚከታተሉ፣ የሚንከባከቡ ሲያጠፉም የሚቀጡ፤ እንዲሁም ወላጆች ለልጆቻቸው የሚነግሯቸውን ሁሉ እንዲከተሉና እንዲፈጽሙ የሚያደርጉ ናቸው።

ተ.ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	1	2	3
1	ወላጆቼ ከእንግዳ ጋር ከሆኑ እነሱን ማናገር እንደሌለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
2	ለእኔ የሚሆኑኝን ጓደኞች የሚመርጡልኝ ወላጆቼ ናቸው።	1	2	3
3	ወላጆቼ እኔ ለወደፊት ምን መሆን እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
4	እኔ የወላጆቼን ትዕዛዝ ስፈጽም ያመስግኑኛል ሳጠፋም ይቀጡኛል።	1	2	3
5	ወላጆቼ የሚከተሉትን እምነት እኔም መከተል እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
6	ወላጆቼ በቅርብ ከማያውቋቸው ልጆች ጋር ሊያዩኝ እንደማይፈልጉ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
7	ወላጆቼ ጨዋ ልጅ መሆን አንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3

8	ወላጆቹ እኔ ታላቆችን ማክበርና መታዘዝ እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
9	ወላጆቹ ስለእኔ ጥሩ ተግባር ከሌሎች ሰዎች መስማት ያስደስታቸዋል።	1	2	3
10*	ወላጆቹ እኔ ከሌሎች ልጆች ጋር በአጋጣሚ ከተጣለሁ ጥፋተኛ አድርገው የሚቆጡኝ እኔን ነው።	1	2	3
11*	እኔ ከትምህርት ቤት መልስ ወላጆቹን በስራ ማገዝ እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
12*	እኔ በአረፍት ጊዜ ወላጆቹ የሚከተሉትን እምነት እንድከታተል ይፈቅዱልኛል።	1	2	3
13*	ወላጆቹ እኔን የሚቀጡኝ በመጀመሪያ ጥፋቴን ነግረውኝ ነው።	1	2	3
14	ወላጆቹ በአካባቢው ጥሩ አርአያ ናቸው የሚሏቸውን ሰዎች በመጥቀስ እንደነሱ እንድሆን ያበረታቱኛል።	1	2	3
15	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ የሚሆኑኝን ነገር የሚገዙልኝ በእኔ ምርጫ ሳይሆን በእነርሱ ምርጫ ነው።	1	2	3
16	ወላጆቹ በእኔ መጥፎ ተግባር የእነርሱን ስም ማስጠራት እንደሌለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
17*	የእኔ ወላጆች እነርሱ ባለፉበት ህይወት እኔም እንዳልፍ ይፈልጋሉ።	1	2	3
18*	ወላጆቹ ከተቆጡኝ በኋላ የእኔ ጥፋት አለመሆኑን ሲረዱ ያባብሉኛል።	1	2	3
19**	ወላጆቹ ከእንግዳ ጋር ካልሆኑ እኔ መጠየቅ የፈለግሁትን እንድናገር ይፈቅዱልኛል።	1	2	3
20**	እኔ የሚያጋጥመኝን ችግር ለወላጆቹ መናገር እንዳለብኝና ችግሩም በወላጆቹ ብቻ መፈታት እንዳለበት ይነግሩኛል ።	1	2	3
21**	ወላጆቹ እኔ አንድ ነገር እንዲደረግልኝ ሰጠዎታቸው የጠየቅሁት ለእኔ በጣም አስፈላጊ ሆኖ ካለገኙት አያደርጉልኝም።	1	2	3
22**	ወላጆቹ ሌሎች ሰዎች በአሉበት ቦታ እኔ አድማጭ እንጅ ተናጋሪ መሆን እንደሌለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3

ምክንያታዊ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት - ወላጆች ልጆቻቸው ምክንያታዊ ሆነው ማስረዳትና ማሳመን እስከቻሉ ድረስ ማድረግ የፈለጉትን ነገር እንዲያደርጉ የሚፈቅዱ፤ ወላጆች ልጆች ሲያጠፍ ከመቆጣት ይልቅ ምክንያቱን ተረድተው በመምከርና በማስተማር ጥፋቴ እንዳይደገም የሚያደርጉ፤ ወላጆች ለልጆቻቸው ተገቢ እንክብካቤና ክትትል የሚያደርጉ፤ እንዲሁም ወላጆች ከልጆቻቸው ጋር ነጻ ሁነው በመወያየት የእለት ተዕለት ችግራቸውን እንዲፈቱ የሚያደርጉ ናቸው።

ተ.ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	1	2	3
1	ወላጆቹ እኔ ለማከናወናቸው ነገሮች ሁሉ ምክንያታዊ ሆኜ እንዳስረዳቸው ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
2	ወላጆቹ እኔ ጥፋት ስፈጽም ከመቆጣት ይልቅ ምክንያቱን ተረድተው ይመክሩኛል።	1	2	3

3	ወላጆቹ እኔ ማነኛውንም ነገር በኸረግራም ማከናወን እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
4	እኔ የሚያጋጥሙኝን ችግሮች ከወላጆቹ ጋር በመወያየት መፍታት እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
5	ወላጆቹ በቤተሰብ ጉዳይ ላይ የእኔም ተሳትፎ መኖር እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
6*	ወላጆቹ እኔ በአመንሁበት ነገር ጽእኑ አቋም ሊኖረኝ እንደሚገባ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
7	ወላጆቹ ትንሽም ይሁን ትልቅ ጥፋት ሳጠፋ ባይቀጡኝም ጥፋቱን ግን ሳያስረዱኝ አያልፍም።	1	2	3
8	ወላጆቹ በአረፍት ጊዜአቸው ለመዝናናት ወደ ሌላ ቦታ ሲሔዱ እንደሁኔታው እኔንም ይወስዱኛል።	1	2	3
9	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ አንድ ነገር ለማድረግ ሲፈልጉ በቅድሚያ የእኔን ፍላጎትና ምርጫ ይጠይቁኛል።	1	2	3
10	ወላጆቹ እኔ ነጻ ሁኔታ ሐሳቤን እንድናገር ይፈቅዱልኛል።	1	2	3
11*	ወላጆቹ እኔ አንድ ነገር ለማድረግ እንደፈለግሁ ስነግራቸው በመጀመሪያ ስለማድረግ ነገር በእርጋታ እንዳሰብበት ይመክሩኛል።	1	2	3
12	ወላጆቹ በሚያነሱት ሀሳብ ላይ ለእኔ አሳማኝ ሆኖ ካላገኘሁት ለምን የሚል ጥያቄ እንዳነሳ ይፈቅዱልኛል።	1	2	3
13*	ወላጆቹ በማነኛውም ጊዜ እኔ ራሴን ሁኔታ እንድገኝ ይነግሩኛል ።	1	2	3
14	ወላጆቹ የእኔን መብት ይጠብቁልኛል።	1	2	3
15	ወላጆቹ እኔ በማነሳው ሐሳብ ላይ ጊዜ ሰጥተው ያዳምጡኛል።	1	2	3
16*	ወላጆቹ እኔ ነገሮችን በተለያዩ አቅጣጫ ማየት እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
17*	ወላጆቹ እኔ አምኘንበት በማድረግ ነገር ላይ ጣልቃ መግባት አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3
18	ወላጆቹ ከእኔ የሚጠበቅን ስራ ያለማንም አነሳሽ ራሴ አስቤ መስራት እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3
19*	ወላጆቹ እኔን እንደቅርብ ጓደኛቸው ነው የሚያዩኝ።	1	2	3
20	ወላጆቹ የሚገጥማቸውን ችግሮች ሁሉ ለእኔ በግልጽ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3

4. ፈላጭ ቆራጭ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት-ወላጆች በልጆቻቸው ላይ ጥብቅ ቁጥጥር በማድረግ ልጆች በወላጆቻቸው ትዕዛዝ ብቻ ተመርተው እንዲያድጉ የሚያደርጉና ይህንንም ለማየት ቅጣትን በሰፊው የሚጠቀሙ፤ እንዲሁም ወላጆች ለልጆቻቸው ምንም ነጻነት የማይሰጡና ለልጆቻቸው ፍቅር የማያሳዩ ናቸው።

ተ.ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	1	2	3
1	ወላጆቹ እኔ ያለስራ ነጻ ሁኔ ሊያዩኝ አይፈልጉም ::	1	2	3
2	እኔ ወላጆቼን በጣም ስለምፈራ ችግር እንኳ ሊያጋጥመኝ ለመናገር አልደፍርም ::	1	2	3
3	እኔ ወደ ትምህርት ቤት ካልሆነ በስተቀር ከወላጆቹ ትዕዛዝ ውጪ ከቤት እንድወጣ አይፈቅዱልኝም ::	1	2	3
4	ወላጆቹ የሚሉትን ከመፈጸም ውጪ እኔ ምንም ጥያቄ እንዳነሳ አይፈቅዱልኝም ::	1	2	3
5*	ወላጆቹ እኔን በቀና መንገድ ሊያናግሩኝ አይፈልጉም ::	1	2	3
6	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ ምንም ነጻነት አይሰጡኝም ::	1	2	3
7	ወላጆቹ እኔን ከቀጡኝ በኋላ ጥፋተኛ እንዳልነበርሁ ቢረዱም ተሳስተናል አይሉም::	1	2	3
8	ወላጆቹ እኔ አንድ ነገር እንዳደርግ ሲያገዙኝ ቁጣ በተሞላበት መንገድ ነው የሚነግሩኝ::	1	2	3
9*	ወላጆቹ ሁሌም እኔ በምስራው ስራ ደስተኛ ሁነው ሊያሳዩኝ አይፈልጉም ::	1	2	3
10	ወላጆቹ እኔ ከጓደኞቼ ጋር ስጫዋት ማየት አይፈልጉም::	1	2	3
11	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ ከቁጣና ከስድብ ውጪ ፍቅር አያሳዩኝም::	1	2	3
12*	ወላጆቹ የእኔን ጠንካራ ጎን ከማንሳት ይልቅ ደካማ ጎኔን በማንሳት ማሸማቀቅ ይወዳሉ::	1	2	3
13*	ወላጆቹ ቤት ውስጥ ካሉ እኔ ከእነርሱ ጋር እንድቀመጥ አይፈቅዱልኝም::	1	2	3
14*	ወላጆቹ በአንዴ ብዙ ነገር ከአዘዙኝ በኋላ ሁሉም በትክክል ተሰርቶ ማየት ይፈልጋሉ::	1	2	3
15*	ወላጆቹ እኔ እንድናገር ካልጠየቁኝ በስተቀር በእነርሱ ፊት ምንም ነገር አንዳነሳ አይፈቅዱልኝም::	1	2	3
16*	ወላጆቹ እኔ አንድ ነገር እንዳደርግ ካዘዙኝ በኋላ ማን አድርግ አለህ ብለው እንደገና ይጮሁብኛል::	1	2	3
17*	ወላጆቹ እኔን ሲጠሩኝ በቅርብ ፈጥኜ ካልተገኘሁ ይቆጡኛል::	1	2	3
18*	ወላጆቹ ሁሌም እኔን ከማስረዳት ይልቅ ኃይልን በመጠቀም ሊያሳምኑኝ ይፈልጋሉ::	1	2	3
19*	ወላጆቼን እኔ በአጋጣሚ በመንገድ ላይ ካየኋቸው እንዳያዩኝ እደበቃለሁ::	1	2	3
20**	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ ራሳቸው አስበው የሚያደርጉት ነገር ካልሆነ በስተቀር እኔ ሊደረግልኝ የምፈልገውን ለመጠየቅ ብዙጊዜ እፈራሁ::	1	2	3

21**	ወላጆቹ እኔን በትንሽ ነገር ይቆጡኛል።	1	2	3
<p>ግድ የሌሽ የሆነ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት- ወላጆች ለልጆቻቸው ጥሩም ሆነ መጥፎ ነገር ሲፈጽሙ ለማበረታታትም ሆነ ለመገሰጽ የማይሞክሩ ወይም ለማድረግ የማይፈልጉ፤ ወላጆች ለልጆቻቸው ጊዜ የማይሰጡና ስለልጆቻቸው ክትትል የማያደርጉ ናቸው።</p>				
ተ.ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	1	2	3
1	ወላጆቹ የእኔ ጉዳይ ምንም አያሳስባቸውም።	1	2	3
2	ወላጆቹ የእኔን የእለት ተዕለት እንቅስቃሴ የመከታተል ፍላጎት የላቸውም።	1	2	3
3	ወላጆቹ እኔን የት ገባህ(ሽ) የት ወጣህ(ሽ) የሚል ጥያቄ አያነሱብኝም።	1	2	3
4	ወላጆቹ የእኔን መኖር የሚያውቁት በቅርብ ሲያዩኝ ብቻ ነው።	1	2	3
5	ወላጆቹ እኔ ችግር እንኳ እንዳጋጠመኝ ቢያውቁም ምክንያቱን አውቀው ሊረዱኝ አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3
6	ወላጆቹ እኔ አንድ ነገር እንዲያደርጉልኝ ስጠይቃቸው ሰምተው እንዳልሰሙ ማለፍ ይፈልጋሉ።	1	2	3
7	ወላጆቹ ስለእኔ ደህንነት ብዙም አይጨነቁም።	1	2	3
8	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ ፍቅርም ሆነ ጥላቻ አያሳዩኝም።	1	2	3
9	ወላጆቹ እኔን እንደልጃቸው አያዩኝም።	1	2	3
10	ወላጆቹን እኔ በተደጋጋሚ ከላሳስብኳቸው በስተቀር በራሳቸው አስበው ለእኔ የሚያደርጉልኝ ነገር የለም።	1	2	3
11*	ወላጆቹ እኔን የሚጠቅመኝንና የሚጎዳኝን ነገር ለይተው ሊያስረዱኝ አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3
12	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ ግድ ስለሌላቸው የፈለግሁትን ለማድረግ የእነርሱን ፍቃድ አልጠብቅም።	1	2	3
13	የእኔ ወላጆች የሚያጋጥሙኝ ችግር ሁሉ በራሱ(ሷ) ይወጣው(ትወጣው) የሚሉ ናቸው።	1	2	3
14	ወላጆቹ ከእኔ የሚጠብቁት ነገር የለም።	1	2	3
15*	ወላጆቹ እኔ ከቤት ውጪ ባድርም እንኳ የት ቀረ(ች) ብለው አያስቡም።	1	2	3
16	ወላጆቹ እኔን አላስፈላጊ ቦታ ቢያዩኝም እንኳ ለምን ብለው አይጠይቁኝም።	1	2	3
17*	ወላጆቹ እኔን ይርበዋል(ታል) ወይም ይጠማዋል(ታል) ብለው አይጨነቁም።	1	2	3

Note. ** Items added from the second focus group discussion* Items excluded based on the results of content validity ratio

Appendix B

Questionnaires:

The Selected Items for the Five Parenting Styles Based on the Responses of the Expert Judges and Used for Item Analysis, Exploratory Factor Analysis and Reliability Analysis

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ

የሳይክሎሎጂ ት/ቤት

ለሁለተኛ ደረጃና ለመሰናዶ ተማሪዎች የቀረበ የጽሑፍ መጠይቅ

የዚህ ጽሑፍ መጠይቅ ዋና ዓላማ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነት በልጆቻቸው እይታ ምን እንደሚመስል ለመለካት የሚያስችል መሳሪያ (scale) ለማዘጋጀት ነው። ይህም በዚህ መስክ ምርምር ለሚያደርጉ ምሁራን ጠቀሜታው የጎላ ነው። ስለዚህ አንተ/ቺ የምትሰጣቸው/ጫቸው መልሶች ጥናቱ ያለመለትን ግብ እንዲመታ በጣም ጠቃሚ በመሆናቸው የቀረቡትን ሁሉ ጥያቄዎች በግልጽነትና በታማኝነት የአንተን/ቺን መልስ ይሻሉ፡

ከአንተ/ች የሚገኙ መልሶች የሚያገለግሉት ለዚህ ምርምር ዓላማ ብቻ በመሆኑ አጥኚው በሚስጥርና በታማኝነት ይይዛቸዋል።

በአጠቃላይ ከዚህ በታች የተዘረዘሩትን ነጥቦች ግንዛቤ ውስጥ በማስገባት መጠይቁን እንድትሞላ/ሞይ በእኩልነት እጠይቃለሁ።

ሀ. በመጠይቁ ላይ ስም መጻፍ አያስፈልግም፤

ለ. እያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ መጠይቁን በሚሞላው/ በምትሞላው ተማሪ የግል እይታ የሚወሰን

በመሆኑ ትክክል ወይም ስህተት የሚባል መልስ የለውም፤

ሐ. ለቀረቡት ሁሉም ጥያቄዎች መልስ ሊሰጣቸው ይገባል።

ስለ ትብብርዎ በጣም አመሰግናለሁ!!

መመሪያ 1- ከዚህ ቀጥሎ የአንተን/ቺን አጠቃላይ መረጃ በሚመለከት ጥያቄዎች ቀርቦዋል። ጥያቄዎች በክፍት ቦታ እና በምርጫ መልክ የቀረቡ በመሆኑ ክፍት የሆነውን ቦታ በመሙላት እንዲሁም ምርጫዎችን ደግሞ ቁጥሩን በማክበብ መልስ/ሺ።

1. ፆታ (1) ሴት (2) ወንድ
2. እድሜ _____
3. የክፍል ደረጃ (1) 9ኛ (2) 10ኛ (3) 11ኛ (4) 12ኛ

መመሪያ 2- የወላጅህን/ሽን (አሳዳጊህን /ሽን) የልጅ አስተዳደግ ሁኔታ አሁን በአለሀበት/ሽበት የእድሜ ደረጃ ላይ ሆነህ/ሽ ስታየው/ይው ወላጆችህ/ሽ (አሳዳጊህ/ሽ) አንተን/ቺን ሲያሳድጉ የሚያሳዩት የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት ምን እንደሚመስል ከዚህ በታች ከ1 እስከ 69 የተዘረዘሩትን አረፍተ ነገሮች መሰረት በማድረግ አንተን/ቺን በሚገባ ይገልጻል የምትለውን/ይውን የስምምነት ደረጃ ሀሳብ የያዘውን ቁጥር በማክበብ መልስ/ሺ።

መግለጫ

1. በጣም አልስማማም
2. አልስማማም
3. መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል
4. እስማማለሁ
5. በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ.ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	በጣም አልስማማም	አልስማማም	መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል	እስማማለሁ	በጣም እስማማለሁ
1	ወላጆቼ እኔ ተከፍቼ ማየት አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3	4	5
2	እኔ ወላጆቼን በጣም ስለምፈራ ችግር እንኳ ቢያጋጥመኝ ለመናገር አልደፍርም ።	1	2	3	4	5
3	ወላጆቼ የእኔን የእለት ተዕለት እንቅስቃሴ የመከታተል ፍላጎት የላቸውም።	1	2	3	4	5

4	እኔ ወደ ትምህርት ቤት ካልሆነ በስተቀር ከወላጆቼ ትዕዛዝ ውጪ ከቤት እንድወጣ አይፈቅዱልኝም ::	1	2	3	4	5
5	ወላጆቼ እኔ ያለስራ ነጻ ሁኔ ሊያዩኝ አይፈልጉም ::	1	2	3	4	5
6	ወላጆቼ እኔ ሁሌም ከእነሱ ጎን ባልለይ ደስተኞች ናቸው::	1	2	3	4	5
7	ወላጆቼ የእኔ ጉዳይ ምንም አያሳስባቸውም::	1	2	3	4	5
8	ወላጆቼ የሚሉትን ከመፈጸም ውጪ እኔ ምንም ጥያቄ እንዳለላ አይፈቅዱልኝም ::	1	2	3	4	5
9	ወላጆቼ ከራሳቸው በላይ ለእኔ ይጨነቃሉ::	1	2	3	4	5
10	ወላጆቼ እኔን የት ገባህ(ሽ) የት ወጣህ(ሽ) የሚል ጥያቄ አያነሱብኝም::	1	2	3	4	5
11	ወላጆቼ ከእንግዳ ጋር ከሆኑ እነሱን ማናገር እንደሌለብኝ ይነግሩኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
12	ወላጆቼ በቂ ገንዘብ ባይኖራቸውም እንኳ እኔን ለማስደሰት ተበድረውም ቢሆን የምፈልገውን ያሟሉልኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
13	ወላጆቼ ለእኔ ምንም ነጻነት አይሰጡኝም ::	1	2	3	4	5
14	ወላጆቼ እኔ ጥፋት ባጠፋም እንኳ ለምን የሚል ጥያቄ አያነሱብኝም::	1	2	3	4	5
15	ለእኔ የሚሆኑኝን ጓደኞች የሚመርጡልኝ ወላጆቼ ናቸው::	1	2	3	4	5
16	ወላጆቼ በቤተሰብ ጉዳይ ላይ የእኔም ተሳትፎ መኖር እንዳለበት ይነግሩኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
17	ወላጆቼ እኔን አላስፈላጊ ቦታ ቢያዩኝም እንኳ ለምን ብለው አይጠይቁኝም::	1	2	3	4	5
18	ወላጆቼ እኔ ለማከናወናቸው ነገሮች ሁሉ ምክንያታዊ ሁኔ እንዳሰረዳቸው ይነግሩኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
19	ወላጆቼ ትንሽም ይሁን ትልቅ ጥፋት ሳጠፋ ባይቀጡኝም ጥፋቱን ግን ሳያስረዱኝ አያልፉም::	1	2	3	4	5
20	ወላጆቼ እኔ ለወደፊት ምን መሆን እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
21	ወላጆቼ በቅርብ ከማያውቋቸው ልጆች ጋር ሊያዩኝ እንደማይፈልጉ ይነግሩኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
22	ወላጆቼ በእረፍት ጊዜአቸው ለመዝናናት ወደ ሌላ ቦታ ሲሄዱ እንደሁኔታው እኔንም ይወስዱኛል::	1	2	3	4	5

23	ወላጆቹ እኔ ጥፋተኛ መሆኔን ቢያውቁም ጥፋቴን ይደብቁልኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
24	ወላጆቹ የእኔን መኖር የሚያውቁት በቅርብ ሲያዩኝ ብቻ ነው።	1	2	3	4	5
25	ወላጆቹ እኔን ከቀጡኝ በኋላ ጥፋተኛ እንዳልነበርሁ ቢረዱም ተሳስተናል አይሉም።	1	2	3	4	5
26	ወላጆቹ እኔ ጥፋት ስፈጽም ከመቆጣት ይልቅ ምክንያቱን ተረድተው ይመክሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
27	ወላጆቹ ሌሎች ሰዎች በአሉበት ቦታ እኔ አድማጭ እንጅ ተናጋሪ መሆን እንደሌለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
28	እኔ የወላጆቹን ትዕዛዝ ስፈጽም ያመስግኑኛል ሳጠፋም ይቀጡኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
29	ወላጆቹ እኔ አንድ ነገር እንዳደርግ ሲያዘዙኝ ቁጣ በተሞላበት መንገድ ነው የሚነግሩኝ።	1	2	3	4	5
30	ወላጆቹ እኔ ችግር እንኳ እንዳጋጠመኝ ቢያውቁም ምክንያቱን አውቀው ሊረዱኝ አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3	4	5
31	ወላጆቹ እኔ አንድ ነገር እንዲያደርጉልኝ ስጠይቃቸው ሰምተው እንዳልሰሙ ማለፍ ይፈልጋሉ።	1	2	3	4	5
32	ወላጆቹ እኔ ነጻ ሁኔ ሐሳቤን እንድናገር ይፈቅዱልኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
33	ወላጆቹ እኔ ማንኛውንም ነገር በኘሮግራም ማከናወን እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
34	ወላጆቹ እኔ እንደፈለግሁት ብሆን ምንም አይናገሩኝም።	1	2	3	4	5
35	ወላጆቹ እኔን ሁሌም እንደህጻን ልጅ ነው የሚንከባከቡኝ።	1	2	3	4	5
36	ወላጆቹ ስለእኔ ደህንነት ብዙም አይጨነቁም።	1	2	3	4	5
37	ወላጆቹ የሚከተሉትን እምነት እኔም መከተል እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
38	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ ፍቅርም ሆነ ጥላቻ አያሳዩኝም።	1	2	3	4	5
39	ወላጆቹ በሚያነሱት ሀሳብ ላይ ለእኔ አሳማኝ ሆኖ ካለገኘሁት ለምን የሚል ጥያቄ እንዳነሳ ይፈቅዱልኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
40	እኔ የሚያጋጥሙኝን ችግሮች ከወላጆቹ ጋር በመወያየት መፍታት እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
41	ወላጆቹ እኔ ታላቆችን ማክበርና መታዘዝ እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
42	ወላጆቹ እኔን እንደልጃቸው አያዩኝም።	1	2	3	4	5
43	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ ከቁጣና ከስድብ ውጪ ፍቅር አያሳዩኝም።	1	2	3	4	5

44	ወላጆቹ ጨዋ ልጅ መሆን አንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
45	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ የሚሆኑኝን ነገር የሚገዙልኝ በእኔ ምርጫ ሳይሆን በእነርሱ ምርጫ ነው።	1	2	3	4	5
46	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ አንድ ነገር ለማድረግ ሲፈልጉ በቅድሚያ የእኔን ፍላጎትና ምርጫ ይጠይቁኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
47	ወላጆቹን እኔ በተደጋጋሚ ከላሳስብኳቸው በስተቀር በራሳቸው አስበው ለእኔ የሚያደርጉልኝ ነገር የለም።	1	2	3	4	5
48	ወላጆቹ እኔን ማንም ሰው እንዲናገረኝ አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3	4	5
49	ወላጆቹ ከእኔ የሚጠበቅን ስራ ያለማንም አነሳሽ ራሴ አስቤ መስራት እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
50	ወላጆቹ የሚገጥማቸውን ችግሮች ሁሉ ለእኔ በግልጽ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
51	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ ራሳቸው አስበው የሚያደርጉት ነገር ካልሆነ በስተቀር እኔ ሊደረግልኝ የምፈልገውን ለመጠየቅ ብዙጊዜ እፈራሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
52	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ ግድ ስለሌላቸው የፈለግሁትን ለማድረግ የእነርሱን ፍቃድ አልጠብቅም።	1	2	3	4	5
53	እኔ የሚያጋጥመኝን ችግር ለወላጆቹ መናገር እንዳለብኝና ችግሩም በወላጆቹ ብቻ መፈታት እንዳለበት ይነግሩኛል ።	1	2	3	4	5
54	ወላጆቹ የእኔን መብት ይጠብቁልኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
55	የእኔ ወላጆች የሚያጋጥመኝን ችግር ሁሉ በራሱ(ሷ) ይወጣው(ትወጣው) የሚሉ ናቸው።	1	2	3	4	5
56	ወላጆቹ እኔ አንድ ነገር እንዲደረግልኝ ሰጠይቃቸው የጠየቅሁት ለእኔ በጣም አስፈላጊ ሆኖ ካለገኙት አያደርጉልኝም።	1	2	3	4	5
57	ወላጆቹ እኔ ከንደኞቹ ጋር ስጫዋት ማየት አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3	4	5
58	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ ከፍተኛ እንክብካቤ ያደርጉልኛል ።	1	2	3	4	5
59	ወላጆቹ ከእኔ የሚጠብቁት ነገር የለም።	1	2	3	4	5
60	ወላጆቹ ስለእኔ ጥሩ ተግባር ከሌሎች ሰዎች መስማት ያስደስታቸዋል።	1	2	3	4	5
61	ወላጆቹ እኔን በቅርብ ካላገኙኝ ይረበሻሉ።	1	2	3	4	5
62	ወላጆቹ በአካባቢው ጥሩ አርአያ ናቸው የሚሏቸውን ሰዎች በመጥቀስ እንደነሱ እንድሆን ያበረታቱኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
63	ወላጆቹ እኔን በጣም ያቀብጡኛል።	1	2	3	4	5

64	እኔ ወላጆቼን የሚያስከፋ ንግግር እንኳ ብናገራቸው አይቀየሙኝም።	1	2	3	4	5
65	ወላጆቼ እኔን በትንሽ ነገር ይቆጡኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
66	ወላጆቼ በእኔ መጥፎ ተግባር የእነርሱን ስም ማስጠራት እንደሌለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
67	እኔ ከሌሎች ልጆች ጋር ከተጣለሁ ወላጆቼ የተጣለሁበትን ምክንያት ከማወቅ ይልቅ እኔን በማገዝ ይጣላሉ።	1	2	3	4	5
68	ወላጆቼ እኔ በማነሳው ሐሳብ ላይ ጊዜ ሰጥተው ያዳምጡኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
69	ወላጆቼ ከእንግዳ ጋር ካልሆኑ እኔ መጠየቅ የፈለግሁትን እንድናገር ይፈቅዱልኛል።	1	2	3	4	5

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ

የሳይክሎሎጂ ት/ቤት

ለሁለተኛ ደረጃና ለመሰናዶ ተማሪዎች የቀረበ የጽሑፍ መጠይቅ

የዚህ ጽሑፍ መጠይቅ ዋና ዓላማ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነት በልጆቻቸው እይታ ምን እንደሚመስል ለመለካት የሚያስችል መሳሪያ (scale) ለማዘጋጀት ነው። ይህም በዚህ መስክ ምርምር ለሚያደርጉ ምሁራን ጠቀሜታው የጎላ ነው። ስለዚህ አንተ/ቺ የምትሰጣቸው/ጫቸው መልሶች ጥናቱ ያለመለትን ግብ እንዲመታ በጣም ጠቃሚ በመሆናቸው የቀረቡትን ሁሉ ጥያቄዎች በግልጽነትና በታማኝነት የአንተን/ቺን መልስ ይሻሉ፡

ከአንተ/ች የሚገኙ መልሶች የሚያገለግሉት ለዚህ ምርምር ዓላማ ብቻ በመሆኑ አጥኚው በሚስጥርና በታማኝነት ይይዛቸዋል።

በአጠቃላይ ከዚህ በታች የተዘረዘሩትን ነጥቦች ግንዛቤ ውስጥ በማስገባት መጠይቁን እንድትሞላ/ሞይ በአክብሮት እጠይቃለሁ።

ሀ. በመጠይቁ ላይ ስም መጻፍ አያስፈልግም፤

ለ. እያንዳንዱ ጥያቄ መጠይቁን በሚሞላው/ በምትሞላው ተማሪ የግል እይታ የሚወሰን

በመሆኑ ትክክል ወይም ስህተት የሚባል መልስ የለውም፤

ሐ. ለቀረቡት ሁሉም ጥያቄዎች መልስ ሊሰጣቸው ይገባል።

ስለ ትብብርዎ በጣም አመሰግናለሁ!!

መመሪያ 1- ከዚህ ቀጥሎ የአንተን/ቺን አጠቃላይ መረጃ በሚመለከት ጥያቄዎች ቀርቦዋል። ጥያቄዎች በክፍት ቦታ እና በምርጫ መልክ የቀረቡ በመሆኑ ክፍት የሆነውን ቦታ በመሙላት

እንዲሁም ምርጫዎችን ደግሞ ቁጥሩን በማክበብ መልስ/ሺ.

1. የታ (1) ሴት (2) ወንድ
2. እድሜ _____
3. የክፍል ደረጃ (1) 9ኛ (2) 10ኛ (3) 11ኛ (4) 12ኛ

መመሪያ 2- የወላጅህን/ሽን (አሳዳጊህን /ሽን) የልጅ አስተዳደግ ሁኔታ አሁን በአለህበት/ሽበት

የእድሜ ደረጃ ላይ ሆነህ/ሽ ስታየው/ይው ወላጆችህ/ሽ (አሳዳጊህ/ሽ) አንተን/ቺን ሲያሳድጉ

የሚያሳዩት የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት ምን እንደሚመስል ከዚህ በታች የተዘረዘሩትን አረፍተ

ነገሮች መሰረት በማድረግ አንተን/ቺን በሚገባ ይገልጻል የምትለውን/ ይውን የስምምነት ደረጃ

ሀሳብ የያዘውን ቁጥር በማክበብ መልስ/ሽ።

መግለጫ

1. በጣም አልስማማም
2. አልስማማም
3. መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል
4. እስማማለሁ
5. በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ.ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	በጣም አልስማማም	አልስማማም	መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል	እስማማለሁ	በጣም እስማማለሁ
1	ወላጆቼ እኔ ያለስራ ነጻ ሁኔታ ሊያዩኝ አይፈልጉም ።	1	2	3	4	5
2	ወላጆቼ የሚሉትን ከመፈጸም ውጪ እኔ ምንም ጥያቄ እንዳይሰጡ አይፈቅዱልኝም ።	1	2	3	4	5
3	ወላጆቼ ከራሳቸው በላይ ለእኔ ይጨነቃሉ።	1	2	3	4	5
4	ወላጆቼ ለእኔ ምንም ነጻነት አይሰጡኝም ።	1	2	3	4	5
5	ወላጆቼ እኔ ጥፋት ባጠፋም እንኳ ለምን የሚል ጥያቄ አያነሱብኝም።	1	2	3	4	5

6	ለእኔ የሚሆኑኝን ጓደኞች የሚመርጡልኝ ወላጆቼ ናቸው።	1	2	3	4	5
7	ወላጆቼ እኔ ለማከናወናቸው ነገሮች ሁሉ ምክንያታዊ ሁኔ እንዳስረዳቸው ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
8	ወላጆቼ እኔ ለወደፊት ምን መሆን እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
9	ወላጆቼ እኔ ጥፋተኛ መሆኔን ቢያውቁም ጥፋቴን ይደብቁልኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
10	ወላጆቼ እኔ ጥፋት ስፈጽም ከመቆጣት ይልቅ ምክንያቱን ተረድተው ይመክሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
11	እኔ የወላጆቼን ትዕዛዝ ስፈጽም ያመሰግኑኛል ሳጠፋም ይቀጡኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
12	ወላጆቼ እኔ አንድ ነገር እንዳደርግ ሲያገዙኝ ቁጣ በተሞላበት መንገድ ነው የሚነግሩኝ።	1	2	3	4	5
13	ወላጆቼ እኔ ማነኛውንም ነገር በኛሮግራም ማከናወን እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
14	ወላጆቼ እኔን ሁሌም እንደህጻን ልጅ ነው የሚንከባከቡኝ።	1	2	3	4	5
15	ወላጆቼ የሚከተሉትን እምነት እኔም መከተል እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
16	እኔ የሚያጋጥሙኝን ችግሮች ከወላጆቼ ጋር በመወያየት መፍታት እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
17	ወላጆቼ ጨዋ ልጅ መሆን አንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
18	ወላጆቼ ለእኔ አንድ ነገር ለማድረግ ሲፈልጉ በቅድሚያ የእኔን ፍላጎትና ምርጫ ይጠይቁኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
19	ወላጆቼ እኔን ማንም ሰው እንዲናገረኝ አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3	4	5
20	ወላጆቼ የእኔን መብት ይጠብቁልኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
21	ወላጆቼ እኔ ከጓደኞቼ ጋር ስጫዋት ማየት አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3	4	5
22	ወላጆቼ ለእኔ ከፍተኛ እንክብካቤ ያደርጉልኛል ።	1	2	3	4	5
23	ወላጆቼ ስለእኔ ጥሩ ተግባር ከሌሎች ሰዎች መስማት ያስደስታቸዋል።	1	2	3	4	5
24	ወላጆቼ በአካባቢው ጥሩ አርአያ ናቸው የሚሏቸውን ሰዎች በመጥቀስ እንደነሱ እንድሆን ያበረታቱኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
25	ወላጆቼ በእኔ መጥፎ ተግባር የእነርሱን ስም ማስጠራት እንደሌለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
26	ወላጆቼ እኔ በማንሳው ሐሳብ ላይ ጊዜ ሰጥተው ያዳምጡኛል።	1	2	3	4	5

The English Version of Psychological Wellbeing, Selfesteem and Identity Style Questionnaires

Addis Ababa University

School of Psychology

Questionnaire to Be Filled By General Secondary and Preparatory School Students

The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain some relevant information about psychological wellbeing, self-esteem and identity style measures. Therefore, the responses obtained from you are very essential to validate these measures.

The study can be successfully accomplished only when you complete all the items honestly and genuinely.

The information and responses obtained from this questionnaire will be used only for this research purpose and your response will be kept confidential.

Do not write your name at any place in the questionnaire.

Thank you very much for your kind cooperation!!

Part I- General Background Information

Direction: Here are some items about your background information. For some of the items, you are required to write the necessary information in the blank space provided. For the items in the form of choices, you are required to indicate your response by encircling the number of your appropriate answer.

1. Sex: (1) Female (2) Male

2. Age _____

3. Grade: (1) 9th (2) 10th (3) 11th (4) 12th

Part II- Psychological Wellbeing Scale

Direction: Please read each of the following statements carefully and for each item think about your psychological wellbeing. And then, encircle one of the seven alternative numbers that best describes how very strongly you agree or disagree with the statement about yourself. The numbers represent: 1 = Very Strongly Disagree, 2 = Strongly Disagree, 3 = Disagree, 4 = Undecided, 5 = Agree, 6 = Strongly Agree, 7 = Very Strongly Agree

No	Statement	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
1	I lead a purposeful and meaningful life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My social relationships are supportive and rewarding.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I am engaged and interested in my daily activities.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	I actively contribute to the happiness and well-being of others.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I am competent and capable in the activities that are important to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	I am a good person and live a good life.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	I am optimistic about my future.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	People respect me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part III- Self-esteem Scale

Direction: Please read each of the following statements carefully and for each item think about your current feelings about yourself. And then, encircle one of the six alternative numbers that best describes how very strongly you agree or disagree with the statement about yourself now. The numbers represent: 1= Very Strongly Disagree, 2= Strongly Disagree, 3 = Disagree, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree, 6 = Very Strongly Agree

No	Statement	Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree
1	On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	At times I think I am pretty darn good.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am able to do things as well as most other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	I feel I do have much to be proud of.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	I really feel useful at times.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I feel that I'm a person of worth, or at least on an equal plane with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I think I have enough respect for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am not a failure.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I take a positive attitude toward myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part IV- Identity Style Scale

Direction: Please read each of the following statements carefully and for each item think about your identity style. And then, encircle one of the five alternative numbers that best describes how strongly you agree or disagree with the statement about yourself. The numbers represent: 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3 = Undecided, 4 = Agree, 5 = Strongly Agree

No	Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Undecided	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	Talking with others helps me explore with personal beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5

2	When facing a life decision, I take into account different points of view before making a choice	1	2	3	4	5
3	When facing a life decision, I try to analyze the situation in order to understand it.	1	2	3	4	5
4	When making important life decisions, I like to think about my options.	1	2	3	4	5
5	I handle problems in my life by actively reflecting on them.	1	2	3	4	5
6	When making important life decisions, I like to have as much information as possible.	1	2	3	4	5
7	It is important for me to obtain and evaluate information from a variety of sources before I make important life decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
8	I automatically adopt and follow the values I was brought up with.	1	2	3	4	5
9	I strive to achieve the goals that my family and friends hold for me.	1	2	3	4	5
10	I never question what I want to do with my life because I tend to follow what important people expect me to do.	1	2	3	4	5
11	I think it is better to adopt firm set of beliefs than to be open-minded.	1	2	3	4	5
12	I think it is better to hold on to fixed values rather than to consider alternative value systems.	1	2	3	4	5
13	I prefer to deal with situations in which I can rely on social norms and standards.	1	2	3	4	5
14	When I make a decision about my future, I automatically follow what close friends or relatives expect from me.	1	2	3	4	5
15	When others say something that challenges my personal values or beliefs, I automatically disregard what they have to say.	1	2	3	4	5
16	I'm not sure where I'm heading in my life: I guess things will work themselves out.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Many times, by not concerning myself with personal problems,	1	2	3	4	5

	they work themselves out.					
18	I am not really thinking about my future right now, it is still a long way off.	1	2	3	4	5
19	When I have to make an important life decision, I try to wait as long as possible in order to see what will happen.	1	2	3	4	5
20	I try not to think about or deal with personal problems as long as I can.	1	2	3	4	5
21	I try to avoid personal situations that require me to think a lot and deal with them on my own.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Sometimes I refuse to believe a problem will happen, and things manage to work themselves out.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Who I am changes from situation to situation.	1	2	3	4	5
24	When personal problems arise, I try to delay acting as long as possible.	1	2	3	4	5

The Amharic Version of Psychological Wellbeing, Selfesteem and Identity Style Questionnaires
for Validation Purpose

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ **የሳይኮሎጂ ት/ቤት**

ለሁለተኛ ደረጃና ለመሰናዶ ተማሪዎች የተዘጋጀ የጽሑፍ መጠይቅ

የዚህ ጽሑፍ መጠይቅ ዓላማ የሰነ-ባህሪያዊ ደህንነት፣ ለራስ የሚሰጥ ግምትና የማንነት ስሜትን ለመለካት የተዘጋጀ መሳሪያዎችን ብቃት ለመለካት የሚያስችል መረጃዎችን ለመስጠት ነው። ስለዚህ አንተ/ች የምትሰጣቸው/ጫቸው መልሶች ጥናቱ ያለመሰሉን ግብ እንዲመታ በጣም ጠቃሚ በመሆናቸው የቀረቡትን ሁሉንም ጥያቄዎች በግልጽነትና በታማኝነት የአንተን/ችን መልስ ይሻሉ።

ከአንተ/ች የሚገኙ መልሶች የሚያገለግሉት ለዚህ ምርምር ዓላማ ብቻ በመሆኑ አጥኚው በሚስጥርና በታማኝነት ይይዛቸዋል።

በማንኛውም የመጠይቁ ገጽ ላይ ስም መጻፍ አያስፈልግም።

ለቅን ትብብርህ/ሽ በቅድሚያ እጅግ በጣም አመሰግናለሁ !!

ክፍል አንድ- አጠቃላይ መረጃ

መመሪያ- ከዚህ ቀጥሎ የአንተን/ችን አጠቃላይ መረጃ በሚመለከት ጥያቄዎች ቀርበዋል። ጥያቄዎች በክፍት ቦታ እና በምርጫ መልክ የቀረቡ በመሆኑ ክፍት የሆኑ ቦታዎችን በመሙላት ምርጫዎችን ደግሞ ቁጥሩን በመክበብ መልስ/ሽ.

1. ፆታ (1) ሴት (2) ወንድ
2. እድሜ _____
3. የተማሪው/ዋ የክፍል ደረጃ (1) 9ኛ (2) 10ኛ (3) 11ኛ (4) 12ኛ

ክፍል ሁለት- የሰነ-ባህሪያዊ ደህንነት ስሜት መለኪያ

መመሪያ- የሚከተሉትን ዐ/ነገሮች በማንበብ ለራስህ/ሽ የምትሰጠውን/ጭውን የሰነ-ባህሪያዊ ደህንነት ስሜት ግንዛቤ ወስጥ በማስገባት ከቀረቡት እያንዳንዱ ሰባት አማራጮች አንተን/ችን በይበልጥ የሚገልጽህን/ሽን የስምምነት ደረጃ ሀሳብ የያዘውን ቁጥር በመክበብ ለእያንዳንዱ ዐ/ነገር መልስ ስጥ/ጩ

መግለጫ

- 1- እጅግ በጣም አልስማማም
- 2- በጣም አልስማማም
- 3- አልስማማም
- 4- መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል
- 5- እስማማለሁ
- 6- በጣም እስማማለሁ
- 7- እጅግ በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ.ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	እጅግ በጣም አልስማማም	በጣም አልስማማም	አልስማማም	መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል	እስማማለሁ	በጣም እስማማለሁ	እጅግ በጣም እስማማለሁ
1	እኔ አላማና ትርጉም ያለዉ ህይዎት እመራለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2	የእኔ ማህበራዊ ግንኙነት የሚደገፍና የሚበረታታ ነው።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	በእኔ የእለት ተእለት ተግባራት በተመስጦና በፍላጎት አከናውናለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	እኔ ለሌሎች ደስታና ደህንነት ተገቢ አስተዋዕኔ አደርጋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	ለራሴ ጠቃሚ የሆኑ ተግባራትን ለማከናወን ብቁና ተወዳዳሪ ነኝ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	እኔ ጥሩ ኑሮ የምኖር ጥሩ ሰው ነኝ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	እኔ ስለራሴ የወደፊት ሁኔታ እይታዬ አዎንታዊ ነው።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	ሰዎች እኔን ያከብሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ክፍል ሦስት- ለራስ የሚሠጥ ግምት ስሜት መለኪያ

መመሪያ- የሚከተሉትን ዐ/ነገሮች በማንበብ አሁን ስለራስዎ/ሽ ያለህን/ሽን የራስ ግምት ስሜት ግንዛቤ ወስጥ በማስገባት ከቀረቡት እያንዳንዱ ሰድስት አማራጮች አንተን/ቺን በይበልጥ የሚገልጽህን/ሽን የስምምነት ደረጃ ሀሳብ የያዘውን ቁጥር በመክበብ ለእያንዳንዱ ዐ/ነገር መልስ ስጥ/ጩ

መግለጫ

- 1- እጅግ በጣም አልስማማም
- 2- በጣም አልስማማም
- 3- አልስማማም
- 4- እስማማለሁ
- 5- በጣም እስማማለሁ
- 6- እጅግ በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ. ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	እጅግ በባም አልሰማም	በባም አልሰማም	አልሰማም	እስማማለሁ	በባም እስማማለሁ	እጅግ በባም እስማማለሁ
1	በአጠቃላይ እኔ በራሴ እኮራለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	አንዳንድ እኔ እንከን የለሽ ሁኔ እንደተፈጠርሁ አስባለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	እኔ በርካታ የሆኑ ጥሩ መገለጫዎች እንዳሉኝ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	እኔ በነገሮችና በበርካታ ሰዎች ላይ ተጽዕኖ ማድረግ አችላለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	እኔ ብዙ የምኮራባቸው ነገሮች እንዳሉኝ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	እኔ በእርግጥ ጠቃሚ እንደሆንሁ አንዳንድ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	እኔ ጠቃሚ ሰው እንደሆንሁ ወይም ቢያንስ ከሌሎች ሰዎች ጋር በአኩል ደረጃ ላይ እንደምገኝ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	እኔ ለራሴ ተገቢ ክብር እንዳለኝ አስባለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	ሙሉ በሙሉ የእኔ ስሜት የሚያደላው ወድቅ እንደሆንሁ ነው።	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	እኔ ለራሴ አዎንታዊ የሆነውን አመለካከት እወስዳለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6

ክፍል አራት- የማንነት ስሜት አይነት መለኪያ

መመሪያ- የሚከተሉትን ዐ/ነገሮች በማንበብ የራስህን/ሽን የማንነት ስሜት አይነት ግንዛቤ ወስጥ በማስገባት ከቀረቡት እያንዳንዱ አምስት አማራጮች አንተን/ቺን በይበልጥ የሚገልጽህን/ሽን የስምምነት ደረጃ ሀሳብ የያዘውን ቁጥር በመክብብ ለእያንዳንዱ ዐ/ነገር መልስ ስጥ/ጩ

መግለጫ

- 1- በጣም አልስማማም
- 2- አልስማማም
- 3- መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል
- 4- እስማማለሁ
- 5- በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ. ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	በጣም አልስማማም	አልስማማም	መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል	እስማማለሁ	በጣም እስማማለሁ
1	ከሌሎች ሰዎች ጋር መነጋገር የራሴን የግል እምነቶች ለመፈተሽ ይረዳኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
2	በህይወቴ ላይ ውሳኔ የሚያሰጥ ጉዳይ ሲያጋጥመኝ ከመወሰኔ በፊት የተለያዩ ሁኔታዎችን ከግምት ውስጥ አስገባለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
3	በህይወቴ ላይ ውሳኔ የሚያሰጥ ጉዳይ ሲያጋጥመኝ ለውሳኔ እንዲረዳኝ ሁኔታዎች ለመረዳት እሞክራለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
4	አስፈላጊ የህይወት ውሳኔዎችን ለመወሰን በአሉኝ አማራጮች ላይ በደንብ ማሰብ እፈልጋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
5	እኔ በህይወቴ የሚያጋጥመኝን ችግሮች የምቋቋመው ችግሮችን በጥንቃቄ በመፈተሽ ነው።	1	2	3	4	5
6	ጠቃሚ የሆኑ የህይወት ውሳኔዎችን ለመወሰን በተቻለ መጠን በቂ መረጃ እንዲኖረኝ እፈልጋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
7	ጠቃሚ የሆኑ የህይወት ውሳኔዎችን ከመወሰኔ በፊት ከተለያዩ ምንጮች ጠቃሚ መረጃ ማግኘትና መፈተሽ ይኖርብኛል ።	1	2	3	4	5
8	እኔ የአደግሁበትን እሴቶች በቀጥታ እቀበላለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
9	የእኔ ቤተሰቦችና ጓደኞቼ የአስቀመጡልኝን ግቦች ለማሳካት እጥራለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
10	እኔ በህይወቴ ምን ማድረግ እንዳለብኝ አልጠራጠርም ምክንያቱም ለእኔ ወሳኝ የሆኑ ሰዎችን ስለመከተል።	1	2	3	4	5
11	እንደ እኔ ሐሳብ ተለያዩ አሰተሳሰቦችን ለመቀበል ከመዘጋጀት ይልቅ የነበሩትን ጥብቅ እምነቶች እንዳሉ መውሰድ እመርጣለሁ ።	1	2	3	4	5

12	እንደ እኔ አስተሳሰብ አማራጭ እሴቶችን ከመውሰድ ይልቅ ቋሚ እሴቶችን አጥብቆ መያዙን እመርጣለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
13	እኔ ሁኔታዎችን ለመፈተሽ የምመርጠው ማህበራዊ ደንቦችንና ወጎችን መሰረት በማድረግ ነው።	1	2	3	4	5
14	ስለ እኔ የወደፊት ሁኔታ ስወስን በቀጥታ የምከተለው የእኔ የቅርብ ጓደኞች ወይም ዘመዶች እኔ እንድሆን የሚጠበቁትን ነው ።	1	2	3	4	5
15	ሌሎች ሰዎች የእኔን የግል እምነት ወይም እሴት የሚፈታትን ነገር ሲሞግቱኝ የሚናገሩትን ነገር አልቀበለውም ።	1	2	3	4	5
16	የእኔ ህይወት ወዴት እንደሚያመራ እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም። ምን አልባትም ነገሮች በራሳቸው ይፈቱት ይሆናል።	1	2	3	4	5
17	ብዙ ጊዜ ራሴን በግል ችግሮች አልጠምድም ችግሮች በራሳቸው ጊዜ ይፈታሉ ።	1	2	3	4	5
18	እኔ ስለወደፊቱ አሁን ላይ ሆኜ እሰብሁ አይደለም ምክንያቱም ገና ብዙ ረጅም መንገድ ስላለ።	1	2	3	4	5
19	እኔ በህይወቴ አስፈላጊ ወሳኔ ማሳለፍ ሲያስፈልገኝ ምን ሊሆን አንደሚችል ለማየት በተቻለ መጠን ረጅም ጊዜ እጠብቃለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
20	በተቻለ መጠን በእኔ የግል ችግሮች ላይ ማሰብም ሆነ መጋፈጥ አልሞክርም ።	1	2	3	4	5
21	እኔ ብዙ እንዳሰብና እንድሰራ የሚደርጉ የግል ጉዳዮች ሲያጋጥሙኝ ለማስወገድ እሞክራለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
22	አንዳንዴ ችግር ይከሰታል ብዬ ለማመን ይከብደኛል ነገሮች በራሳቸው ስለሚፈቱት።	1	2	3	4	5
23	የእኔ ማንነት እንደሁኔታዎች ይቀያየራል ።	1	2	3	4	5
24	የግል ችግሮች በሚከሰቱበት ጊዜ በተቻለ መጠን መፍትሄ ለመስጠት እዘገያለሁ ።	1	2	3	4	5

Parenting Style, Psychological Wellbeing, Selfesteem and Identity Style Questionnaires Used for the Main Study of Study Two

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ የሳይኮሎጂ ት/ቤት

ለሁለተኛ ደረጃና ለመሰናዶ ተማሪዎች የተዘጋጀ የጽሑፍ መጠይቅ

የዚህ ጽሑፍ መጠይቅ ዓላማ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነቶች በልጆች የሰነ-ባህሪያዊ ደህንነት፣ ለራስ የሚሰጡት ግምት እና የማንነት ስሜት ላይ ያላቸውን ተጽእኖዎች ለማጥናት የሚያስችል መረጃዎችን ለመስብሰብ ነው። ስለዚህ አንተ/ቺ የምትሰጣቸው/ጫቸው መልሶች ጥናቱ ያለመለትን ግብ እንዲመታ በጣም ጠቃሚ በመሆናቸው የቀረቡትን ሁሉንም ጥያቄዎች በግልጽነትና በታማኝነት የአንተን/ቺን መልስ ይሻሉ።

ስለአንተ/ቺ የሚገኙ መልሶች የሚያገለግሉት ለዚህ ምርምር ዓላማ ብቻ በመሆኑ አጥኚው በሚስጥርና በታማኝነት ይይዛቸዋል።

በማንኛውም የመጠይቁ ገጽ ላይ ስም መጻፍ አያስፈልግም።

ለቅን ትብብርህ/ሽ በቅድሚያ እጅግ በጣም አመሰግናለሁ !!

ክፍል አንድ - አጠቃላይ መረጃ

መመሪያ- ከዚህ ቀጥሎ የአንተን/ቺን አጠቃላይ መረጃ በሚመለከት ጥያቄዎች ቀርበዋል። ጥያቄዎች በክፍት ቦታ እና በምርጫ መልክ የቀረቡ በመሆኑ ክፍት የሆኑ ቦታዎችን በመሙላት ምርጫዎችን ደግሞ ቁጥሩን በመክበብ መልስ/ሽ.

1. ፆታ (1) ሴት (2) ወንድ
2. እድሜ _____
3. የተማሪው/ዋ የክፍል ደረጃ (1) 9ኛ (2) 10ኛ (3) 11ኛ (4) 12ኛ
4. በአሁኑ ጊዜ ከማን ጋር ትኖራለህ/ሪያለሽ
 - (1) ከእናቴ እና ከአባቴ ጋር
 - (2) ከእናቴ ጋር
 - (3) ከአባቴ ጋር
 - (4) ከአባቴ እና ከእንጅራ እናቴ ጋር
 - (5) ከእናቴ እና ከእንጅራ አባቴ ጋር
 - (6) ከዘመዶቼ ጋር (ለምሳሌ፡- አክስት፣ አጎት፣ አያት...ወዘተ)
 - (7) የስጋ ዝምድና ከሌለው አሳዳጊ ጋር
5. በቤት ውስጥ የሚኖሩ ስንት ወንድምና እህት አሉህ(ሽ)? የወንድም ብዛት _____ የእህት ብዛት _____

ክፍል ሁለት - የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነት መለኪያ

መመሪያ- የወላጅህ/ሽን (አሳዳጊህን /ሽን) የልጅ አስተዳደግ ሁኔታ አሁን በአለህበት/ሽበት የእድሜ ደረጃ ላይ ሆነህ/ሽ ስታየው/ይው ወላጆችህ/ሽ (አሳዳጊህ/ሽ) አንተን/ቺን ሲያሳድጉ የሚያሳዩት የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነት ምን እንደሚመስል ከዚህ በታች የተዘረዘሩትን አረፍተ ነገሮች በማንበብ አንተን/ቺን በሚገባ ይገልጻል የምትለውን/ይውን የስምምነት ደረጃ ሀሳብ የያዘውን ቁጥር በማክበብ መልስ/ሽ።

መግለጫ

- 1- በጣም አልስማማም
- 2- አልስማማም
- 3- መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል
- 4- እስማማለሁ
- 5- በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ. ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	በጣም አልስማማም	አልስማማም	መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል	እስማማለሁ	በጣም እስማማለሁ
1	ወላጆቼ እኔ ያለስራ ነጻ ሁኔ ሊያዩኝ አይፈልጉም ::	1	2	3	4	5
2	ወላጆቼ የሚሉትን ከመፈጸም ውጪ እኔ ምንም ጥያቄ እንዳነሳ አይፈቅዱልኝም ::	1	2	3	4	5
3	ወላጆቼ ከራሳቸው በላይ ለእኔ ይጨነቃሉ::	1	2	3	4	5
4	ወላጆቼ ለእኔ ምንም ነጻነት አይሰጡኝም ::	1	2	3	4	5
5	ወላጆቼ እኔ ጥፋት ባጠፋም እንኳ ለምን የሚል ጥያቄ አያነሱብኝም::	1	2	3	4	5
6	ለእኔ የሚሆኑኝን ጓደኞች የሚመርጡልኝ ወላጆቼ ናቸው::	1	2	3	4	5
7	ወላጆቼ እኔ ለማከናወናቸው ነገሮች ሁሉ ምክንያታዊ ሁኔ እንዳስረዳቸው ይነግሩኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
8	ወላጆቼ እኔ ለወደፊት ምን መሆን እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
9	ወላጆቼ እኔ ጥፋተኛ መሆኔን ቢያውቁም ጥፋቴን ይደብቁልኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
10	ወላጆቼ እኔ ጥፋት ስፈጽም ከመቆጣት ይልቅ ምክንያቱን ተረድተው ይመክሩኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
11	እኔ የወላጆቼን ትዕዛዝ ስፈጽም ያመሰግኑኛል ሳጠፋም ይቀጡኛል::	1	2	3	4	5
12	ወላጆቼ እኔ አንድ ነገር እንዳደርግ ሲያገዙኝ ቁጣ በተሞላበት መንገድ ነው የሚነግሩኝ::	1	2	3	4	5
13	ወላጆቼ እኔ ማነኛውንም ነገር በኘሮግራም ማከናወን እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል::	1	2	3	4	5

14	ወላጆቹ እኔን ሁሌም እንደህጻን ልጅ ነው የሚንከባከቡኝ።	1	2	3	4	5
15	ወላጆቹ የሚከተሉትን እምነት እኔም መከተል እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
16	እኔ የሚያጋጥሙኝን ችግሮች ከወላጆቹ ጋር በመወያየት መፍታት እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
17	ወላጆቹ ጨዋ ልጅ መሆን እንዳለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
18	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ አንድ ነገር ለማድረግ ሲፈልጉ በቅድሚያ የእኔን ፍላጎትና ምርጫ ይጠይቁኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
19	ወላጆቹ እኔን ማንም ሰው እንዲናገረኝ አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3	4	5
20	ወላጆቹ የእኔን መብት ይጠብቁልኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
21	ወላጆቹ እኔ ከጓደኞቼ ጋር ስጫዋት ማየት አይፈልጉም።	1	2	3	4	5
22	ወላጆቹ ለእኔ ከፍተኛ እንክብካቤ ያደርጉልኛል ።	1	2	3	4	5
23	ወላጆቹ ስለእኔ ጥሩ ተግባር ከሌሎች ሰዎች መስማት ያስደስታቸዋል።	1	2	3	4	5
24	ወላጆቹ በአካባቢው ጥሩ አርአያ ናቸው የሚሏቸውን ሰዎች በመጥቀስ እንደነሱ እንድሆን ያበረታቱኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
25	ወላጆቹ በእኔ መጥፎ ተግባር የአነርሱን ስም ማስጠራት እንደሌለብኝ ይነግሩኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
26	ወላጆቹ እኔ በማነሳው ሐሳብ ላይ ጊዜ ሰጥተው ያዳምጡኛል።	1	2	3	4	5

ክፍል ሦስት – የሰነ-ባህሪያዊ ደህንነት ስሜት መለኪያ

መመሪያ- የሚከተሉትን ዐ/ነገሮች በማንበብ ለራስህ/ሽ የምትሰጠውን/ጭውን የሰነ-ባህሪያዊ ደህንነት ስሜት ግንዛቤ ውስጥ በማስገባት ከቀረቡት እያንዳንዱ ሰባት አማራጮች አንተን/ቺን በይበልጥ የሚገልጽህን/ሽን የስምምነት ደረጃ ሀሳብ የያዘውን ቁጥር በመክበብ ለእያንዳንዱ ዐ/ነገር መልስ ስጥ/ጩ

መግለጫ

1. እጅግ በጣም አልስማማም
2. በጣም አልስማማም
3. አልስማማም
4. መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል
5. እስማማለሁ
6. በጣም እስማማለሁ
7. እጅግ በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ.ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	እጅግ በጣም አልሰማማም	በጣም አልሰማማም	አልሰማማም	መውሰን ያስቸግረኛል	እስማማለሁ	በጣም እስማማለሁ	እጅግ በጣም እስማማለሁ
1	እኔ አላማና ትርጉም ያለው ህይወት እመራለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	የእኔ ማህበራዊ ግንኙነቶች የሚደገፍና የሚበረታታ ነው።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	በእኔ የእለት ተእለት ተግባራት ላይ የምጠመደው በፍላጎት ነው።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	እኔ ለሌሎች ደስታና ደህንነት በትጋት አስተዋዕኔ አደርጋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	ለእኔ ጠቃሚ የሆኑ ድርጊቶችን ለማድረግ ተወዳዳሪና ብቁ ነኝ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	እኔ ጥሩ ሰውና ጥሩ ህይወትን የምኖር ነኝ።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	እኔ ስለእኔ የወደፊት ጉዳይ እይታ አዎንታዊ ነው።	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

ክፍል አራት - ለራስ የሚሠጥ ግምት ስሜት መለኪያ

መመሪያ- የሚከተሉትን ዐ/ነገሮች በማንበብ አሁን ስለራስዎ/ሽ ያለህን/ሽን የራስ ግምት ስሜት ግንዛቤ ወስጥ በማስገባት ከቀረቡት እያንዳንዱ ሰድስት አማራጮች አንተን/ቺን በይበልጥ የሚገልጽህን/ሽን የስምምነት ደረጃ ሀሳብ የያዘውን ቁጥር በመክበብ ለእያንዳንዱ ዐ/ነገር መልስ ስጥ/ጩ

መግለጫ

1. እጅግ በጣም አልሰማማም
2. በጣም አልሰማማም
3. አልሰማማም
4. እስማማለሁ
5. በጣም እስማማለሁ
6. እጅግ በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ. ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	እጅግ በጣም አልስማማም	በጣም አልስማማም	አልስማማም	እስማማለሁ	በጣም እስማማለሁ	እጅግ በጣም እስማማለሁ
1	እኔ በአጠቃላይ በራሴ እኮራለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	አንዳንዴ እኔ ጥሩ ሁኔ እንደተፈጠርሁ አስባለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	በርካታ የሆኑ ጥሩ አይነቶች እንዳሉኝ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	እኔ አንደኛው ሰው ነገሮችን ማድረግ እችላለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	እኔ ብዙ የምኮራባቸው ነገሮች እንዳሉኝ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	እኔ በእውነት ጠቃሚ እንደሆንሁ አንዳንዴ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	እኔ ጠቃሚ ሰው እንደሆንሁ ወይም ቢያንስ ከሌሎች ሰዎች ጋር በአኩል ደረጃ ላይ እንደምገኝ ይሰማኛል።	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	እኔ ለራሴ በቂ ክብር እንዳለኝ አስባለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	እኔ ስለራሴ አዎንታዊ የሆነውን አመለካከት እወስዳለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5	6

ክፍል አምስት – የማንነት ስሜት አይነት መለኪያ

መመሪያ- የሚከተሉትን ዐ/ነገሮች በማንበብ የራስህን/ሽን የማንነት ስሜት አይነት ግንዛቤ ወስጥ በማስገባት ከቀረቡት እያንዳንዱ አምስት አማራጮች አንተን/ቺን በይበልጥ የሚገልጽህን/ሽን የስምምነት ደረጃ ሀሳብ የያዘውን ቁጥር በመክበብ ለእያንዳንዱ ዐ/ነገር መልስ ስጥ/ጩ

መግለጫ

1. በጣም አልስማማም
2. አልስማማም
3. መወሰን ያስቸግረኛል
4. እስማማለሁ
5. በጣም እስማማለሁ

ተ.ቁ	አረፍተ ነገር	በጣም አልሰማማም	አልሰማማም	መወሰን ያስተግረኛል	አስማማለሁ	በጣም አስማማለሁ
1	ከሌሎች ሰዎች ጋር መነጋገር የእኔን የግል እምነቶች ለመፈተሽ ይረዳኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
2	የህይወት ውሳኔ ሲያጋጥመኝ ከውሳኔ በፊት ነገሮችን ከተለያዩ አቅጣጫዎች አንጻር መመልከት ያስፈልገኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
3	የህይወት ውሳኔ ሲያጋጥመኝ ለውሳኔ እንዲረዳኝ ሁኔታውን በዝርዝር ለማየት እሞክራለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
4	ጠቃሚ የሆኑ የህይወት ውሳኔዎች ለመወሰን በሚኖሩኝ አማራጮች ላይ በደንብ ማሰብ እፈልጋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
5	እኔ በህይወቴ የሚያጋጥሙኝን ችግሮች በትክክል በመለየት ችግሮችን እፈታለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
6	ጠቃሚ የሆኑ የህይወት ውሳኔዎችን ለመወሰን በተቻለ መጠን በቂ መረጃ እንዲኖረኝ እፈልጋለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
7	ጠቃሚ የሆኑ የህይወት ውሳኔዎችን ለመወሰን ከውሳኔዎች በፊት ከተለያዩ ምንጮች ጠቃሚ መረጃ ማግኘትና መፈተሽ ያስፈልገኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
8	እኔ የአደግሁበትን እሴቶች በቀጥታ መቀበልና መከተል ይኖብኛል።	1	2	3	4	5
9	የእኔ ቤተሰቦችና ጓደኞቼ አስቀመጡልኝን ግቦች ለማሳካት እጥራለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
10	እኔ በህይወቴ ምን ማድረግ እንዳለብኝ ጥያቄ አላሳገም ምክንያቱም ለእኔ እርዳታ የሆኑ ሰዎች እንድከተል የሚጠብቁትን መከተል ስለአለብኝ ።	1	2	3	4	5
11	እንደ እኔ ሐሳብ እዳዲስ አስተሳሰቦችን ለመቀበል ከመዘጋጀት ይልቅ የነበሩትን ጥብቅ እምነቶች እንዳለ መውሰድ ይመረጣል ።	1	2	3	4	5
12	እንደ እኔ አስተሳሰብ አማራጭ እሴቶችን ከመውሰድ ይልቅ ቋሚ እሴቶችን አጥብቆ መያዙ ይመረጣል።	1	2	3	4	5
13	እኔ የምመርጠው በምከተለው ማህበራዊ ደንቦችና ስነ- ስርዓቶች ላይ ባሉት ሁኔታዎች ላይ መወያየት ነው።	1	2	3	4	5
14	ስለ እኔ የወደፊት ሁኔታ ስወስን በቀጥታ የምከተለው የእኔ የቅርብ	1	2	3	4	5

	ንደኞች ወይም ዘመዶች እኔ እንድሆን የሚጠበቁትን ነው ::					
15	እኔ ህይወት ወደጥንቃቄ እንደሚያመራ እርግጠኛ አይደለሁም። ምን አልባት ነገሮች በራሳቸው ይፈቱት ይሆናል።	1	2	3	4	5
16	ብዙ ጊዜ ትኩረት የማልሰጣቸው የግል ችግሮች በራሳቸው ይፋታሉ።	1	2	3	4	5
17	እኔ ስለወደፊቱ አሁን ላይ ሆኜ በትክክል አላስብም ምክንያቱም ገና ብዙ ረጅም መንገድ ስላለ።	1	2	3	4	5
18	እኔ ስለእኔ የወደፊት ህይወት ላይ ጠቃሚ ውሳኔ መወሰን ካለብኝ በተቻለ መጠን መጭው ምን ሊሆን እንደሚችል በእርጋታ ለማየት እሞክራለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
19	በተቻለ መጠን በእኔ የግል ችግሮች ላይ ማሰብም ሆነ መወያየት አልሞክርም።	1	2	3	4	5
20	እኔ ብዙ እንዳሰብ የሚያስገድዱኝ የግል ጉዳዮችን ለማስወገድ እሞክራለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
21	እንዳንዴ ችግሮች እንደሚከሰቱና ነገሮችም በራሳቸው እንደሚፈቱ ለመቀበል እችላለሁ።	1	2	3	4	5
22	የእኔ ማንነት እንደሁኔታዎች ይቀያየራል።	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix C

Focus Group Discussion Protocol

በአማራ ክልል የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነቶች

ቀን-----

ቦታ-----

የዚህ ወይይት ዋና ዓላማ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነቶች በልጆቻቸው እይታ ምን እንደሚመስል ለመለካት የሚያስችል መሳሪያ (scale) ለማዘጋጀት ነው። ለዚህም ምርምር መነሻ ሀሳብ የሚሆን መረጃ የሚሰበሰበው በሁለተኛ ደረጃና በመሰናዶ ተማሪዎች ላይ ነው። በመሆኑም ከምርምሩ ተሳታፊዎች የሚገኙ መልሶች የሚያገለግሉት ለዚህ ምርምር ዓላማ ብቻ በመሆኑ አጥኚው በሚስጥርና በታማኝነት ይይዛቸዋል።

ወላጅነት ወላጆች ልጆቻቸው ተገቢ ባህርያትን ይዘው እንዲያድጉና ለሚኖሩበት ማህበረሰብም ሆነ ሀገር ጥሩ ዜጋ እንዲሆኑ የማድረግ ሂደት ነው። በዚህ ሂደት የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነት ከማህበረሰብ ማህበረሰብ እንዲሁም ከሀገር ሀገር ልዩነቶች እንዳሉ ጥናቶች ያመለክታሉ።ከዚህ አንጻር

1. በእናንተ እይታ ከራሳችሁ ወላጆችም ሆነ ሌሎች በቅርብ ከምታዩአቸው ወላጆች በመነሳት ወላጆች የሚከተሉት የልጅ አስተዳደግ አይነቶችን ዘርዝሩ።
2. ለተዘረዘሩት እያንዳንዱ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነቶች ትርጉም ስጡ።
3. ለተዘረዘሩት እያንዳንዱ የወላጆች የልጅ አስተዳደግ ዓይነቶች መገለጫ ባህርያት ናቸው የምትሏቸውን ዘርዝሩ።

ለዚህ ወይይት በፈቃደኝነት ተገኝታችሁ ላደረጋችሁት ጉልህ ተሳትፎ ከልብ በጣም አመሰግናለሁ።

Appendix D

Minimum and Maximum Scores and Valid and Missing Values of the Data Used:

Minimum and Maximum Scores, and Valid and Missing Values of the Parenting Style Data Used for Exploratory Factor Analysis (n = 436)

Item	N		Mini	Maxi	Item	N		Mini	Maxi
	Valid	Missing				Valid	Missing		
Item1	436	0	1.00	4.00	Item36	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item2	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item37	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item3	436	0	1.00	4.00	Item38	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item4	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item39	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item5	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item40	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item6	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item41	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item7	436	0	1.00	4.00	Item42	436	0	1.00	3.00
Item8	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item43	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item9	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item44	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item10	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item45	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item11	436	0	1.00	4.00	Item46	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item12	436	0	1.00	3.00	Item47	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item13	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item48	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item14	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item49	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item15	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item50	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item16	436	0	1.00	3.00	Item51	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item17	436	0	1.00	4.00	Item52	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item18	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item53	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item19	436	0	1.00	3.00	Item54	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item20	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item55	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item21	436	0	1.00	3.00	Item56	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item22	436	0	1.00	4.00	Item57	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item23	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item58	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item24	436	0	1.00	4.00	Item59	436	0	1.00	3.00
Item25	436	0	1.00	4.00	Item60	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item26	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item61	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item27	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item62	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item28	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item63	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item29	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item64	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item30	436	0	1.00	4.00	Item65	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item31	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item66	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item32	436	0	1.00	4.00	Item67	436	0	1.00	4.00
Item33	436	0	1.00	5.00	Item68	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item34	436	0	1.00	4.00	Item69	436	0	1.00	5.00
Item35	436	0	1.00	5.00					

Minimum and Maximum Scores, and Valid and Missing Values of the Parenting Style Data Used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (n=314)

Item	N		Minimum	Maximum
	Valid	Missing		
Item 1	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 2	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 3	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 4	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 5	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 6	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 7	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 8	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 9	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 10	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 11	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 12	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 13	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 14	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 15	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 16	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 17	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 18	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 19	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 20	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 21	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 22	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 23	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 24	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 25	314	0	1.00	5.00
Item 26	314	0	1.00	5.00

Minimum and Maximum Scores, and Valid and Missing Values of the Psychological Wellbeing Data Used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (n=274)

Item	N		Minimum	Maximum
	Valid	Missing		
W1	274	0	1.00	7.00
W2	274	0	1.00	7.00
W3	274	0	1.00	7.00
W4	274	0	1.00	7.00
W5	274	0	1.00	7.00
W6	274	0	1.00	7.00
W7	274	0	1.00	7.00
W8	274	0	1.00	3.00

Minimum and Maximum Scores, and Valid and Missing Values of the Self-esteem Data Used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (n = 276)

Item	N		Minimum	Maximum
	Valid	Missing		
SE1	276	0	1.00	6.00
SE2	276	0	1.00	6.00
SE3	276	0	1.00	6.00
SE4	276	0	1.00	6.00
SE5	276	0	1.00	6.00
SE6	276	0	1.00	6.00
SE7	276	0	1.00	6.00
SE8	276	0	1.00	6.00
SE9	276	0	1.00	6.00
SE10	276	0	1.00	6.00

Minimum and Maximum Scores, and Valid and Missing Values of the Identity Style Data Used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (n=273)

Item	N		Minimum	Maximum
	Valid	Missing		
I1	273	0	1.00	5.00
I2	273	0	1.00	5.00
I3	273	0	1.00	5.00
I4	273	0	1.00	5.00
I5	273	0	1.00	5.00
I6	273	0	1.00	5.00
I7	273	0	1.00	5.00
N1	273	0	1.00	5.00
N2	273	0	1.00	5.00
N3	273	0	1.00	5.00
N4	273	0	1.00	5.00
N5	273	0	1.00	5.00
N6	273	0	1.00	5.00
N7	273	0	1.00	5.00
N8	273	0	1.00	5.00
D1	273	0	1.00	5.00
D2	273	0	1.00	5.00
D3	273	0	1.00	5.00
D4	273	0	1.00	5.00
D5	273	0	1.00	5.00
D6	273	0	1.00	5.00
D7	273	0	1.00	5.00
D8	273	0	1.00	5.00
D9	273	0	1.00	5.00

Minimum and Maximum Scores, and Valid and Missing Values of the Data Used for the Main Study of Study Two (n=411)

Item	N		Mini	Maxi	Item	N		Mini	Maxi
	Valid	Missing				Valid	Missing		
A1	411	0	1.00	5.00	INF1	411	0	1.00	5.00
A2	411	0	1.00	5.00	INF2	411	0	1.00	5.00
A3	411	0	1.00	5.00	INF3	411	0	1.00	5.00
A4	411	0	1.00	5.00	INF4	411	0	1.00	5.00
A5	411	0	1.00	5.00	INF5	411	0	1.00	5.00
P1	411	0	1.00	4.00	INF6	411	0	1.00	5.00
P2	411	0	1.00	4.00	INF7	411	0	1.00	5.00
P3	411	0	1.00	5.00	NOR1	411	0	1.00	5.00
P4	411	0	1.00	5.00	NOR2	411	0	1.00	5.00
P5	411	0	1.00	4.00	NOR3	411	0	1.00	5.00
P6	411	0	1.00	4.00	NOR4	411	0	1.00	5.00
D1	411	0	1.00	5.00	NOR5	411	0	1.00	5.00
D2	411	0	1.00	5.00	NOR6	411	0	1.00	5.00
D3	411	0	1.00	5.00	NOR7	411	0	1.00	5.00
D4	411	0	1.00	5.00	DIF1	411	0	1.00	5.00
D5	411	0	1.00	5.00	DIF2	411	0	1.00	5.00
D6	411	0	1.00	5.00	DIF3	411	0	1.00	5.00
D7	411	0	1.00	5.00	DIF4	411	0	1.00	5.00
D8	411	0	1.00	5.00	DIF5	411	0	1.00	5.00
R1	411	0	1.00	5.00	DIF6	411	0	1.00	5.00
R2	411	0	1.00	5.00	DIF7	411	0	1.00	5.00
R3	411	0	1.00	5.00	DIF8	411	0	1.00	5.00
R4	411	0	1.00	5.00	W1	411	0	1.00	7.00
R5	411	0	1.00	5.00	W2	411	0	1.00	7.00
R6	411	0	1.00	5.00	W3	411	0	1.00	7.00
R7	411	0	1.00	5.00	W4	411	0	1.00	7.00
S1	411	0	1.00	6.00	W5	411	0	1.00	7.00
S2	411	0	1.00	6.00	W6	411	0	1.00	7.00
S3	411	0	1.00	6.00	W7	411	0	1.00	7.00
S4	411	0	1.00	6.00					
S5	411	0	1.00	6.00					
S6	411	0	1.00	6.00					
S7	411	0	1.00	6.00					
S8	411	0	1.00	6.00					
S9	411	0	1.00	6.00					

Note: A = autocrat; P = pampering; D = decent; R = reasonable; S = selfesteem; INF = informational; NOR = normative; DIF = diffused; W = psychological wellbeing

Appendix E

The Univariate and Multivariate Distributions of the Data Used:

The Univariate Distribution of the Parenting Style Data Used for Exploratory Factor Analysis

(n=436)

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Item 1	1.9587	1.17175	1.390	1.113
Item 2	1.9174	1.18712	1.394	1.036
Item 3	1.8486	1.03503	1.381	1.555
Item 4	2.0940	1.24582	1.154	.315
Item 5	1.8326	.99744	1.402	1.800
Item 6	2.1743	1.22498	.953	-.108
Item 7	2.7775	1.45224	.266	-1.363
Item 8	2.3532	1.34045	.768	-.655
Item 9	1.8394	1.01569	1.437	1.852
Item 10	2.6950	1.42266	.352	-1.252
Item 11	2.2294	1.29283	.894	-.374
Item 12	2.0298	1.24717	1.222	.458
Item 13	2.6950	1.44670	.328	-1.314
Item 14	1.8234	1.03435	1.398	1.599
Item 15	2.3853	1.30716	.767	-.577
Item 16	2.8394	1.45804	.210	-1.405
Item 17	2.2546	1.26740	.846	-.414
Item 18	2.8394	1.43420	.214	-1.371
Item 19	1.8693	1.00750	1.389	1.796
Item 20	2.7431	1.47876	.316	-1.389
Item 21	1.9381	1.19321	1.376	1.001
Item 22	1.8028	.94326	1.410	2.094
Item 23	2.2592	1.29163	.884	-.377
Item 24	2.3096	1.30534	.870	-.411
Item 25	2.1789	1.18617	1.120	.385
Item 26	2.7179	1.48425	.370	-1.357

The Univariate Distribution of the Parenting Style Data Used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (n=314)

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Item 1	1.9873	1.17746	1.289	.792
Item 2	2.0159	1.18419	1.259	.709
Item 3	1.9013	1.10465	1.485	1.609
Item 4	2.0924	1.20743	1.246	.672
Item 5	2.0064	1.05138	1.365	1.538
Item 6	2.4650	1.37773	.582	-1.008
Item 7	2.4076	1.37970	.649	-.918
Item 8	2.5287	1.36623	.594	-1.006
Item 9	1.9936	1.11336	1.411	1.488
Item 10	2.4554	1.28878	.599	-.803
Item 11	2.5096	1.40795	.592	-1.051
Item 12	2.0860	1.19994	1.162	.462
Item 13	2.3822	1.32817	.705	-.724
Item 14	2.0191	1.09586	1.311	1.248
Item 15	2.5159	1.29686	.593	-.835
Item 16	2.4713	1.32588	.666	-.748
Item 17	2.4299	1.33634	.624	-.903
Item 18	2.3758	1.38875	.709	-.866
Item 19	1.9713	1.11157	1.377	1.315
Item 20	2.4108	1.32318	.677	-.807
Item 21	2.0191	1.20421	1.267	.676
Item 22	2.0064	1.07838	1.418	1.657
Item 23	2.5350	1.35198	.601	-.937
Item 24	2.5127	1.34289	.598	-.927
Item 25	2.4299	1.33395	.736	-.697
Item 26	2.3949	1.34358	.731	-.728

The Univariate Distribution of the Psychological Wellbeing Data Used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (n=274)

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
W1	3.6241	1.66881	.167	-.717
W2	3.8285	1.78202	.034	-.952
W3	3.7971	1.24988	-.217	.247
W4	3.6314	1.66824	.083	-.798
W5	4.2591	1.40460	-.134	.094
W6	4.0073	1.69894	-.273	-.722
W7	3.6752	1.87141	.101	-1.169
W8	1.4051	.49920	.478	-1.554

The Univariate Distribution of the Self-esteem Data Used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (n=276)

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
SE1	3.5362	1.44806	-.123	-.739
SE2	3.3659	1.45232	.183	-.822
SE3	3.3514	1.39468	.010	-.673
SE4	3.2754	1.49554	.217	-.899
SE5	3.4855	1.28621	-.221	-.276
SE6	3.2681	1.45497	-.154	-.827
SE7	3.2645	1.44938	.079	-.732
SE8	3.2862	1.41728	.116	-.772
SE9	1.8478	1.10142	2.049	4.736
SE10	3.3007	1.40394	.048	-.715

The Univariate Distribution of the Identity Style Data Used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis (n=273)

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
I1	2.3223	1.29993	.719	-.684
I2	2.2711	1.20040	.903	-.086
I3	2.3370	1.21721	.735	-.470
I4	2.3407	1.18091	.784	-.312
I5	2.0879	1.33379	.906	-.559
I6	2.4322	1.30750	.741	-.574
I7	2.3919	1.22033	.645	-.608
N1	1.9560	1.07353	1.363	1.433
N2	1.8755	1.02857	1.436	1.706
N3	2.0659	1.10283	1.211	.940
N4	1.7582	1.00741	1.522	1.741
N5	1.8608	1.05494	1.606	2.223
N6	2.0513	1.09692	1.127	.675
N7	1.8608	.98651	1.371	1.701
N8	1.5092	.60703	1.356	4.219
D1	2.0403	1.24935	1.086	-.009
D2	2.1648	1.18443	.947	.011
D3	2.1722	1.27606	1.010	-.117
D4	2.0366	1.18140	1.155	.396
D5	2.2527	1.26543	.896	-.282
D6	2.2711	1.16307	.926	.051
D7	2.0366	1.20299	1.078	.119
D8	2.2308	1.25508	.984	-.088
D9	1.7326	.71610	.990	2.094

The Univariate Distribution of the Data Used for the Main Study of Study Two (n = 411)

Item	Mean	Std. D	Skew	Kurtosis	Item	Mean	Std. D	Skew	Kurtosis
A1	2.6740	1.02209	.150	-.293	INF1	2.3552	1.19770	.786	-.374
A2	2.7080	1.08758	.223	-.500	INF2	2.5450	1.20357	.636	-.570
A3	2.6399	1.11170	.222	-.627	INF3	2.5377	1.19976	.617	-.529
A4	2.5888	1.12131	.225	-.675	INF4	2.6472	1.11732	.465	-.494
A5	2.5864	1.06345	.225	-.536	INF5	2.6886	1.14991	.456	-.555
P1	1.8686	.75370	.634	.183	INF6	2.6813	1.09683	.624	-.316
P2	1.8783	.79926	.453	-.678	INF7	2.6569	1.18386	.548	-.572
P3	2.0170	.94596	.678	.027	NOR1	2.4380	1.26411	.450	-1.045
P4	2.0243	.93412	.421	-.815	NOR2	2.4915	1.33318	.543	-.991
P5	1.9927	.93831	.513	-.781	NOR3	2.4891	1.35314	.510	-1.064
P6	2.0243	.86357	.478	-.491	NOR4	2.5061	1.27139	.487	-.908
D1	2.2822	1.21099	.695	-.477	NOR5	2.6156	1.31711	.356	-1.102
D2	2.3041	1.21473	.713	-.479	NOR6	2.6326	1.21527	.258	-.997
D3	2.2920	1.15501	.691	-.375	NOR7	2.5474	1.23350	.419	-.904
D4	2.3552	1.21989	.639	-.553	DIF1	2.3139	1.22824	.550	-.939
D5	2.3552	1.23776	.665	-.572	DIF2	2.3358	1.26072	.624	-.813
D6	2.3893	1.20741	.612	-.550	DIF3	2.2238	1.22116	.679	-.757
D7	2.3650	1.20290	.595	-.618	DIF4	2.1898	1.13825	.759	-.457
D8	2.3723	1.15404	.616	-.479	DIF5	2.2214	1.21259	.756	-.543
R1	2.2993	1.13931	.716	-.322	DIF6	2.3990	1.25383	.533	-.919
R2	2.2944	1.14272	.775	-.186	DIF7	2.3236	1.22570	.600	-.856
R3	2.3260	1.19175	.591	-.645	DIF8	2.4307	1.19018	.488	-.854
R4	2.3187	1.13615	.514	-.640	W1	2.8589	1.57249	.605	-.447
R5	2.4161	1.09082	.363	-.617	W2	2.9270	1.63484	.579	-.616
R6	2.3723	1.08205	.321	-.698	W3	2.9732	1.61601	.580	-.602
R7	2.4234	1.09136	.412	-.293	W4	2.9075	1.58229	.661	-.334
S1	2.2725	1.21924	.911	.033	W5	2.9659	1.57845	.498	-.641
S2	2.4307	1.29424	.951	.196	W6	3.0633	1.64862	.538	-.590
S3	2.4331	1.32417	.826	-.136	W7	2.9538	1.53823	.474	-.631
S4	2.6472	1.38972	.715	-.390					
S5	2.5012	1.23046	.759	-.096					
S6	2.5572	1.26627	.733	-.119					
S7	2.3455	1.26582	.829	-.325					
S8	2.5718	1.33493	.683	-.407					
S9	2.6180	1.35163	.665	-.456					

Note: A = autocrat; P = pampering; D = decent; R = reasonable; S = selfesteem; INF = informational; NOR = normative; DIF = diffused; W= psychological wellbeing

The Multivariate Distribution of the Data for Study Two Variables (n = 411)

Variables	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Autocrat	13.1971	4.48494	.240	-.743
Pampering	11.8054	3.86934	.415	-.450
Decent	18.7153	7.81520	.593	-.830
Reasonable	16.4501	6.34683	.534	-.775
Self-esteem	22.3771	6.53593	.196	-.701
Informational	18.1119	5.38219	.544	-.063
Normative	17.7202	5.51292	.311	-.563
Diffused	18.4380	4.57863	.445	-.129
Wellbeing	20.6496	7.13725	.023	-.792

Appendix F

Multivariate Outliers

The Output of Extreme Values for Parenting Style, Selfesteem, Identity Style and Psychological Wellbeing Variables

			Case Number	Value
Mahalanobis Distance	Highest	1	384	32.43576
		2	260	30.41493
		3	95	29.13422
		4	49	26.76611
		5	139	26.44791
	Lowest	1	170	2.09508
		2	349	2.31062
		3	366	2.45789
		4	79	2.65566
		5	308	2.71530

The Output of Extreme Values for Parenting Styles by Sex

	Sex			Case Number	Value
Mahalanobis Distance	F	Highest	1	94	10.78295
			2	58	10.51940
			3	260	10.05879
			4	84	9.93020
			5	133	9.19863
	Lowest	1	363	.34939	
		2	73	.47482	
		3	45	.48603	
		4	386	.53669	
		5	15	.62321	
M	Highest	1	298	10.32583	
		2	113	9.67739	
		3	262	9.51912	
		4	293	8.96675	
		5	263	8.02529	
	Lowest	1	361	.51197	
		2	329	.64574	
		3	268	.68311	
		4	147	.87717	
		5	176	.89890	

The Output of Extreme Values for Parenting Styles by Family Structure

	FS			Case Number	Value
Mahalanobis Distance	Intact	Highest	1	94	10.78295
			2	58	10.51940
			3	298	10.32583
			4	260	10.05879
			5	84	9.93020
		Lowest	1	363	.34939
			2	73	.47482
			3	45	.48603
			4	361	.51197
			5	386	.53669
	Non-intact	Highest	1	113	9.67739
			2	32	8.94726
			3	112	8.48604
			4	384	8.15843
			5	175	7.69462
		Lowest	1	147	.87717
			2	170	.90793
			3	267	.96241
			4	40	1.27566
			5	398	1.32550

The Output of Extreme Values for Parenting Styles by Number of Siblings

	NS			Case Number	Value
Mahalanobis Distance	One	Highest	1	112	8.48604
			2	384	8.15843
			3	323	7.72544
			4	95	7.42063
			5	340	7.16865
		Lowest	1	363	.34939
			2	386	.53669
			3	368	1.07315
			4	214	1.24818
			5	40	1.27566
	> One	Highest	1	94	10.78295
			2	58	10.51940
			3	298	10.32583
			4	260	10.05879
			5	84	9.93020
		Lowest	1	73	.47482
			2	45	.48603
			3	361	.51197
			4	15	.62321
			5	329	.64574

Appendix G

The Total Eigenvalues and Percentage of Variance Extracted by Each Component (n=436)

Component	Initial eigenvalues			Extraction sums of squared loadings		
	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	6.141	23.621	23.621	6.141	23.621	23.621
2	5.188	19.954	43.575	5.188	19.954	43.575
3	3.817	14.682	58.256	3.817	14.682	58.256
4	1.479	5.690	63.946	1.479	5.690	63.946
5	.711	2.733	66.680			
6	.671	2.581	69.261			
7	.638	2.455	71.716			
8	.595	2.288	74.004			
9	.578	2.225	76.229			
10	.535	2.056	78.285			
11	.493	1.897	80.182			
12	.478	1.840	82.022			
13	.456	1.754	83.776			
14	.431	1.656	85.432			
15	.415	1.597	87.029			
16	.407	1.564	88.593			
17	.391	1.505	90.098			
18	.358	1.377	91.476			
19	.341	1.312	92.788			
20	.324	1.245	94.033			
21	.306	1.178	95.211			
22	.292	1.121	96.332			
23	.255	.982	97.314			
24	.246	.948	98.261			
25	.235	.903	99.165			
26	.217	.835	100.000			

Appendix H

The Summary of MANOVA Results for the Effects of Adolescents Sex, Family Structure and Number of Siblings on Parenting Styles

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	p	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.984	6255.329	4.000	400.000	.000	.984
	Wilks' Lambda	.016	6255.329	4.000	400.000	.000	.984
	Hotelling's Trace	62.553	6255.329	4.000	400.000	.000	.984
	Roy's Largest Root	62.553	6255.329	4.000	400.000	.000	.984
Sex	Pillai's Trace	.032	3.347	4.000	400.000	.010	.032
	Wilks' Lambda	.968	3.347	4.000	400.000	.010	.032
	Hotelling's Trace	.033	3.347	4.000	400.000	.010	.032
	Roy's Largest Root	.033	3.347	4.000	400.000	.010	.032
FS	Pillai's Trace	.036	3.788	4.000	400.000	.005	.036
	Wilks' Lambda	.964	3.788	4.000	400.000	.005	.036
	Hotelling's Trace	.038	3.788	4.000	400.000	.005	.036
	Roy's Largest Root	.038	3.788	4.000	400.000	.005	.036
NS	Pillai's Trace	.029	2.937	4.000	400.000	.021	.029
	Wilks' Lambda	.971	2.937	4.000	400.000	.021	.029
	Hotelling's Trace	.029	2.937	4.000	400.000	.021	.029
	Roy's Largest Root	.029	2.937	4.000	400.000	.021	.029
Sex * FS	Pillai's Trace	.003	.287	4.000	400.000	.886	.003
	Wilks' Lambda	.997	.287	4.000	400.000	.886	.003
	Hotelling's Trace	.003	.287	4.000	400.000	.886	.003
	Roy's Largest Root	.003	.287	4.000	400.000	.886	.003
Sex * NS	Pillai's Trace	.003	.272	4.000	400.000	.896	.003
	Wilks' Lambda	.997	.272	4.000	400.000	.896	.003
	Hotelling's Trace	.003	.272	4.000	400.000	.896	.003
	Roy's Largest Root	.003	.272	4.000	400.000	.896	.003
FS * NS	Pillai's Trace	.006	.564	4.000	400.000	.689	.006
	Wilks' Lambda	.994	.564	4.000	400.000	.689	.006
	Hotelling's Trace	.006	.564	4.000	400.000	.689	.006
	Roy's Largest Root	.006	.564	4.000	400.000	.689	.006
Sex * FS * NS	Pillai's Trace	.005	.515	4.000	400.000	.725	.005
	Wilks' Lambda	.995	.515	4.000	400.000	.725	.005
	Hotelling's Trace	.005	.515	4.000	400.000	.725	.005
	Roy's Largest Root	.005	.515	4.000	400.000	.725	.005

Note: FS = family structure; NS = number of siblings

Appendix I

The Summary of ANOVA Results for Tests of Between-Subject Effects of Adolescents' Sex Family Structure and Number of Siblings on Parenting Styles

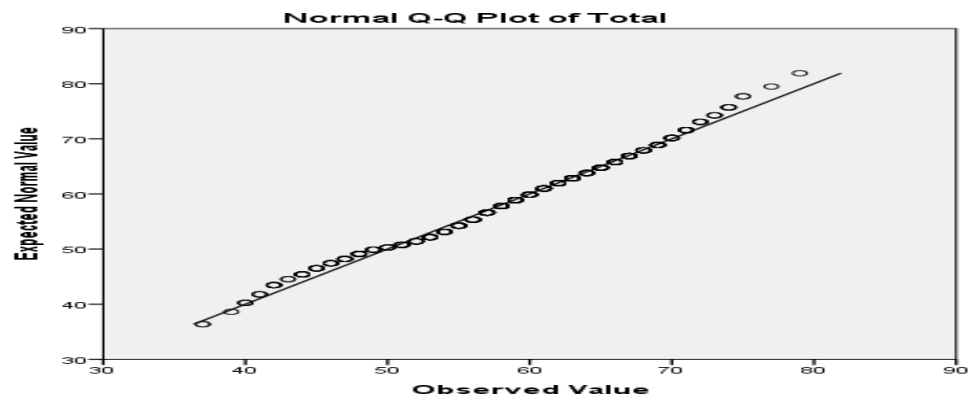
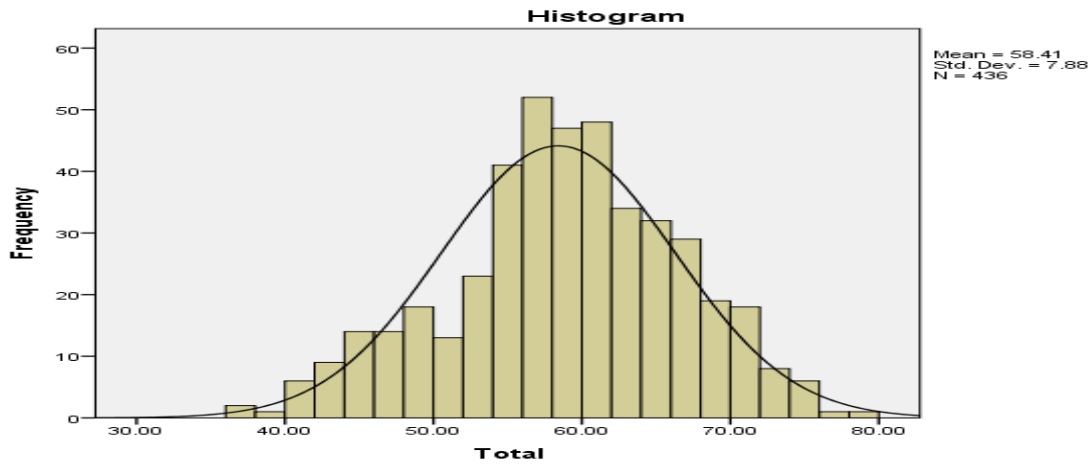
Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Autocrat	549.897 ^a	7	78.557	4.113	.000	.067
	Pampering	325.663 ^b	7	46.523	3.225	.002	.053
	Decent	405.628 ^c	7	57.947	.948	.469	.016
	Reasonable	187.188 ^d	7	26.741	.660	.706	.011
Intercept	Autocrat	51019.390	1	51019.390	2671.228	.000	.869
	Pampering	42371.893	1	42371.893	2937.651	.000	.879
	Decent	103340.304	1	103340.304	1690.454	.000	.807
	Reasonable	75618.002	1	75618.002	1866.306	.000	.822
Sex	Autocrat	170.824	1	170.824	8.944	.003	.022
	Pampering	67.759	1	67.759	4.698	.031	.012
	Decent	57.839	1	57.839	.946	.331	.002
	Reasonable	6.565	1	6.565	.162	.688	.000
FS	Autocrat	150.084	1	150.084	7.858	.005	.019
	Pampering	48.023	1	48.023	3.329	.069	.008
	Decent	214.426	1	214.426	3.508	.062	.009
	Reasonable	23.610	1	23.610	.583	.446	.001
NS	Autocrat	25.552	1	25.552	1.338	.248	.003
	Pampering	162.675	1	162.675	11.278	.001	.027
	Decent	2.463	1	2.463	.040	.841	.000
	Reasonable	57.110	1	57.110	1.410	.236	.003
Sex * FS	Autocrat	12.306	1	12.306	.644	.423	.002
	Pampering	.012	1	.012	.001	.977	.000
	Decent	.008	1	.008	.000	.991	.000
	Reasonable	29.761	1	29.761	.735	.392	.002
Sex * NS	Autocrat	10.441	1	10.441	.547	.460	.001
	Pampering	6.019	1	6.019	.417	.519	.001
	Decent	18.871	1	18.871	.309	.579	.001
	Reasonable	.975	1	.975	.024	.877	.000
FS * NS	Autocrat	30.529	1	30.529	1.598	.207	.004
	Pampering	10.257	1	10.257	.711	.400	.002
	Decent	4.525	1	4.525	.074	.786	.000
	Reasonable	10.062	1	10.062	.248	.619	.001
Sex * FS * NS	Autocrat	17.536	1	17.536	.918	.339	.002
	Pampering	3.618	1	3.618	.251	.617	.001
	Decent	1.475	1	1.475	.024	.877	.000
	Reasonable	.584	1	.584	.014	.905	.000
Error	Autocrat	7697.140	403	19.100			
	Pampering	5812.765	403	14.424			
	Decent	24636.065	403	61.132			
	Reasonable	16328.539	403	40.517			
Total	Autocrat	79828.000	411				
	Pampering	63418.000	411				
	Decent	169000.000	411				
	Reasonable	127735.000	411				
Corrected Total	Autocrat	8247.036	410				
	Pampering	6138.428	410				
	Decent	25041.693	410				
	Reasonable	16515.727	410				

Note: a. $R^2 = .067$ (Adjusted $R^2 = .050$); b. $R^2 = .053$ (Adjusted $R^2 = .037$); c. $R^2 = .016$ (Adjusted $R^2 = -.001$); d. $R^2 = .011$ (Adjusted $R^2 = -.006$)

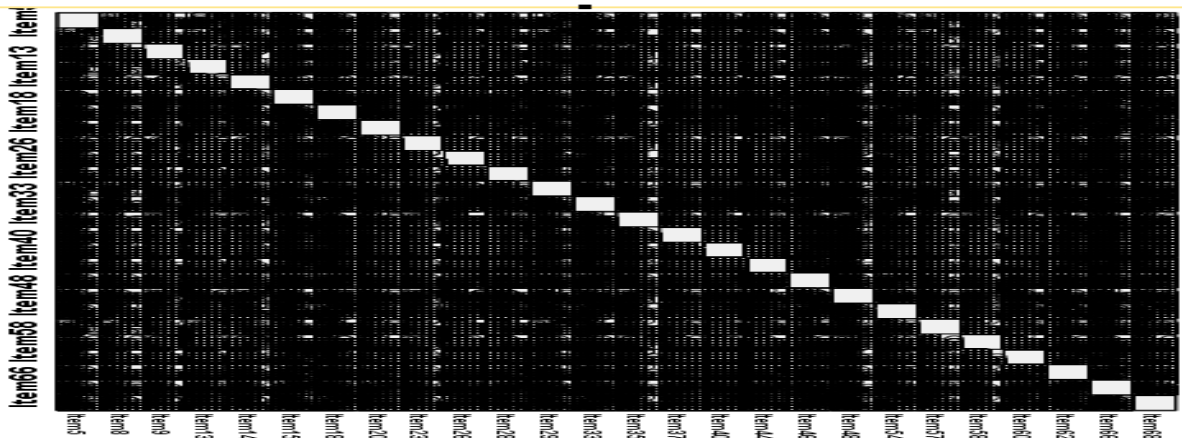
Appendix J

The Graphical Representation of the Data Used:

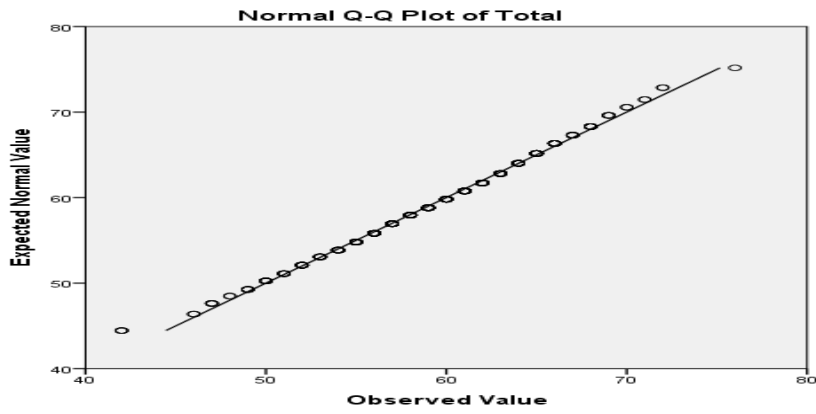
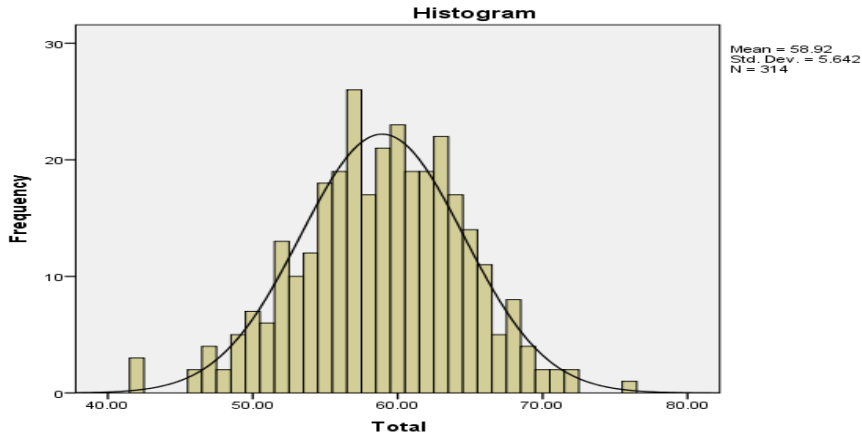
The Graphical Representation of Parenting Style Data Used for the Exploratory Factor Analysis



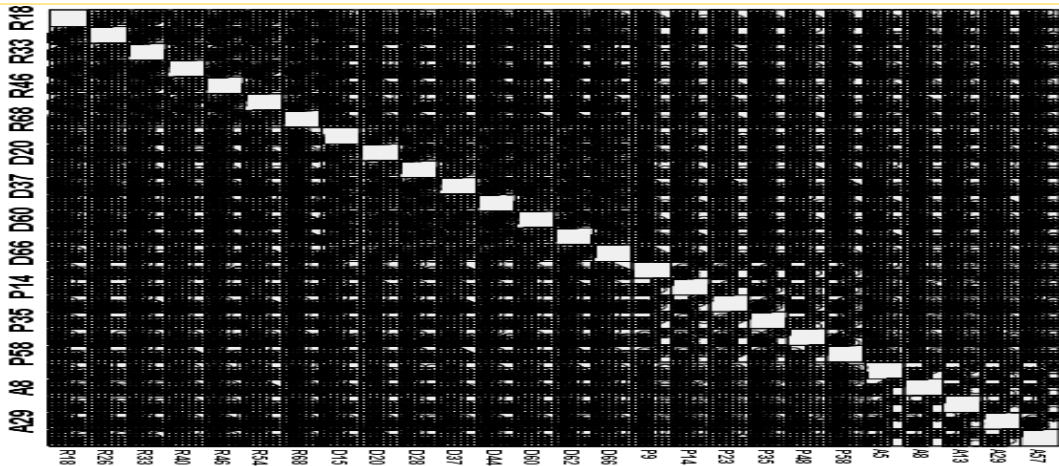
Scatter plot Matrix



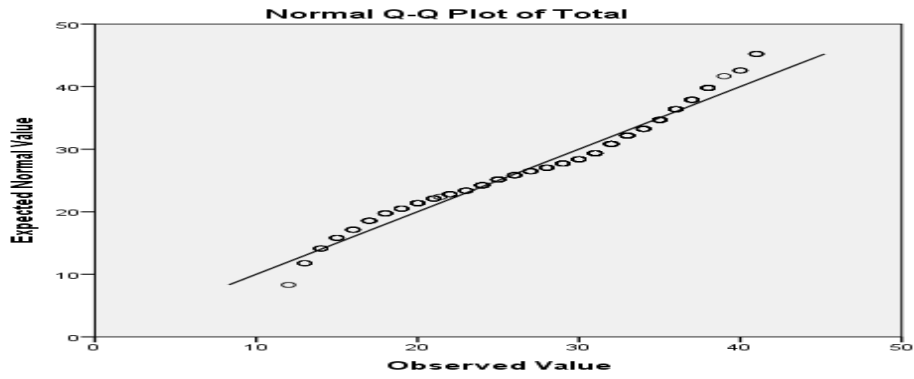
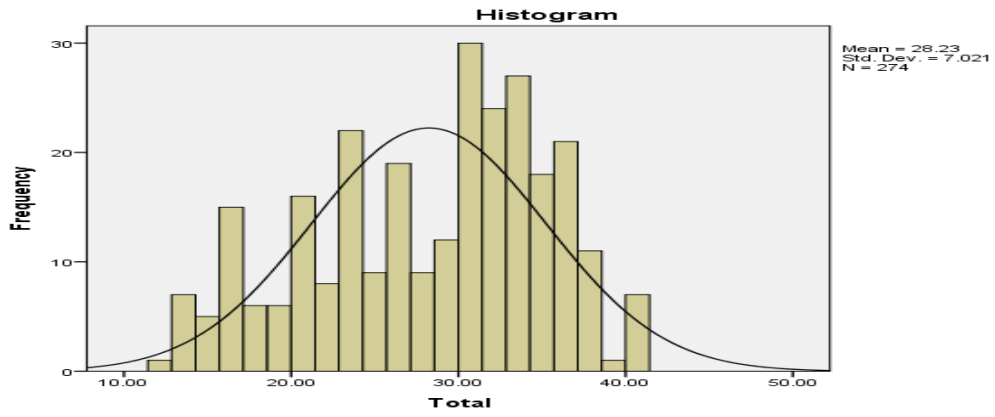
The Graphical Representation of Parenting Style Data Used for the Confirmatory Factor Analysis



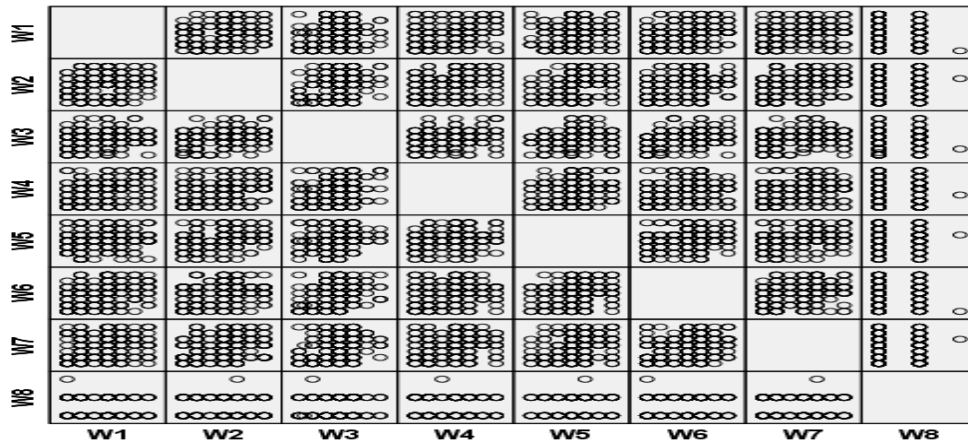
Scatter Plot Matrix



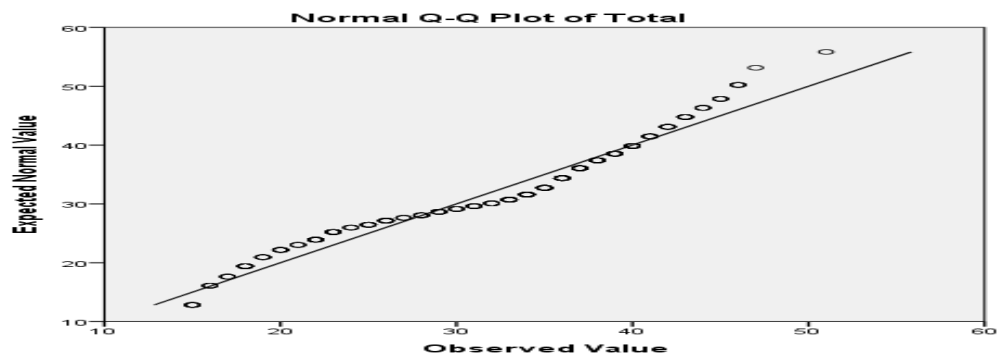
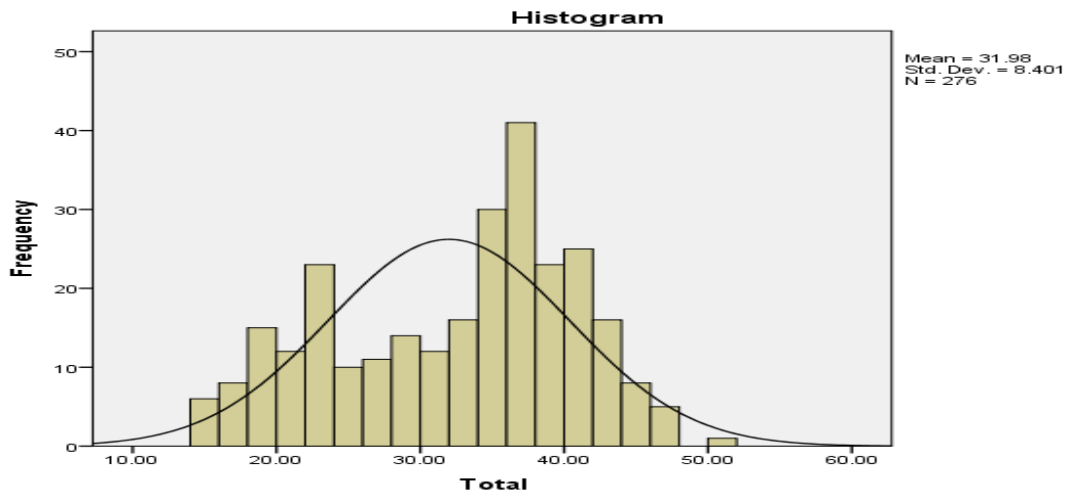
The Graphical Representation of the Psychological Wellbeing Data Used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis



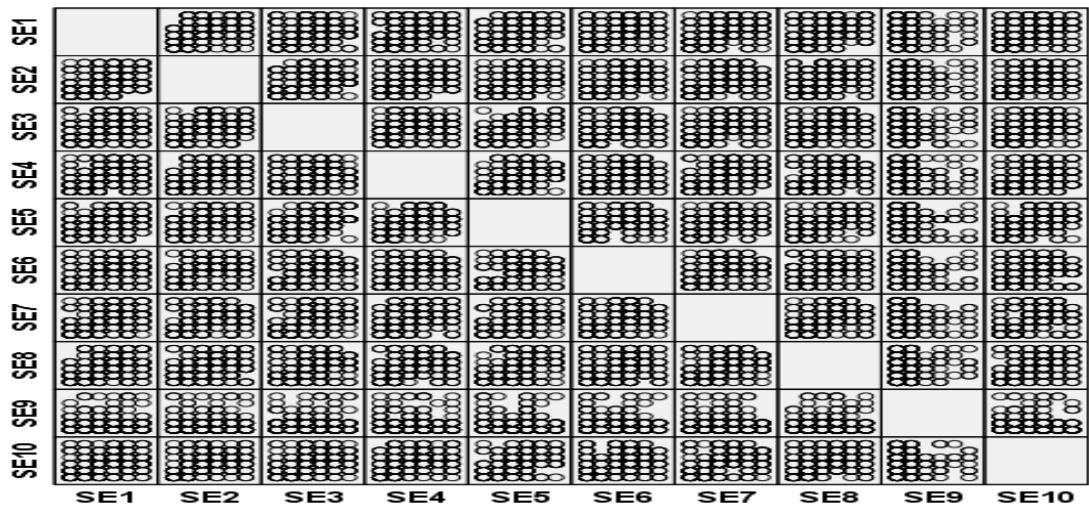
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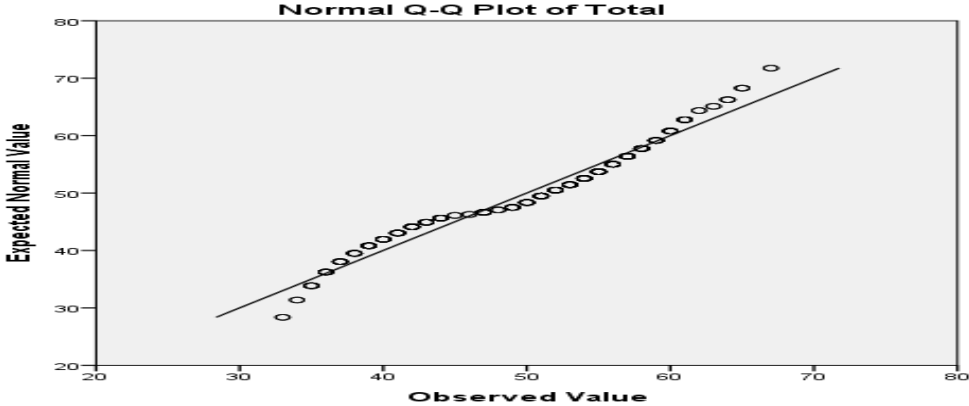
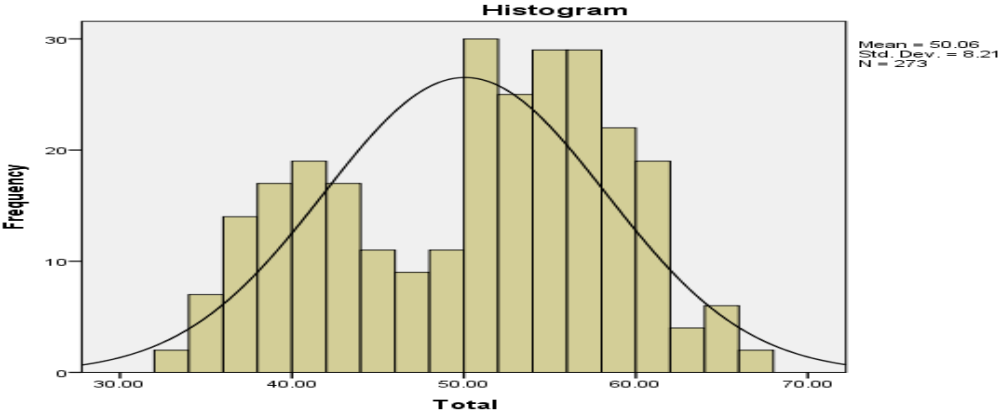
The Graphical Representation of the Self-esteem Data Used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis



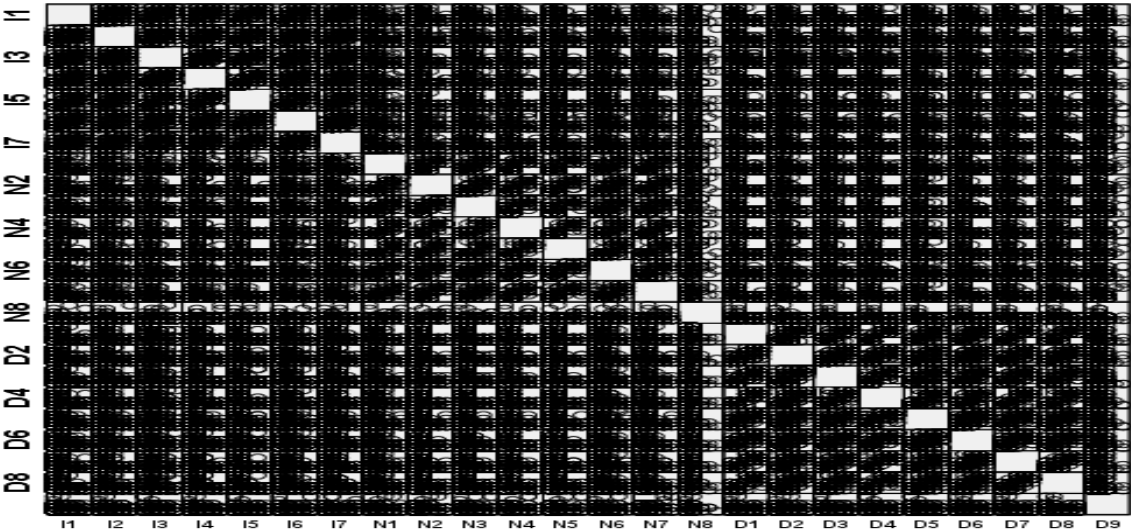
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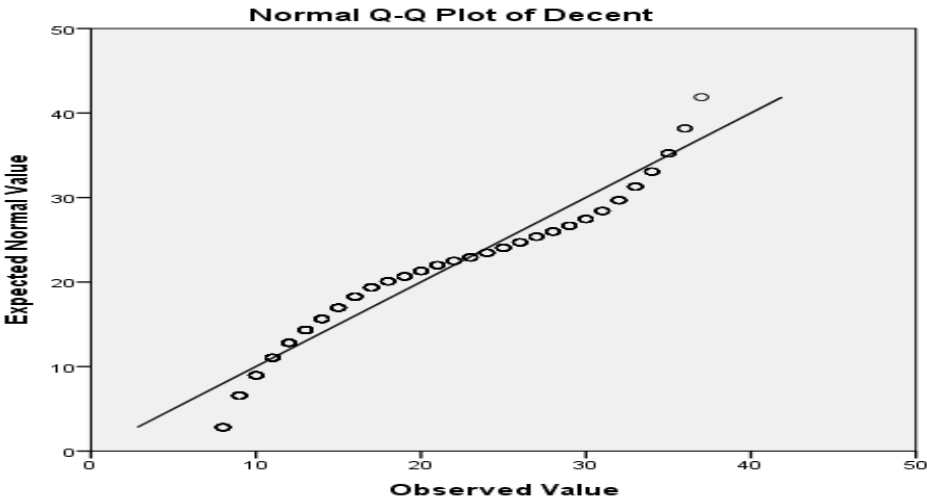
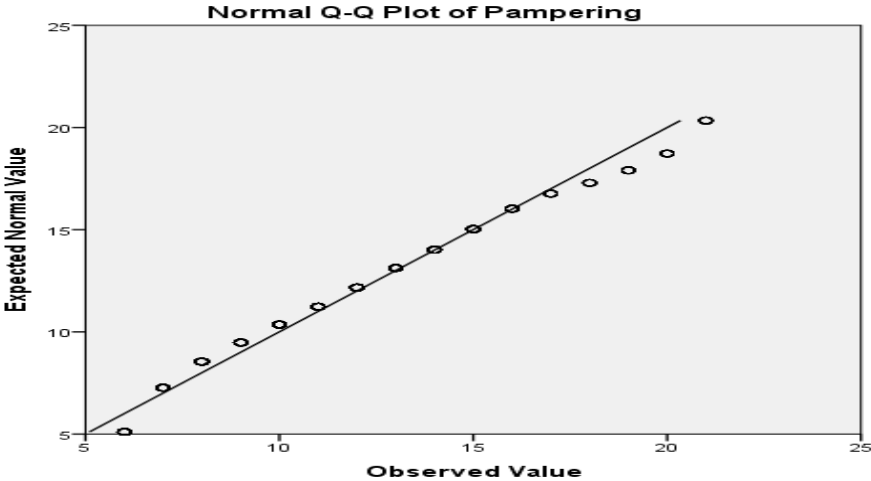
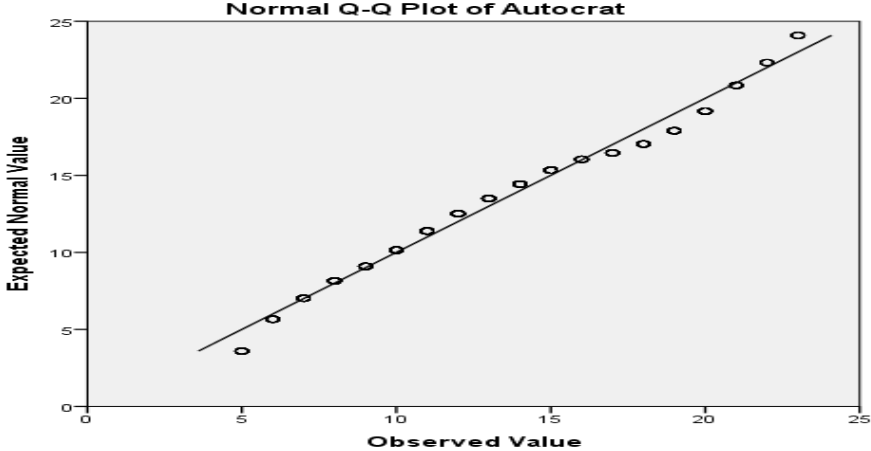
The Graphical Representation of the Identity Style Data Used for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

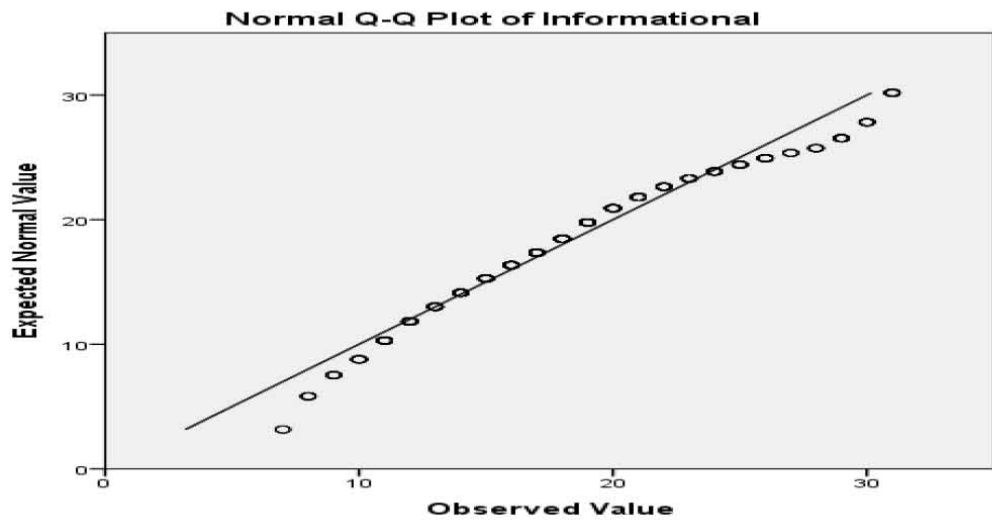
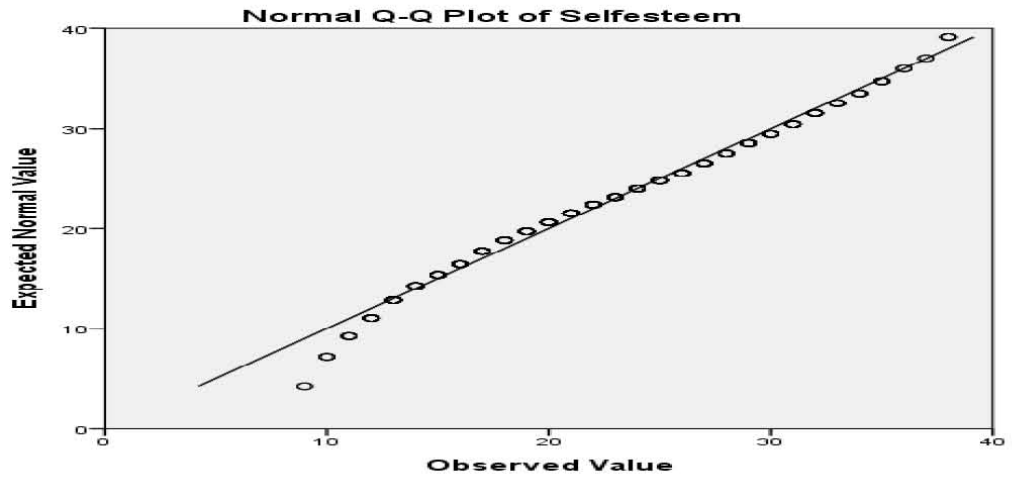
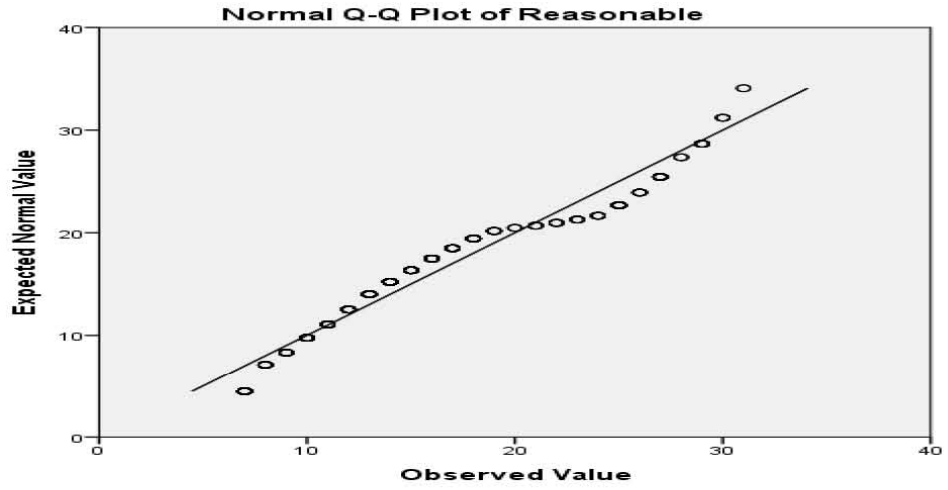


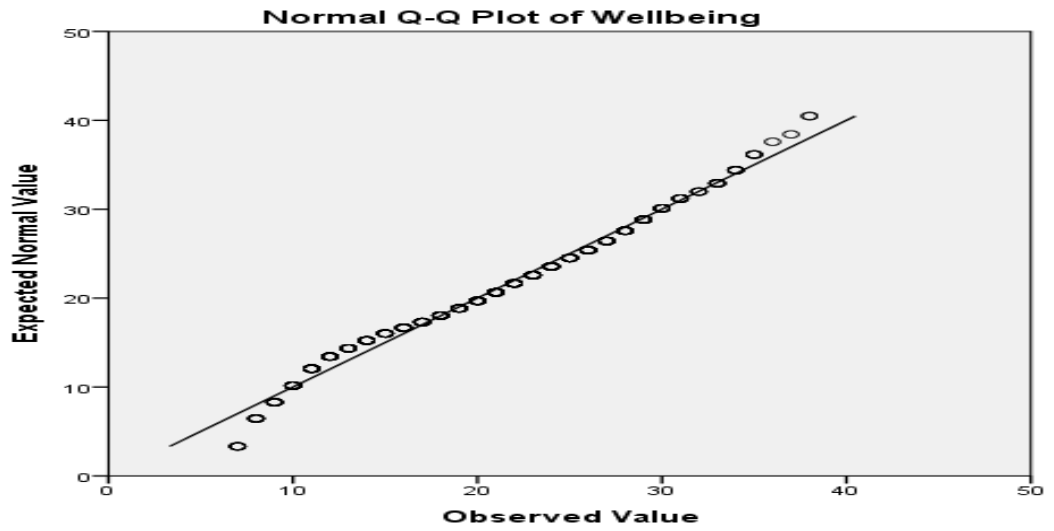
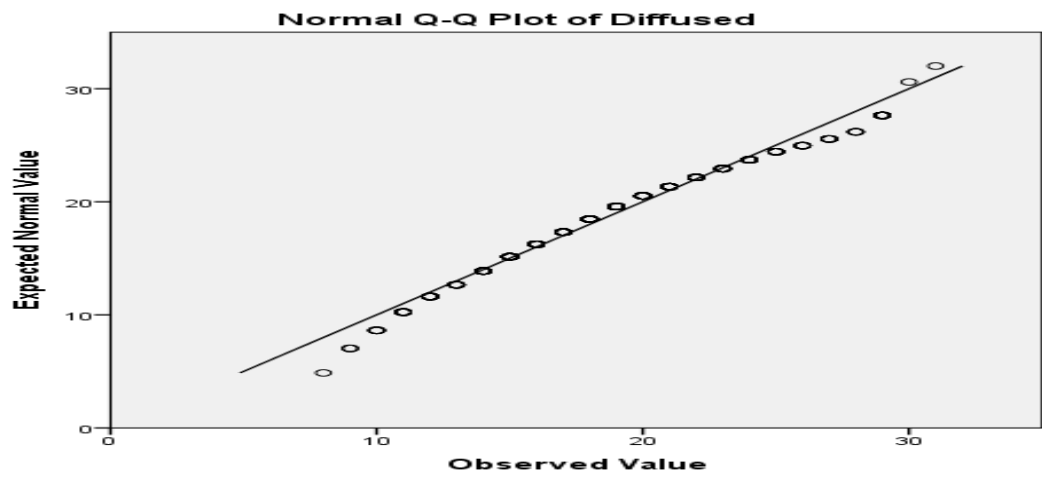
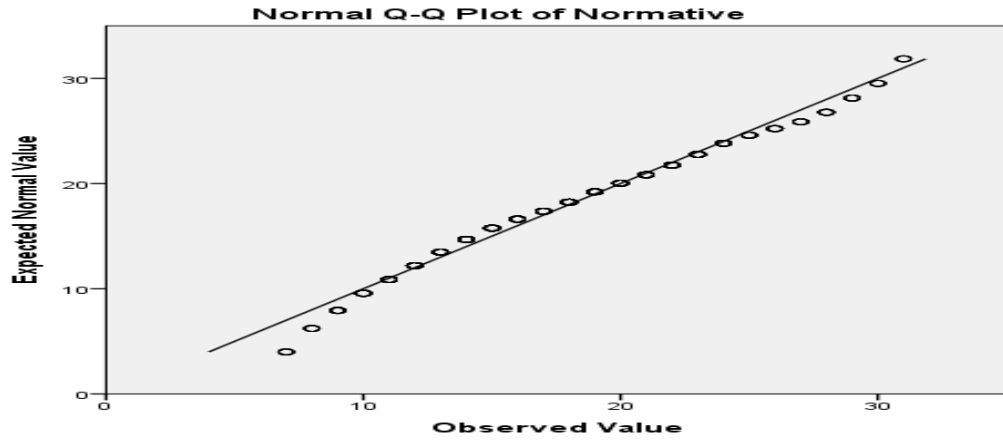
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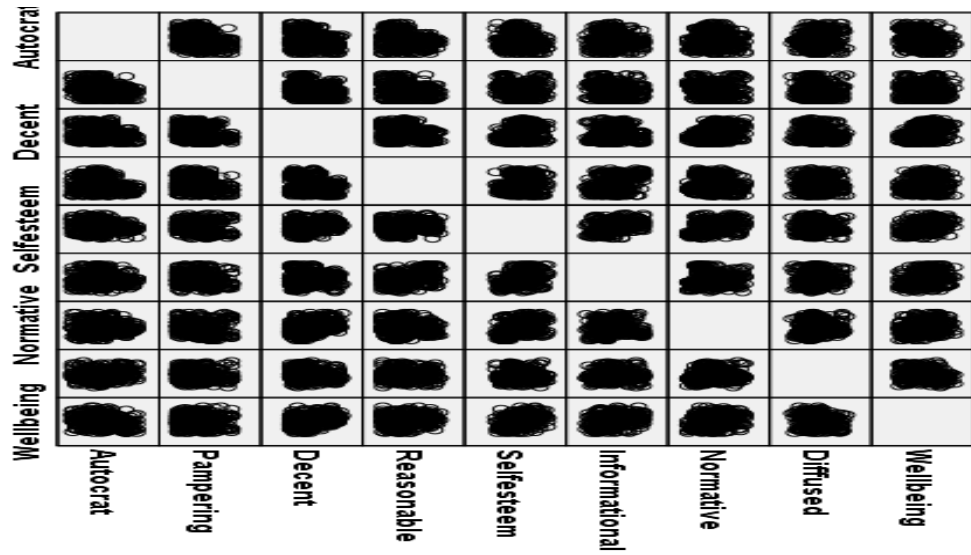
The Graphical Representation of the Data Used for Study Two Variables



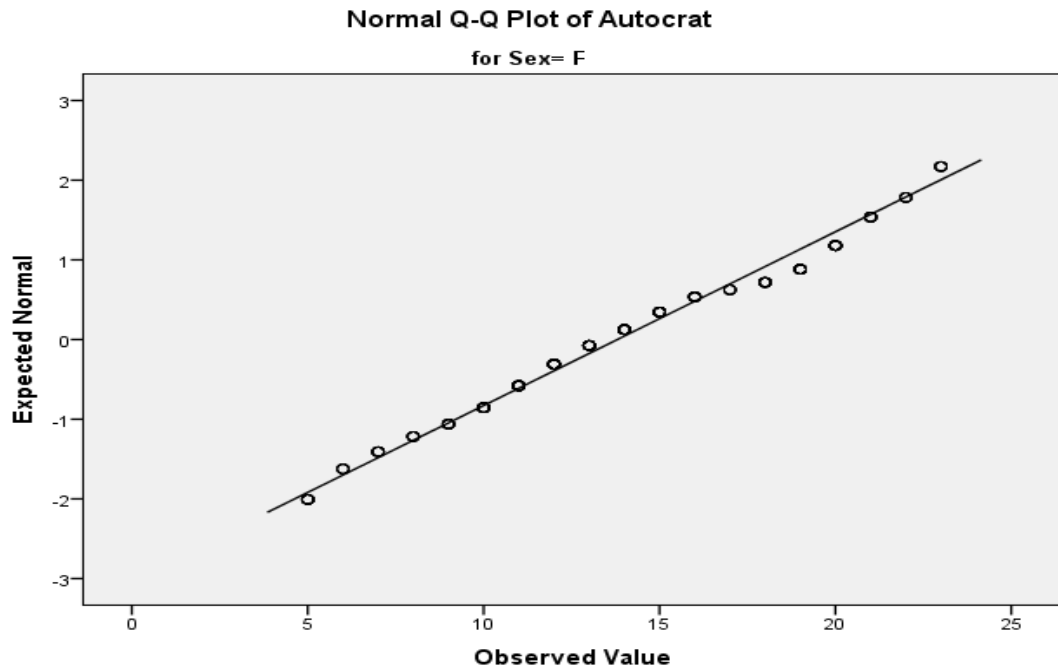




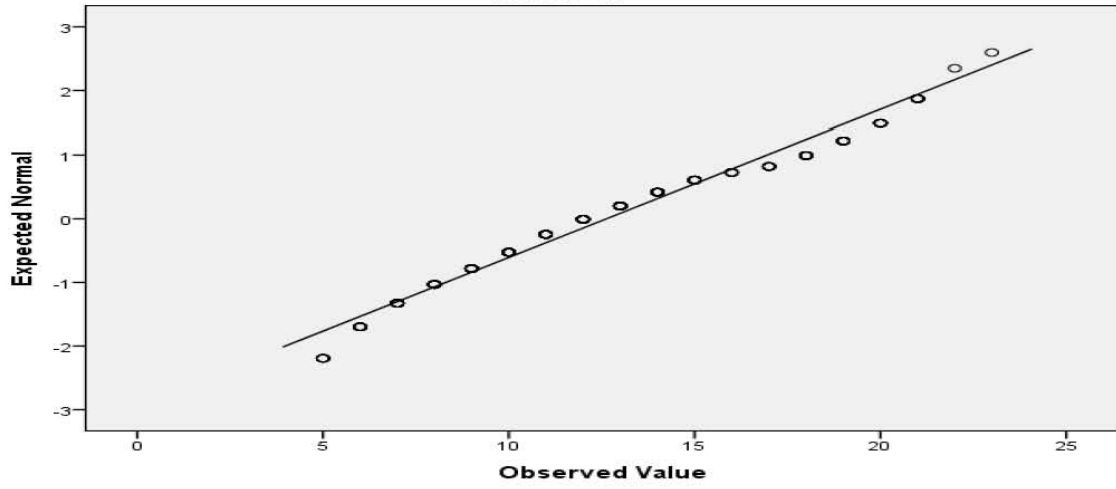
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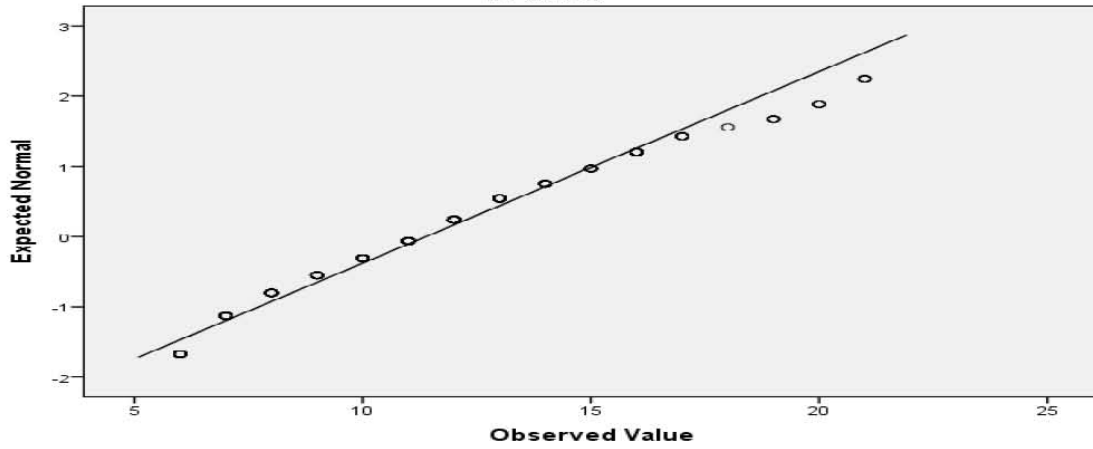
The Graphical Representation of the Parenting Style Data by Sex, Family Structure and Number Of Siblings



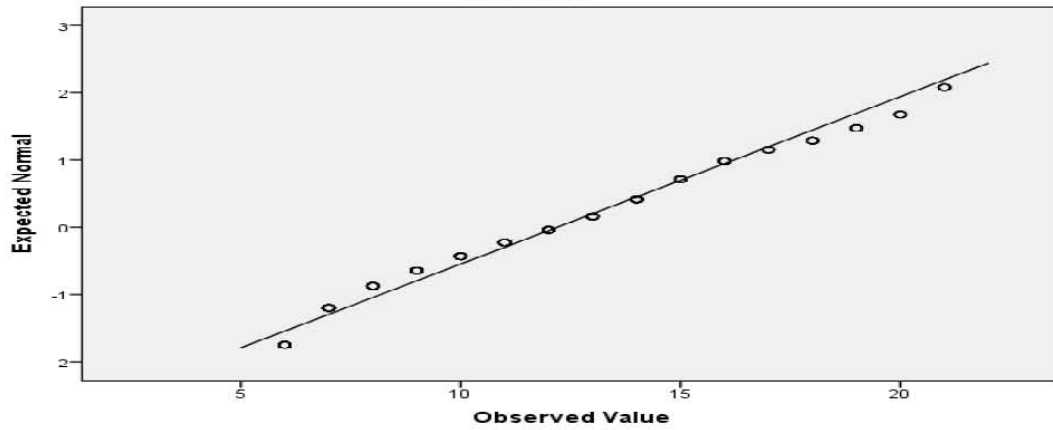
Normal Q-Q Plot of Autocrat
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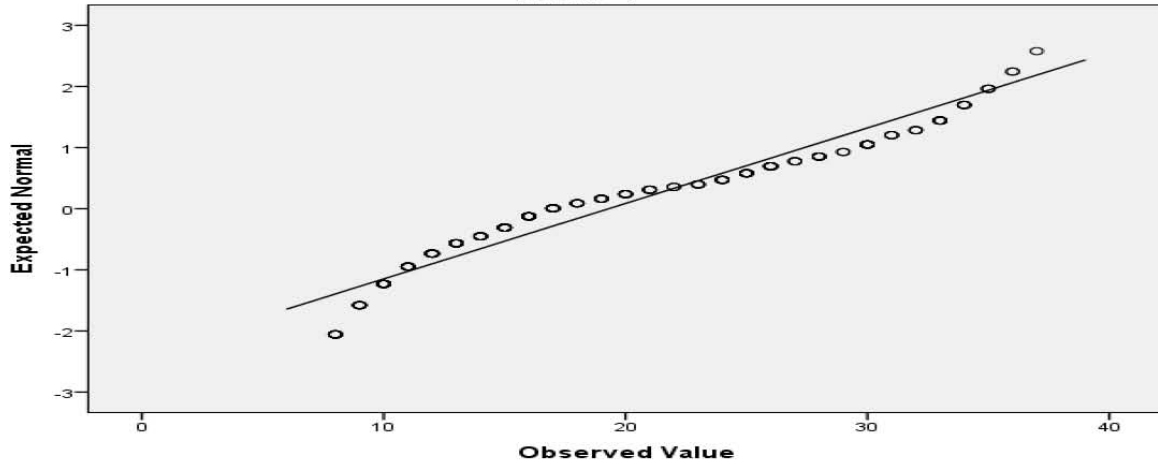
Normal Q-Q Plot of Pampering
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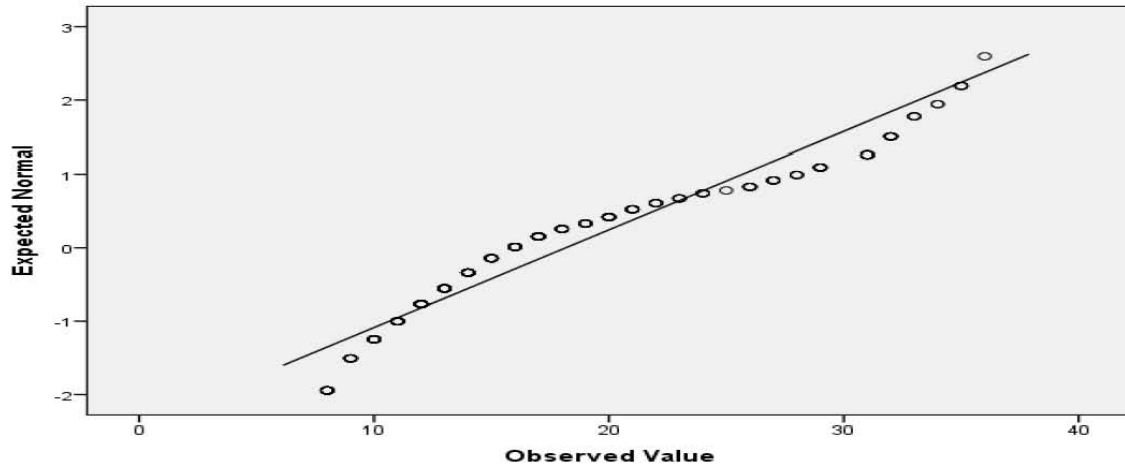
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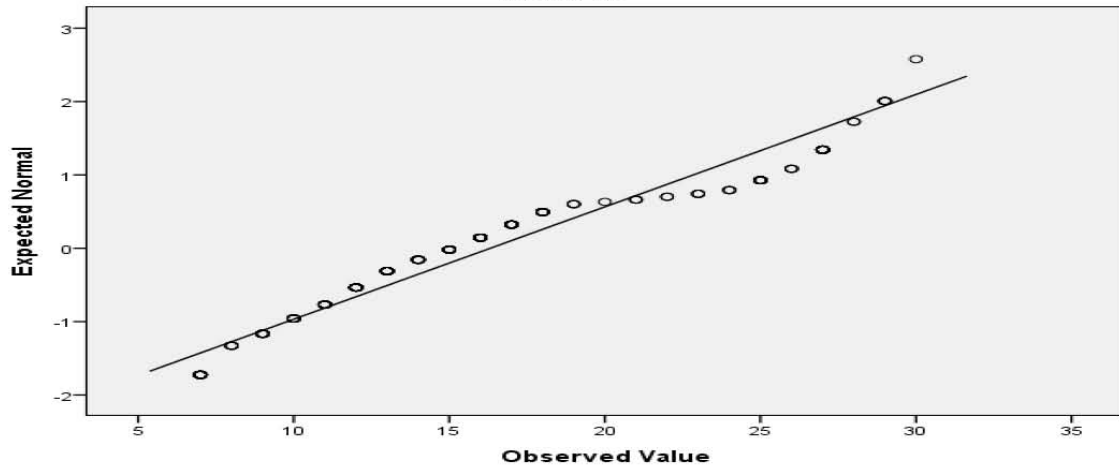
Normal Q-Q Plot of Decent
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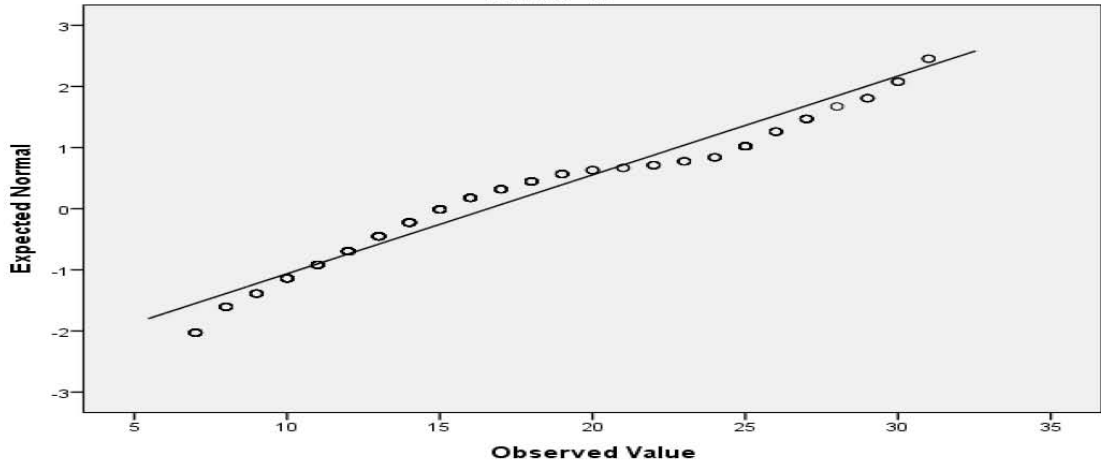
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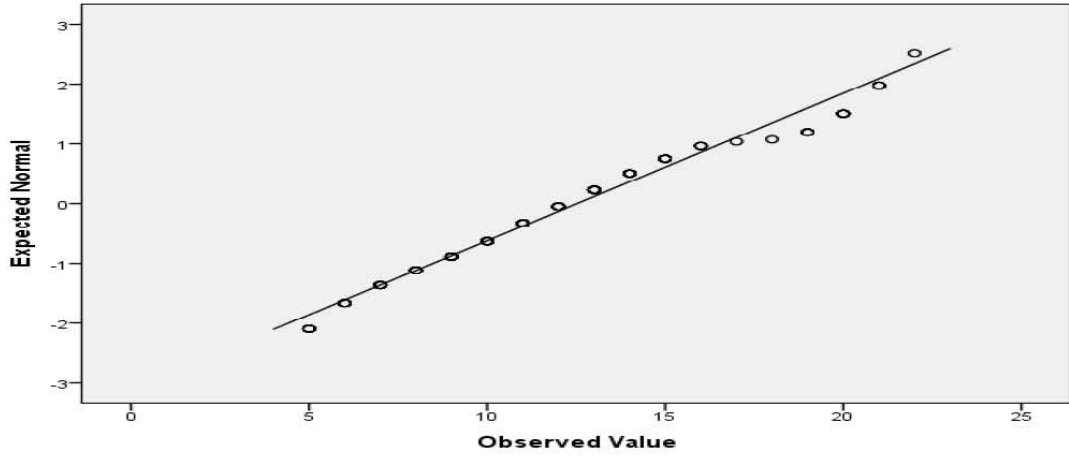
Normal Q-Q Plot of Reasonable
for Sex= F



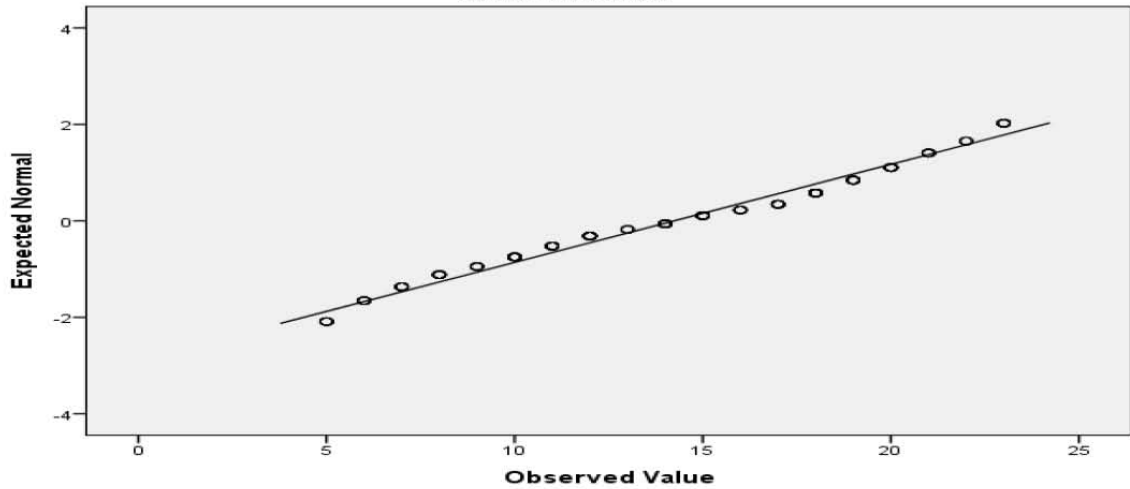
Normal Q-Q Plot of Reasonable
for Sex= M



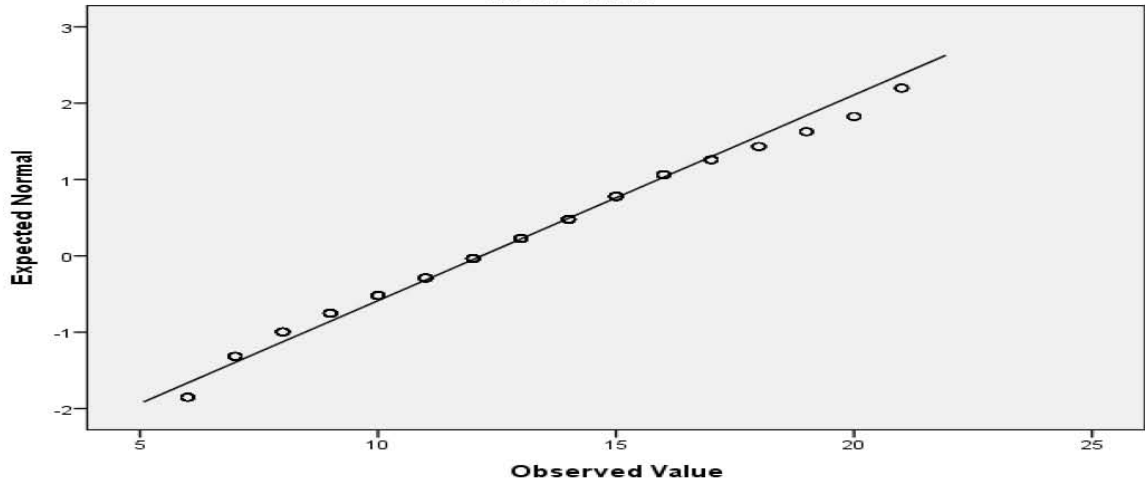
Normal Q-Q Plot of Autocrat
for FS= Intact



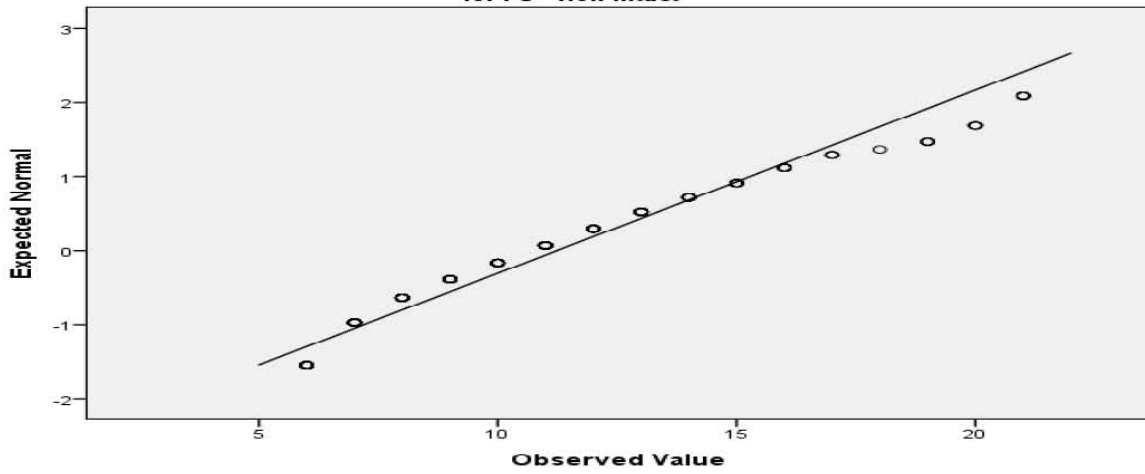
Normal Q-Q Plot of Autocrat
for FS= Non-intact



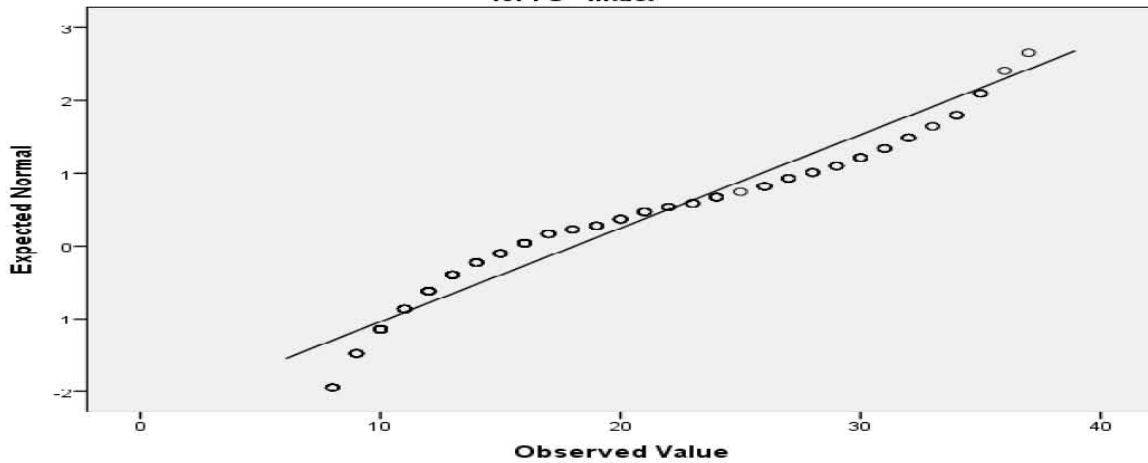
Normal Q-Q Plot of Pampering
for FS= Intact



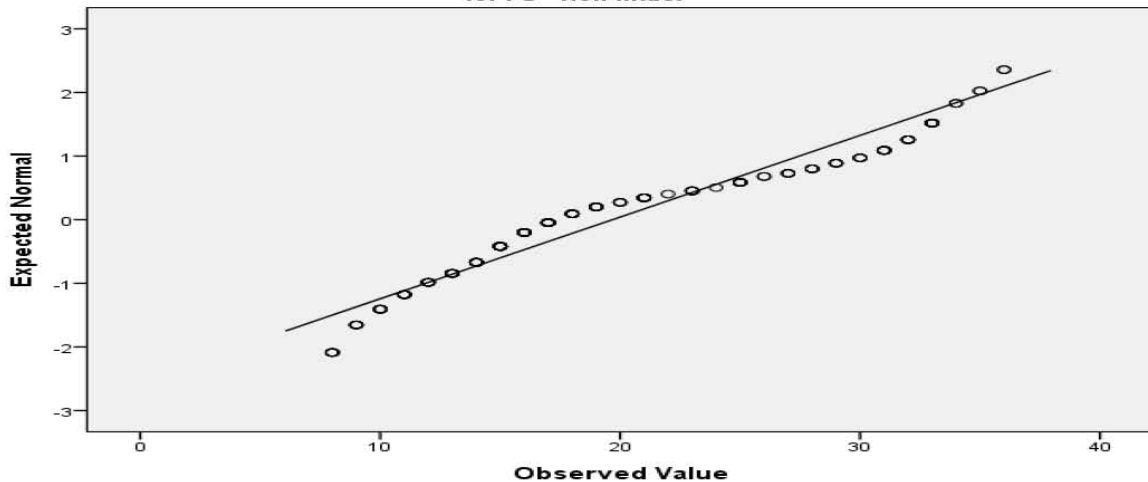
Normal Q-Q Plot of Pampering
for FS= Non-intact



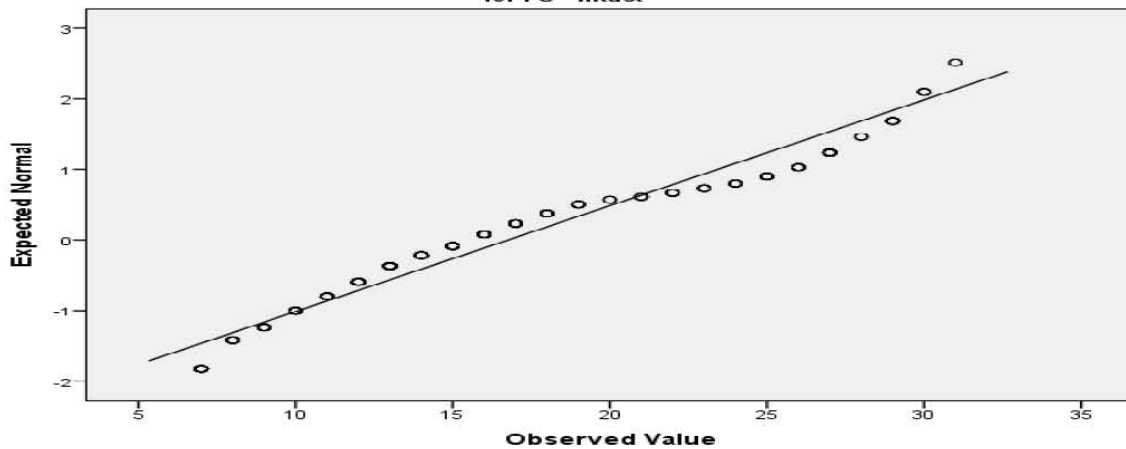
Normal Q-Q Plot of Decent
for FS= Intact



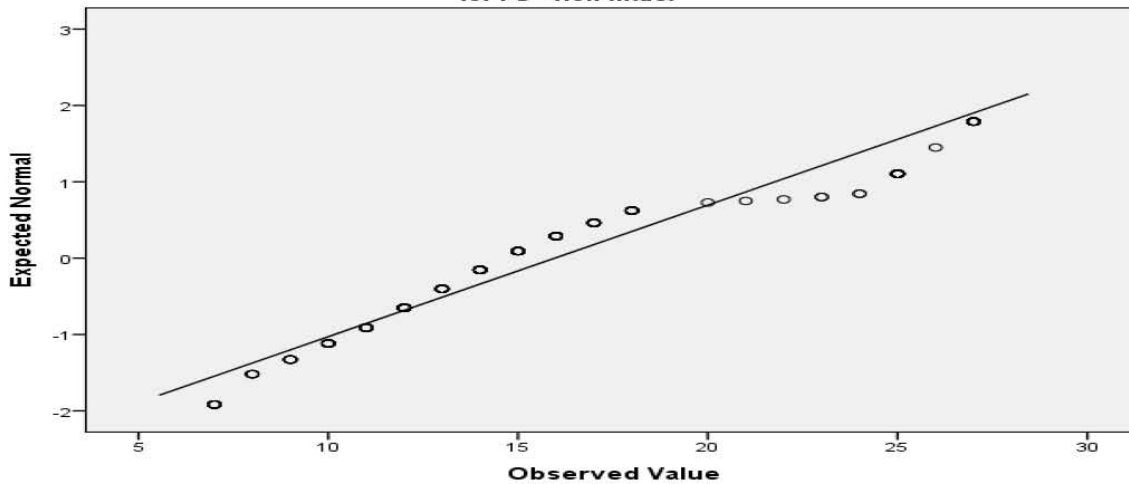
Normal Q-Q Plot of Decent
for FS= Non-intact



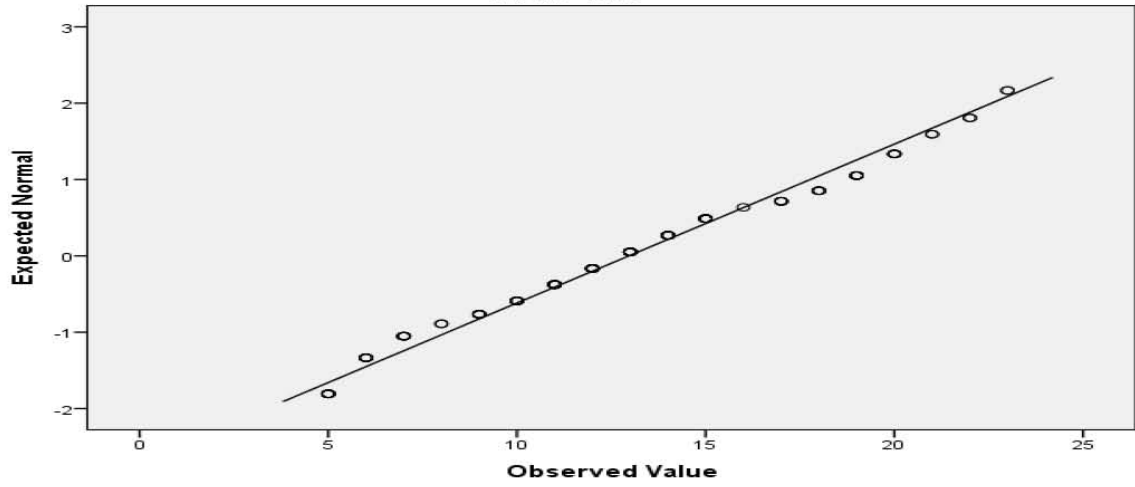
Normal Q-Q Plot of Reasonable
for FS= Intact



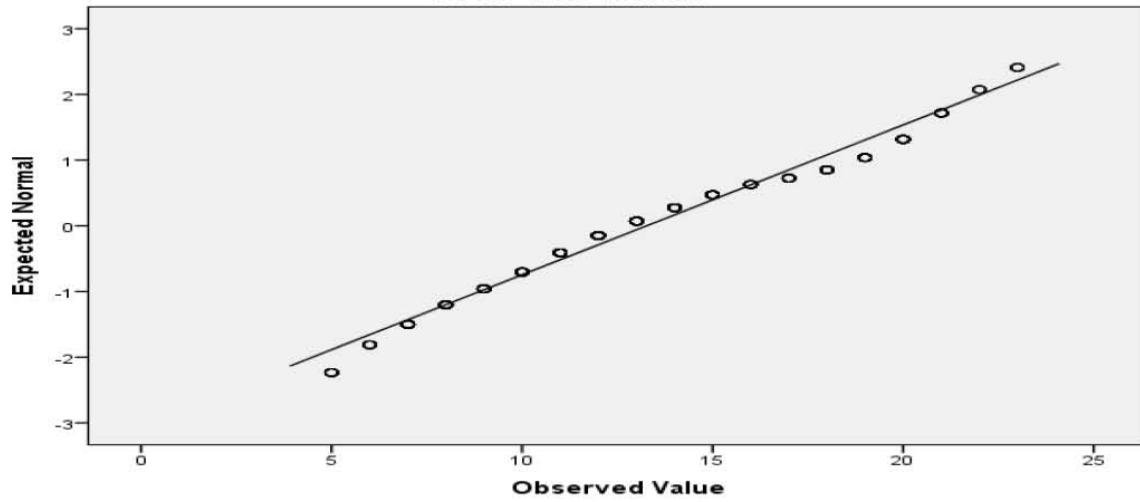
Normal Q-Q Plot of Reasonable
for FS= Non-intact



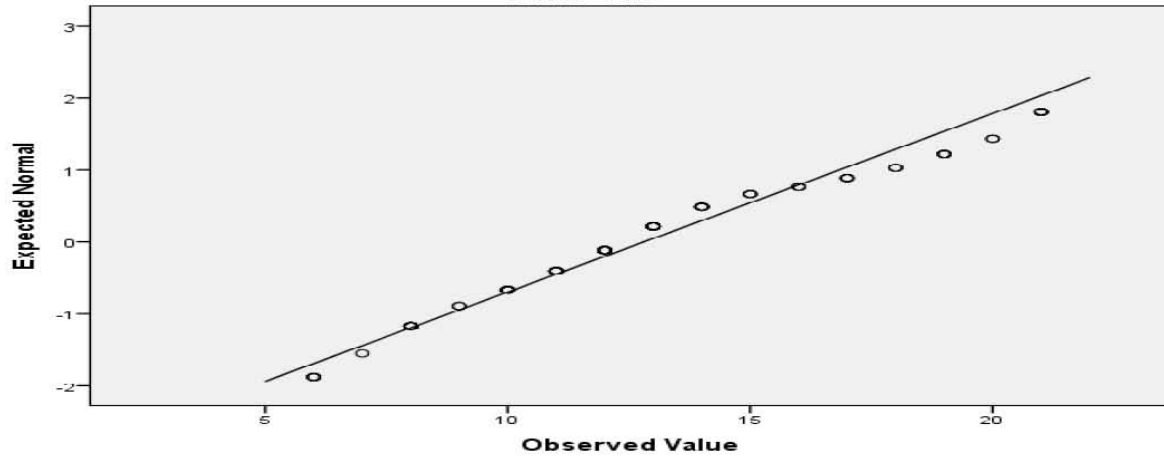
Normal Q-Q Plot of Autocrat
for NS= One



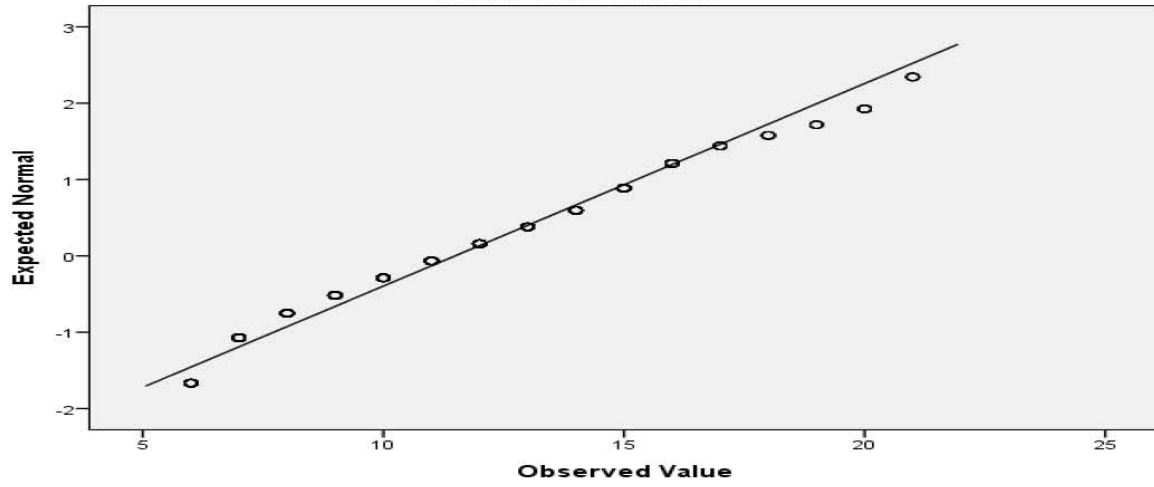
Normal Q-Q Plot of Autocrat
for NS= More than one



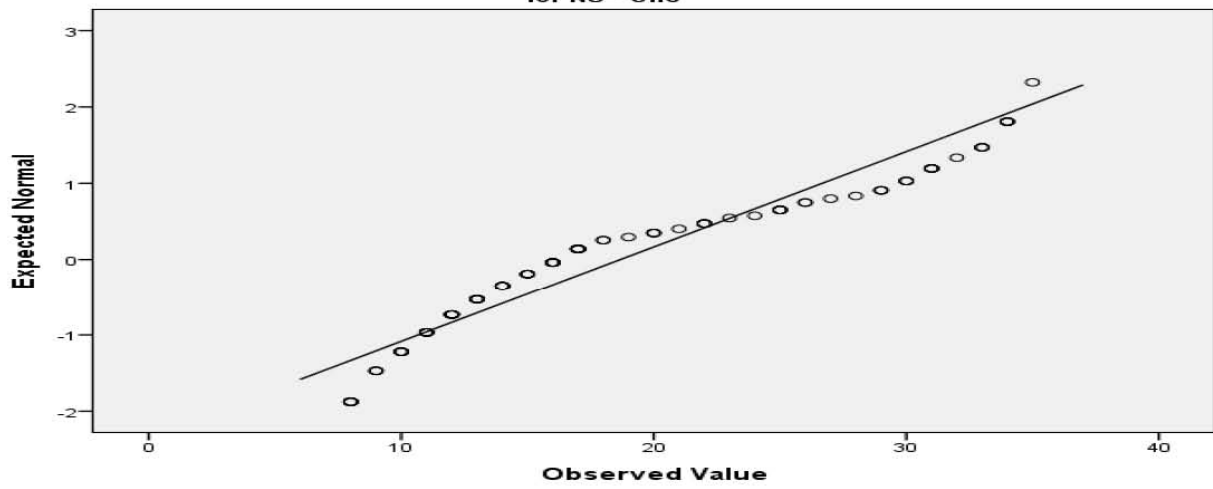
Normal Q-Q Plot of Pampering
for NS= One



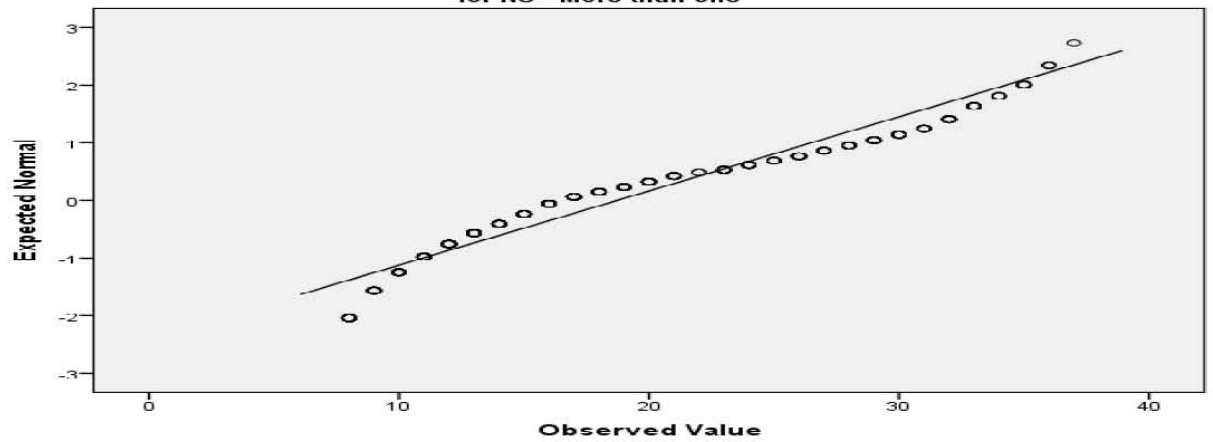
Normal Q-Q Plot of Pampering
for NS= More than one



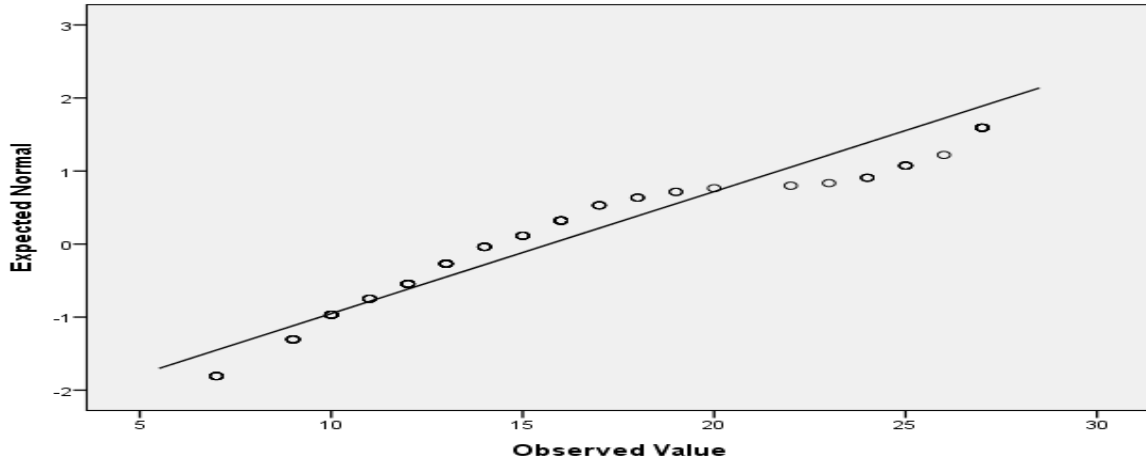
Normal Q-Q Plot of Decent
for NS= One



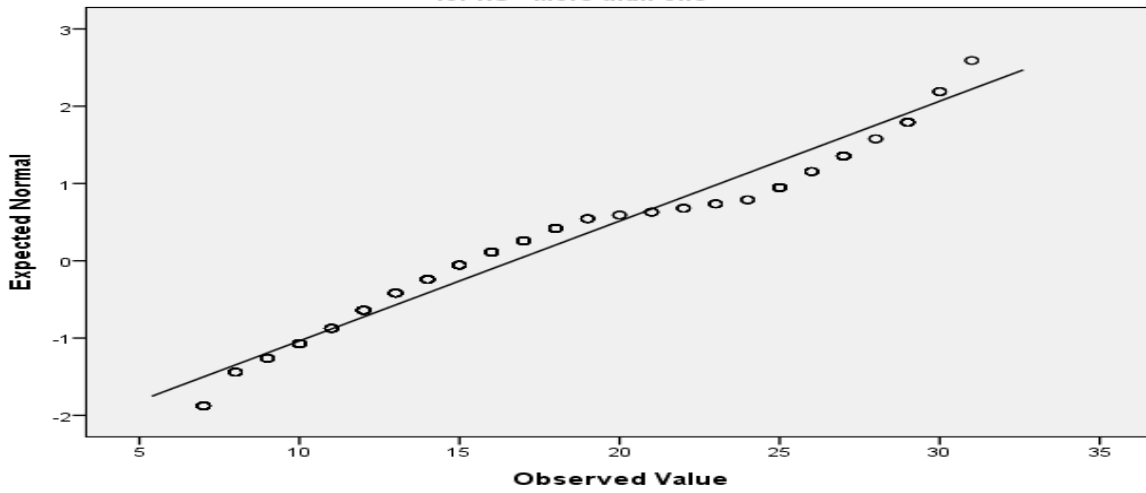
Normal Q-Q Plot of Decent
for NS= More than one



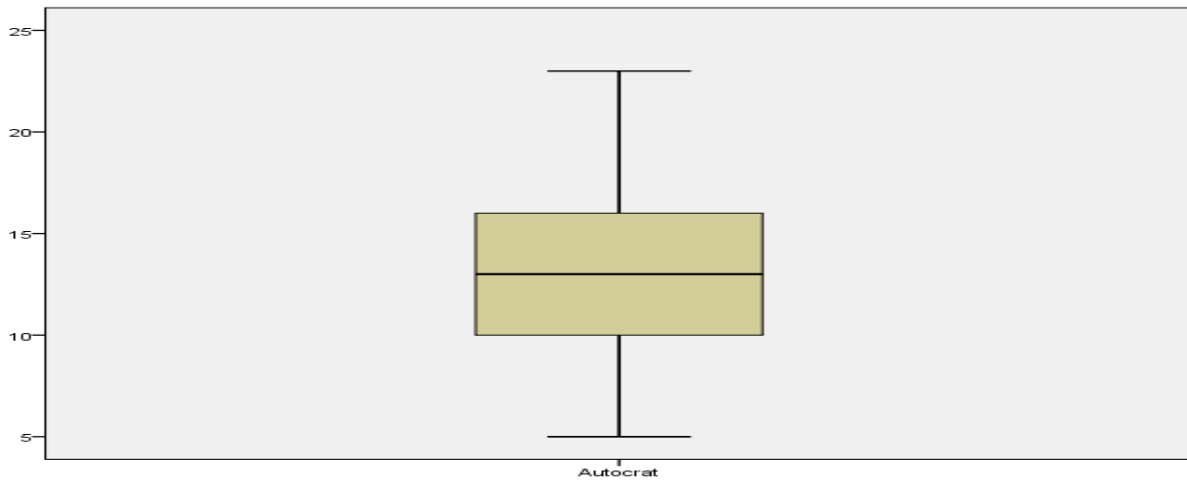
Normal Q-Q Plot of Reasonable
for NS= One

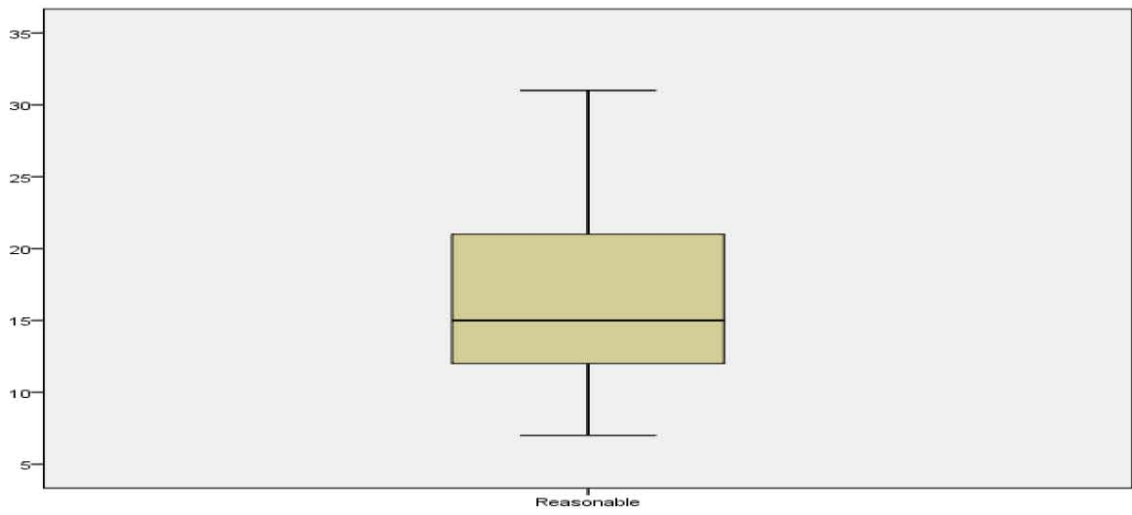
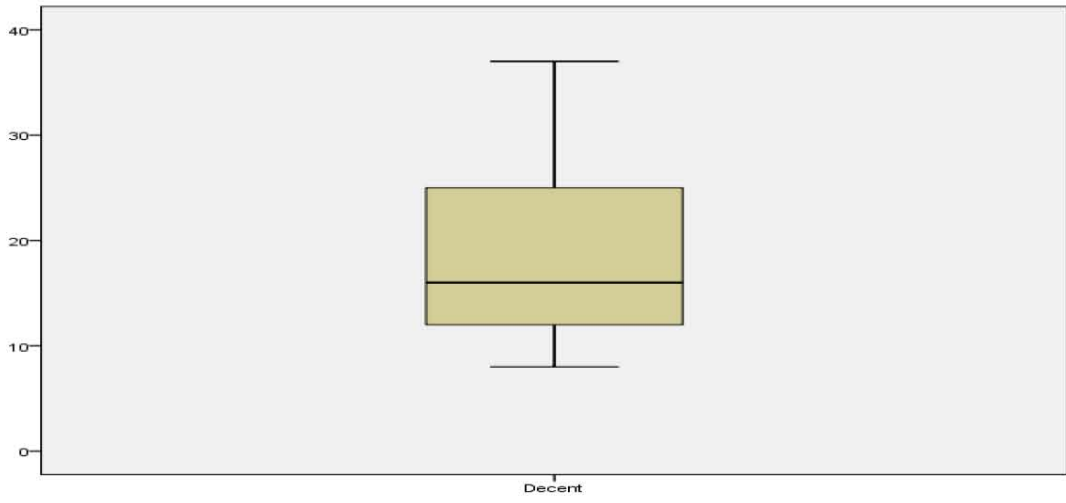
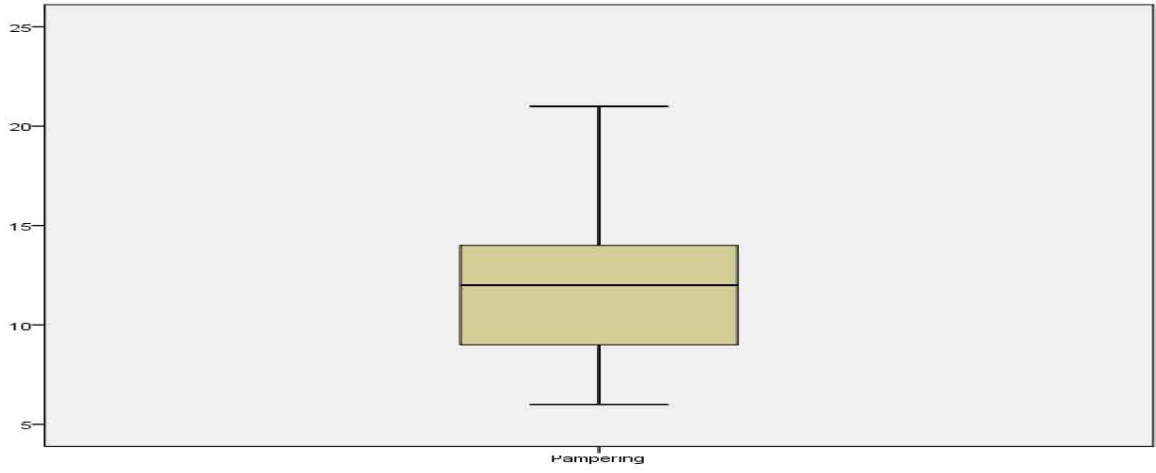


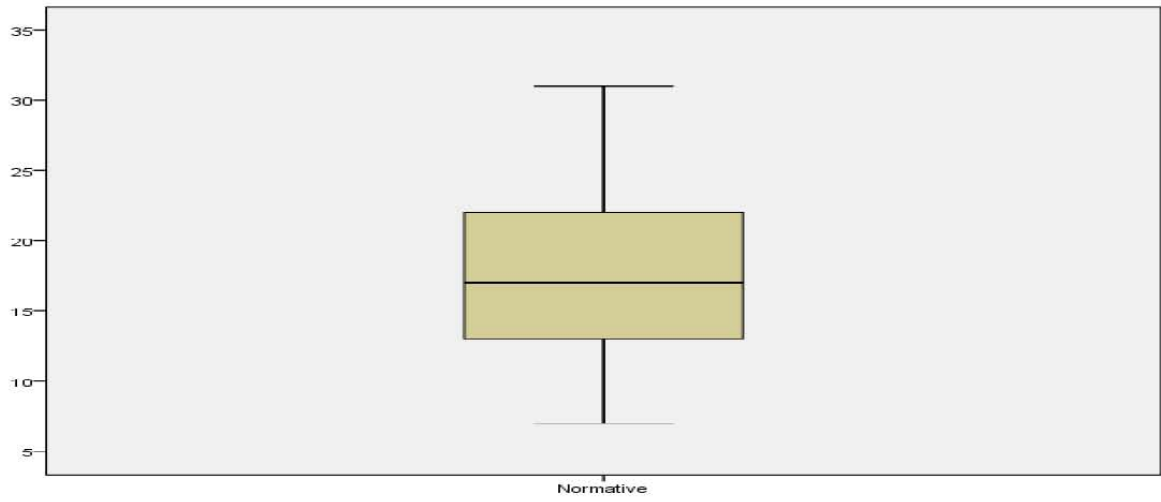
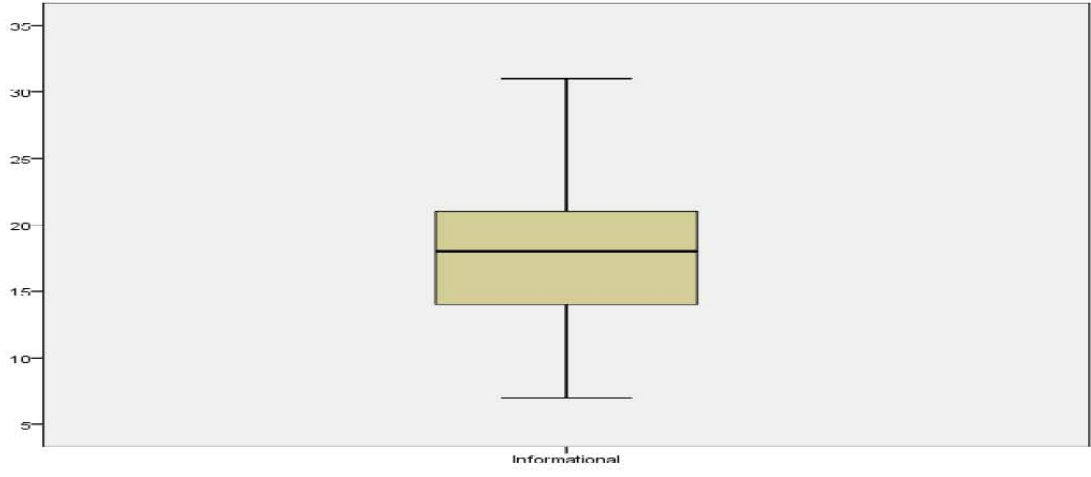
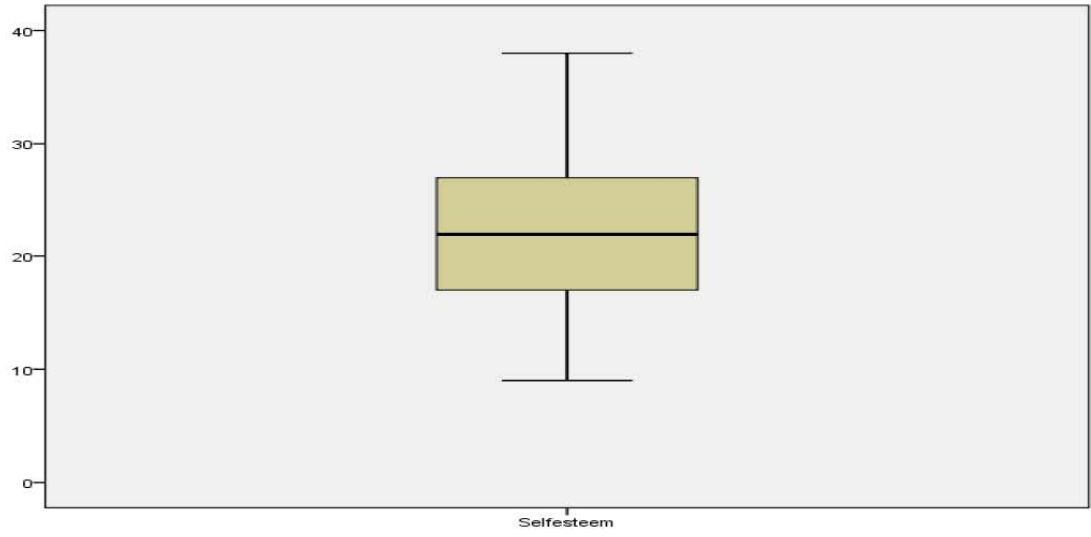
Normal Q-Q Plot of Reasonable
for NS= More than one

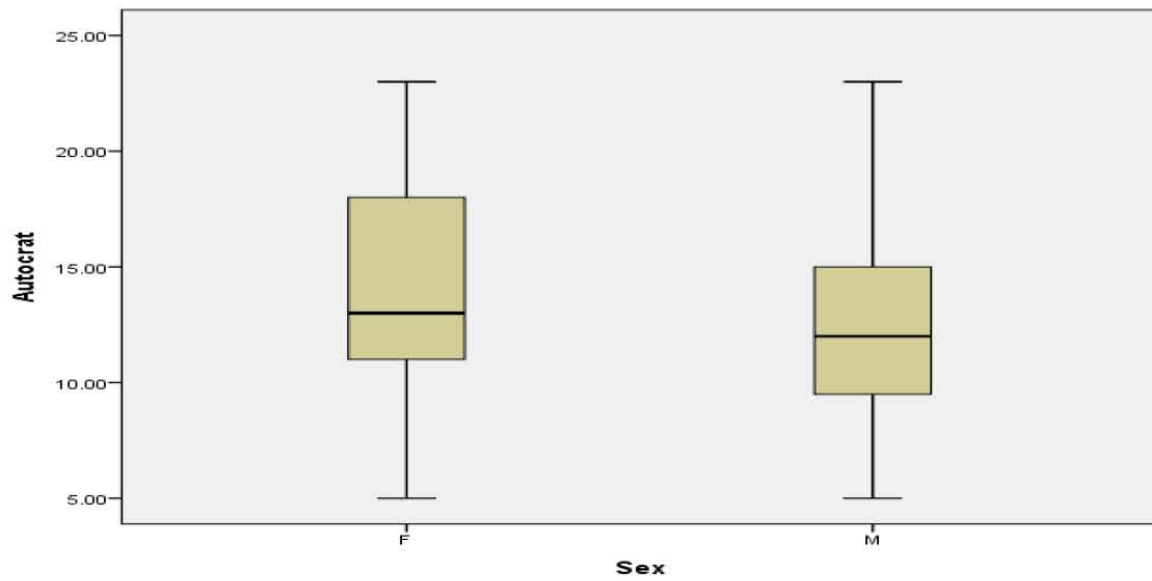
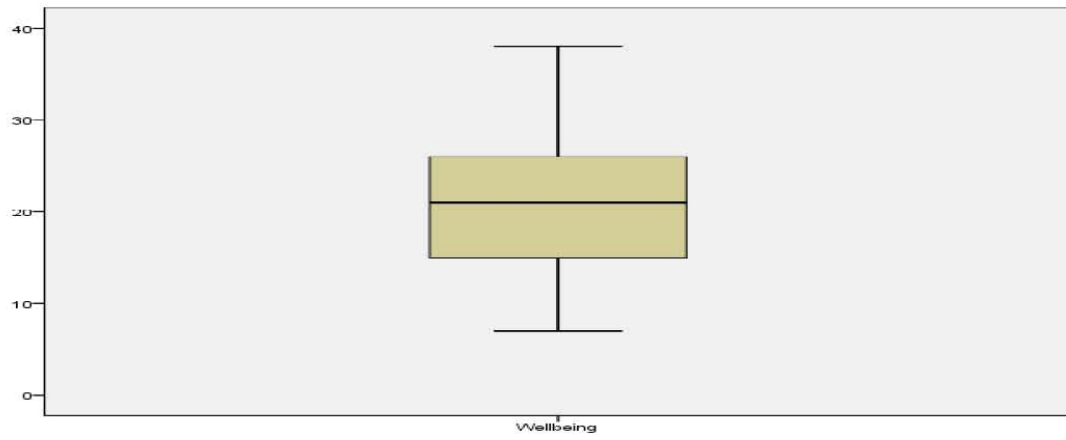
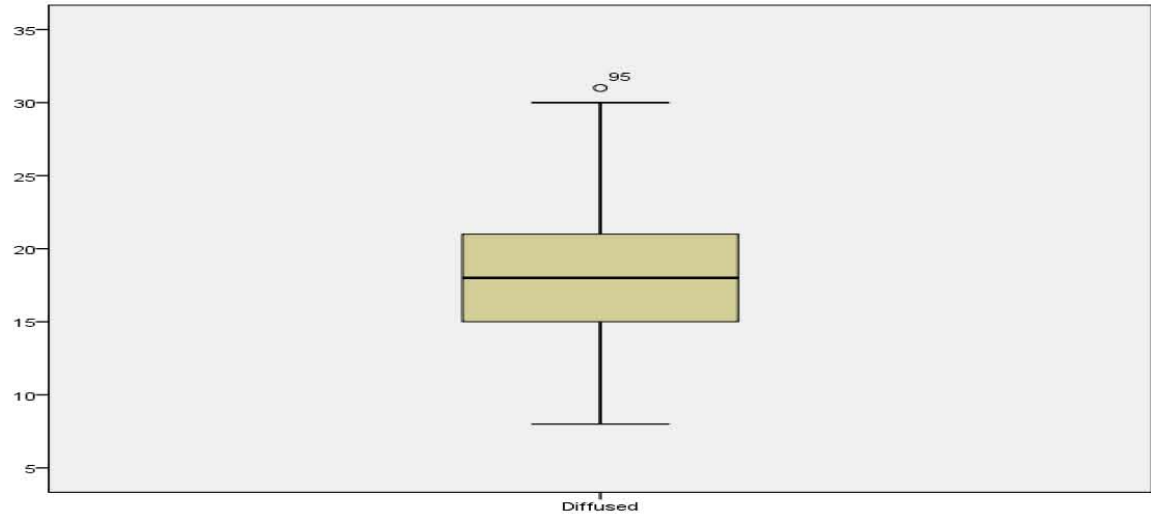


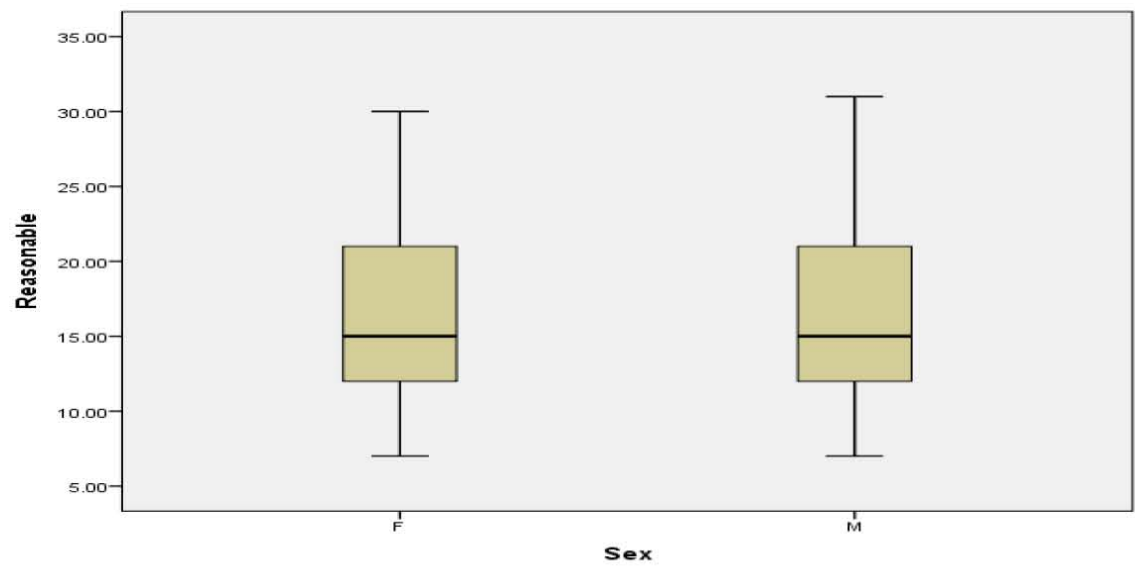
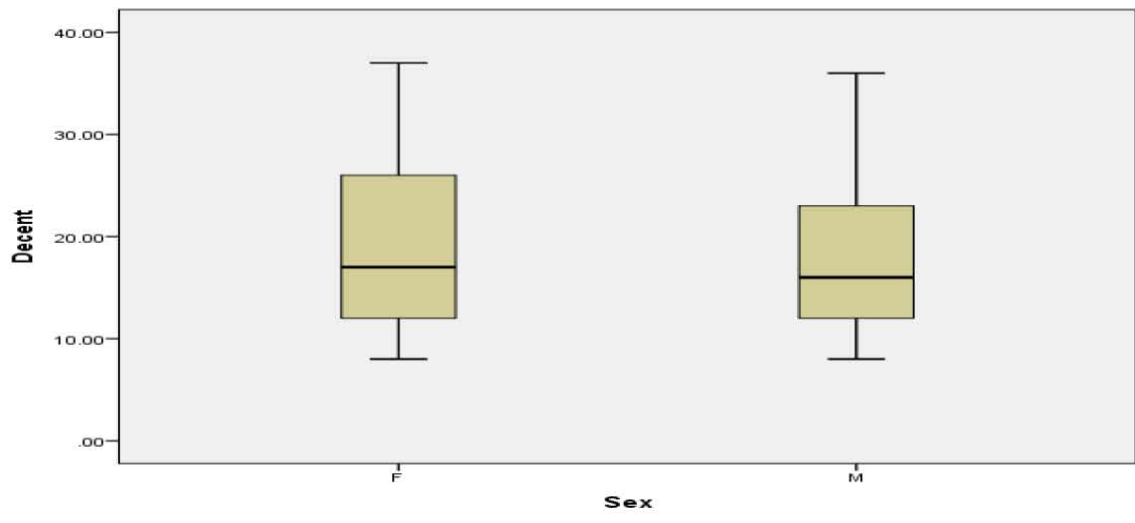
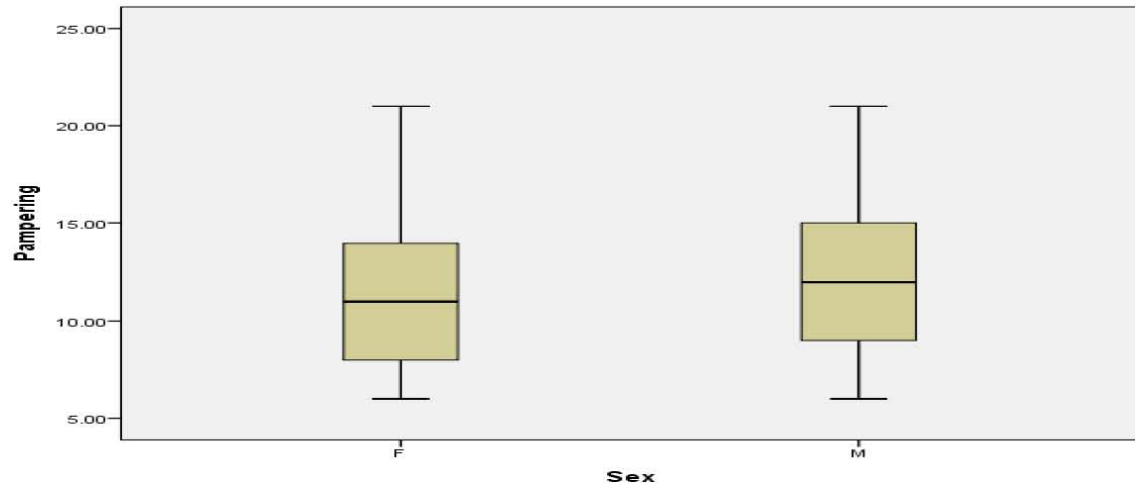
Box plot

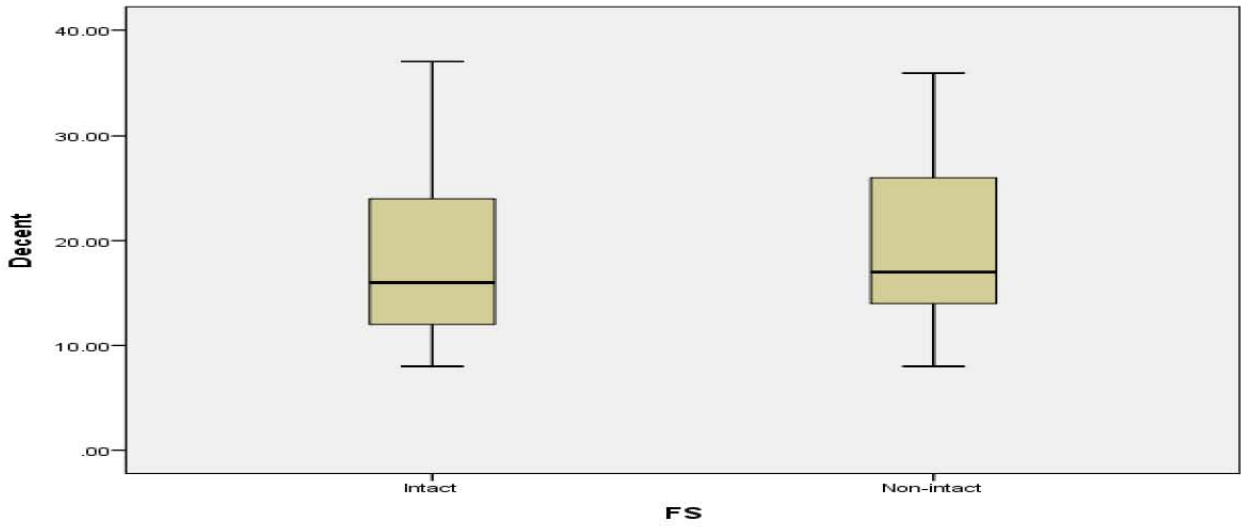
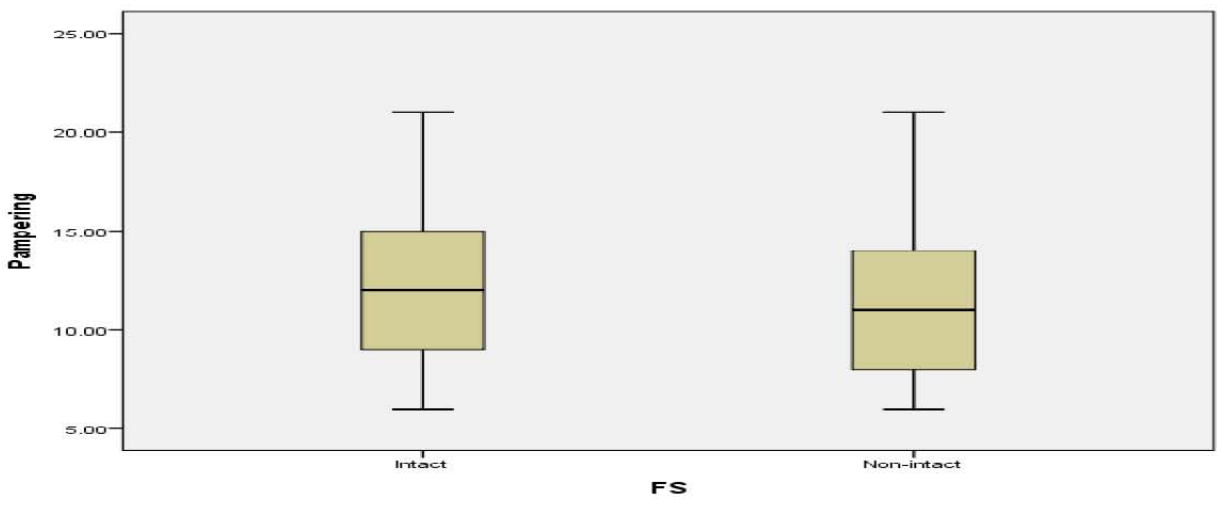
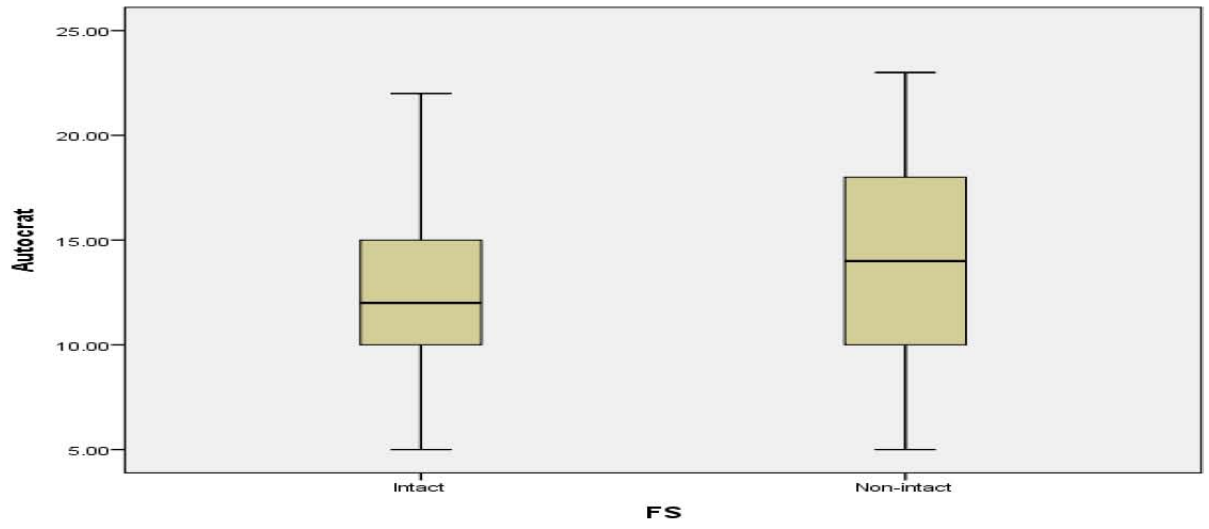


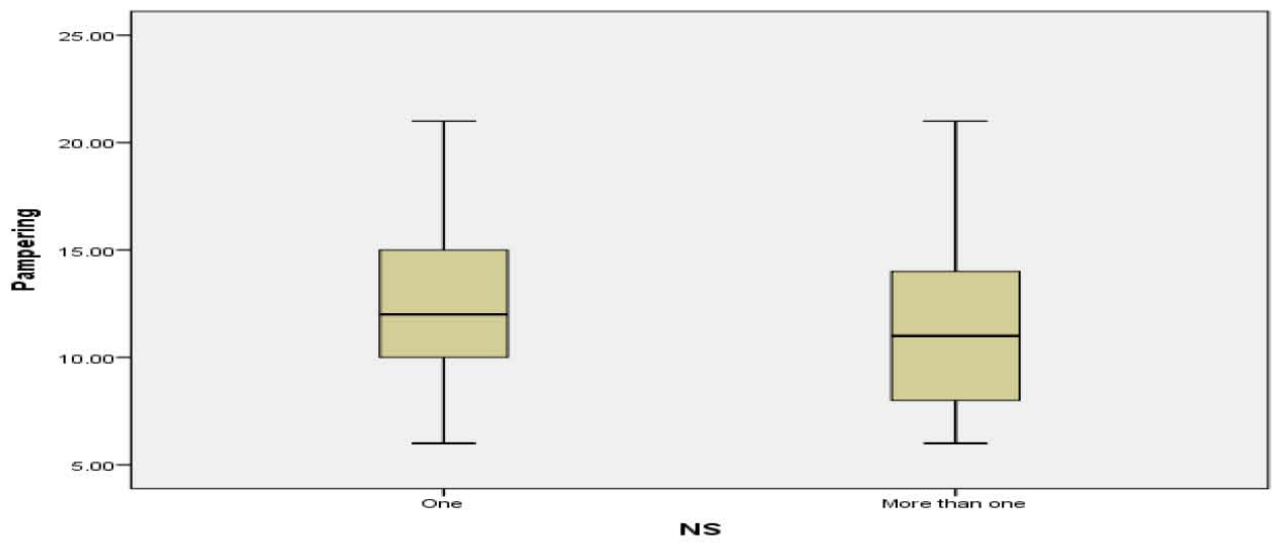
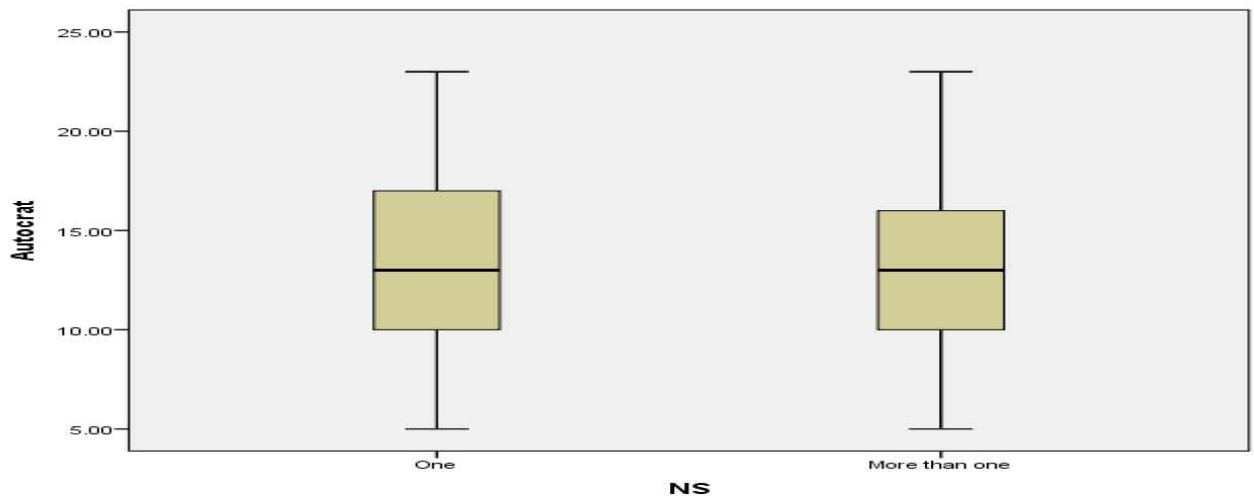
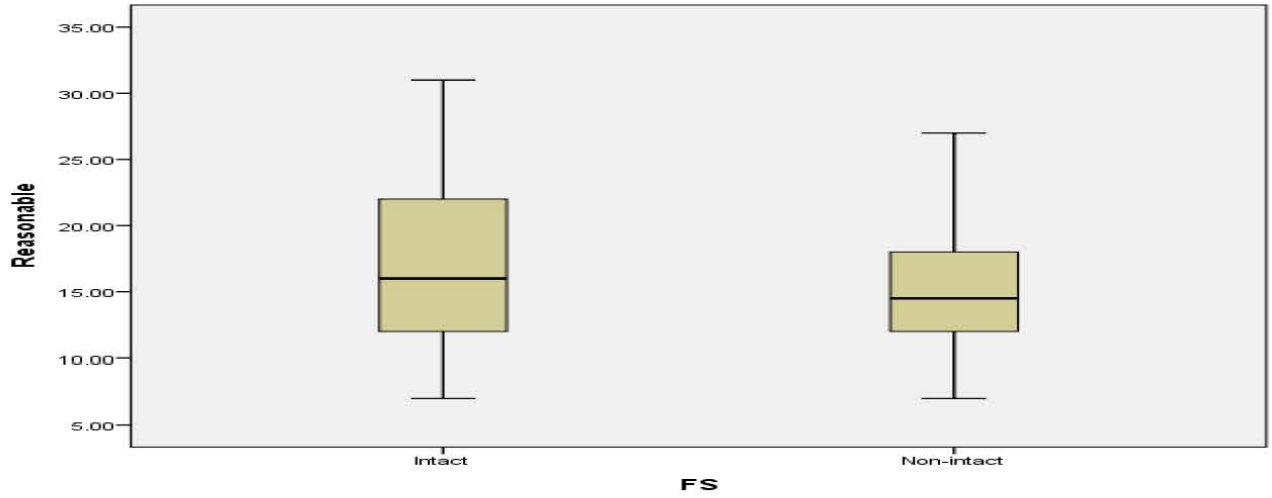


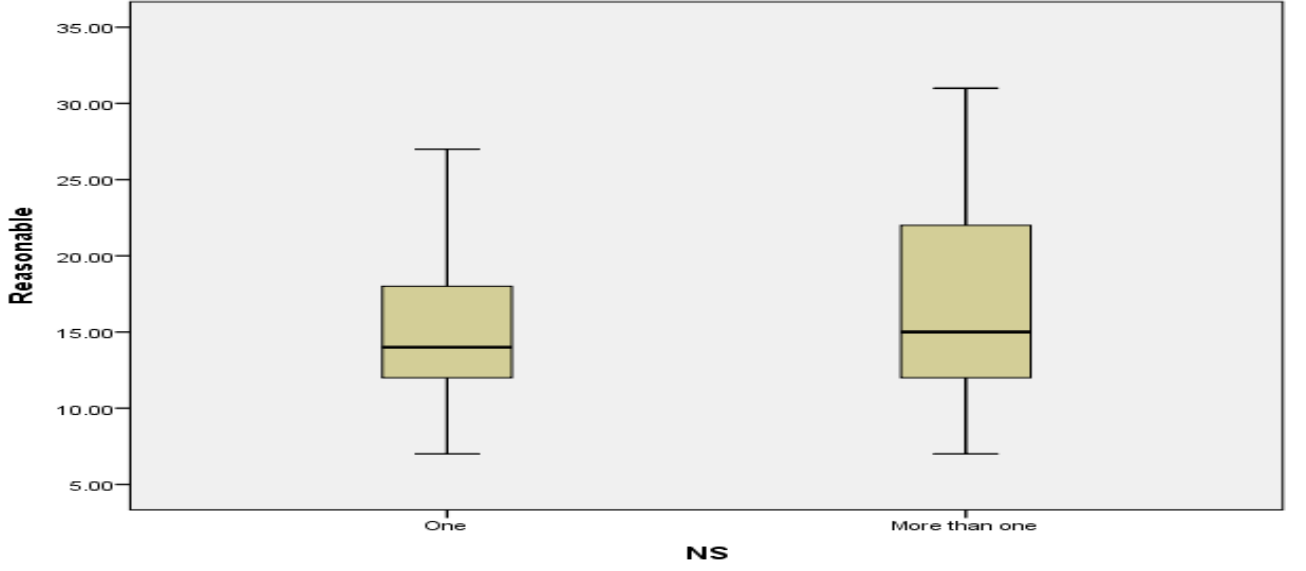
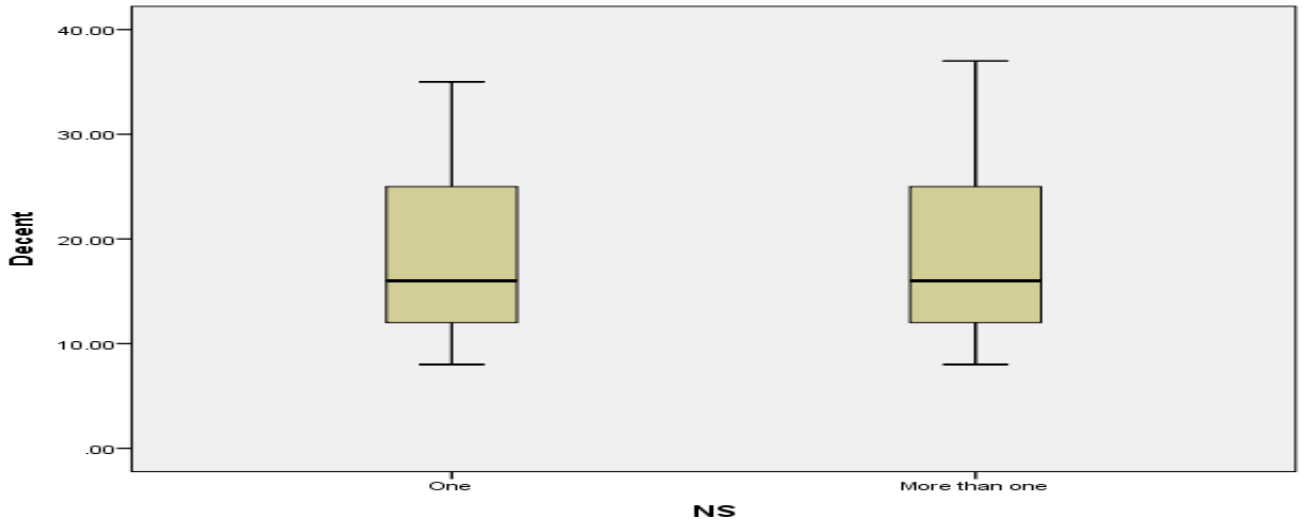












Appendix K

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Output for Parenting Style

L I S R E L 8.80

BY

Karl G. Jöreskog & Dag Sörbom

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The following lines were read from file C:\Users\Admin\Desktop\CFA.SPJ:

Raw Data from file 'C:\Users\Admin\Desktop\CFA.psf'

Latent Variables R D P A

Relationships

R7 = R

R10 = R

R13 = R

R16 = R

R18 = R

R20 = R

R26 = R

D6 = D

D8 = D

D11 = D

D15 = D

D17 = D

D23 = D

D24 = D

D25 = D

P3 = P

P5 = P

P9 = P

P14 = P

P19 = P

P22 = P

A1 = A

A2 = A

A4 = A

A12 = A

A57 = A

Path Diagram

End of Problem

Sample Size = 314

Covariance Matrix

	R7	R10	R13	R16	R18	R20
R7	1.90					
R10	1.25	1.66				
R13	1.29	1.15	1.76			
R16	1.23	1.11	1.16	1.76		
R18	1.37	1.25	1.39	1.30	1.93	
R20	1.22	1.19	1.22	1.28	1.38	1.75
R26	1.20	1.18	1.21	1.21	1.38	1.23
D6	-0.56	-0.55	-0.60	-0.62	-0.64	-0.65
D8	-0.62	-0.61	-0.76	-0.75	-0.69	-0.75
D11	-0.67	-0.59	-0.70	-0.68	-0.71	-0.76
D15	-0.57	-0.42	-0.60	-0.64	-0.58	-0.65
D17	-0.50	-0.37	-0.59	-0.56	-0.55	-0.64
D23	-0.55	-0.48	-0.58	-0.66	-0.64	-0.62
D24	-0.54	-0.51	-0.64	-0.71	-0.65	-0.67
D25	-0.61	-0.55	-0.59	-0.64	-0.57	-0.62
P3	-0.38	-0.32	-0.24	-0.30	-0.30	-0.25
P5	-0.33	-0.36	-0.32	-0.36	-0.36	-0.31
P9	-0.42	-0.41	-0.34	-0.42	-0.37	-0.36
P14	-0.32	-0.33	-0.31	-0.31	-0.36	-0.25
P19	-0.31	-0.30	-0.24	-0.28	-0.28	-0.21
P22	-0.41	-0.37	-0.31	-0.39	-0.40	-0.30
A1	-0.36	-0.38	-0.30	-0.33	-0.40	-0.34
A2	-0.36	-0.36	-0.31	-0.25	-0.42	-0.39
A4	-0.38	-0.42	-0.41	-0.38	-0.48	-0.46
A12	-0.30	-0.32	-0.36	-0.31	-0.46	-0.34
A57	-0.44	-0.43	-0.44	-0.32	-0.53	-0.42

Covariance Matrix

	R26	D6	D8	D11	D15	D17
R26	1.81					
D6	-0.75	1.90				
D8	-0.79	1.32	1.87			
D11	-0.78	1.40	1.45	1.98		
D15	-0.62	1.17	1.14	1.30	1.68	
D17	-0.57	1.24	1.32	1.24	1.10	1.79
D23	-0.68	1.27	1.25	1.29	1.14	1.19
D24	-0.71	1.21	1.25	1.30	1.10	1.24
D25	-0.62	1.27	1.19	1.28	1.14	1.19
P3	-0.29	-0.30	-0.29	-0.26	-0.21	-0.29
P5	-0.32	-0.29	-0.18	-0.23	-0.21	-0.21
P9	-0.33	-0.20	-0.19	-0.18	-0.21	-0.18
P14	-0.35	-0.34	-0.24	-0.26	-0.26	-0.28
P19	-0.24	-0.29	-0.32	-0.31	-0.27	-0.33
P22	-0.37	-0.31	-0.23	-0.27	-0.24	-0.27
A1	-0.32	-0.40	-0.30	-0.35	-0.32	-0.43
A2	-0.29	-0.37	-0.31	-0.30	-0.30	-0.36
A4	-0.38	-0.33	-0.23	-0.30	-0.26	-0.31
A12	-0.26	-0.39	-0.28	-0.36	-0.30	-0.40
A57	-0.42	-0.29	-0.22	-0.30	-0.28	-0.38

Covariance Matrix

	D23	D24	D25	P3	P5	P9
D23	1.83					
D24	1.19	1.80				
D25	1.24	1.18	1.78			
P3	-0.28	-0.28	-0.30	1.22		
P5	-0.27	-0.20	-0.30	0.87	1.11	
P9	-0.21	-0.12	-0.21	0.90	0.84	1.24
P14	-0.31	-0.23	-0.30	0.87	0.82	0.86
P19	-0.34	-0.29	-0.31	0.90	0.81	0.90
P22	-0.25	-0.21	-0.32	0.86	0.81	0.83
A1	-0.38	-0.38	-0.35	-0.12	-0.08	-0.10
A2	-0.39	-0.31	-0.31	-0.11	-0.12	-0.12
A4	-0.29	-0.29	-0.28	-0.11	-0.04	-0.07
A12	-0.32	-0.30	-0.34	-0.14	-0.01	-0.11
A57	-0.36	-0.29	-0.28	-0.07	-0.02	-0.03

Covariance Matrix

	P14	P19	P22	A1	A2	A4
P14	1.20					
P19	0.85	1.24				
P22	0.83	0.81	1.16			
A1	-0.04	-0.11	-0.07	1.39		
A2	-0.05	-0.12	-0.03	1.07	1.40	
A4	-0.04	-0.15	-0.02	1.07	1.07	1.46
A12	0.03	-0.13	0.01	1.03	1.07	1.00
A57	0.06	-0.04	0.05	1.02	1.03	1.09

Covariance Matrix

	A12	A57
A12	1.44	
A57	1.03	1.45

Number of Iterations = 6

LISREL Estimates (Maximum Likelihood)

Measurement Equations

R7 = 1.12*R, Errorvar.= 0.64 , R² = 0.66
 (0.065) (0.057)
 17.34 11.19

R10 = 1.05*R, Errorvar.= 0.56 , R² = 0.66
 (0.061) (0.050)
 17.32 11.19

R13 = 1.11*R, Errorvar.= 0.54 , R² = 0.69
 (0.062) (0.049)
 17.93 10.99

R16 = 1.09*R, Errorvar.= 0.57 , R² = 0.67
(0.062) (0.052)
17.55 11.12
R18 = 1.22*R, Errorvar.= 0.44 , R² = 0.77
(0.062) (0.043)
19.59 10.21
R20 = 1.12*R, Errorvar.= 0.49 , R² = 0.72
(0.061) (0.045)
18.54 10.75
R26 = 1.11*R, Errorvar.= 0.57 , R² = 0.68
(0.063) (0.052)
17.74 11.06
D6 = 1.15*D, Errorvar.= 0.58 , R² = 0.69
(0.064) (0.053)
17.99 11.00
D8 = 1.15*D, Errorvar.= 0.54 , R² = 0.71
(0.063) (0.049)
18.35 10.86
D11 = 1.20*D, Errorvar.= 0.54 , R² = 0.73
(0.064) (0.050)
18.67 10.73
D15 = 1.03*D, Errorvar.= 0.62 , R² = 0.63
(0.062) (0.055)
16.71 11.38
D17 = 1.09*D, Errorvar.= 0.60 , R² = 0.66
(0.063) (0.054)
17.38 11.20
D23 = 1.10*D, Errorvar.= 0.61 , R² = 0.66
(0.063) (0.055)
17.37 11.20
D24 = 1.08*D, Errorvar.= 0.63 , R² = 0.65
(0.063) (0.056)
17.12 11.27
D25 = 1.09*D, Errorvar.= 0.60 , R² = 0.66
(0.063) (0.054)
17.34 11.21
P3 = 0.96*P, Errorvar.= 0.30 , R² = 0.76
(0.050) (0.030)
19.18 10.05
P5 = 0.89*P, Errorvar.= 0.31 , R² = 0.72
(0.048) (0.029)
18.51 10.44
P9 = 0.94*P, Errorvar.= 0.35 , R² = 0.72
(0.051) (0.033)
18.39 10.50
P14 = 0.91*P, Errorvar.= 0.37 , R² = 0.70
(0.051) (0.034)
17.93 10.71
P19 = 0.93*P, Errorvar.= 0.37 , R² = 0.70
(0.052) (0.035)
17.98 10.69
P22 = 0.90*P, Errorvar.= 0.35 , R² = 0.70
(0.050) (0.033)
17.93 10.71
A1 = 1.03*A, Errorvar.= 0.33 , R² = 0.76
(0.053) (0.034)

19.24 9.82
 A2 = 1.04*A, Errorvar.= 0.33 , R² = 0.77
 (0.054) (0.034)

19.35 9.74
 A4 = 1.04*A, Errorvar.= 0.38 , R² = 0.74
 (0.055) (0.038)

18.79 10.12
 A12 = 1.00*A, Errorvar.= 0.43 , R² = 0.70
 (0.056) (0.041)

17.99 10.55
 A57 = 1.01*A, Errorvar.= 0.42 , R² = 0.71
 (0.056) (0.040)
 18.19 10.45

Correlation Matrix of Independent Variables

	R	D	P	A
R	1.00			
D	-0.50 (0.05) -11.01	1.00		
P	-0.31 (0.05) -5.73	-0.25 (0.06) -4.42	1.00	
A	-0.33 (0.05) -6.03	-0.28 (0.06) -5.09	-0.07 (0.06) -1.18	1.00

Goodness of Fit Statistics

Degrees of Freedom = 293

Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 338.38 (P = 0.035)

Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 330.71 (P = 0.064)

Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 37.71

90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (0.0 ; 86.54)

Minimum Fit Function Value = 1.08

Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 0.12

90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (0.0 ; 0.28)

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.020

90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.0 ; 0.031)

P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 1.00

Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 1.43

90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (1.31 ; 1.58)

ECVI for Saturated Model = 2.24

ECVI for Independence Model = 50.30

Chi-Square for Independence Model with 325 Degrees of Freedom = 15691.62

Independence AIC = 15743.62

Model AIC = 446.71

Saturated AIC = 702.00

Independence CAIC = 15867.10

Model CAIC = 722.17
Saturated CAIC = 2369.04

Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.98
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 1.00
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.88
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 1.00
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 1.00
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.98

Critical N (CN) = 326.82

Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.051
Standardized RMR = 0.032
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.92
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.91
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.77

Time used: 0.094 Seconds

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Output for Psychological Wellbeing

L I S R E L 8.80

BY

Karl G. Jöreskog & Dag Sörbom

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Raw Data from file 'C:\Users\Admin\Desktop\pw.psf'

Latent Variables PW

Relationships

W1 = PW

W2 = PW

W3 = PW

W4 = PW

W5 = PW

W6 = PW

W7 = PW

W8 = PW

Path Diagram

End of Problem

Sample Size = 274

Covariance Matrix

	W1	W2	W3	W4	W5	W6
W1	2.78					
W2	0.76	3.18				
W3	0.37	0.59	1.56			
W4	0.88	0.93	0.48	2.78		
W5	0.36	0.80	0.35	0.45	1.97	
W6	0.95	0.90	0.68	0.82	0.63	2.89
W7	0.71	1.11	0.65	0.94	0.87	1.10
W8	-0.11	-0.03	0.02	-0.03	0.00	0.02

Covariance Matrix

	W7	W8
W7	3.50	
W8	-0.03	0.25

Number of Iterations = 6

LISREL Estimates (Maximum Likelihood)

Measurement Equations

- W1 = 0.78*PW, Errorvar.= 2.18 , R² = 0.22
 (0.11) (0.21)
 6.96 10.49
- W2 = 1.01*PW, Errorvar.= 2.15 , R² = 0.32
 (0.12) (0.22)
 8.68 9.62
- W3 = 0.58*PW, Errorvar.= 1.22 , R² = 0.22
 (0.084) (0.12)
 6.95 10.50
- W4 = 0.87*PW, Errorvar.= 2.03 , R² = 0.27
 (0.11) (0.20)
 7.84 10.10
- W5 = 0.65*PW, Errorvar.= 1.54 , R² = 0.22
 (0.094) (0.15)
 6.95 10.50
- W6 = 1.01*PW, Errorvar.= 1.87 , R² = 0.35
 (0.11) (0.20)
 9.11 9.34
- W7 = 1.10*PW, Errorvar.= 2.29 , R² = 0.35
 (0.12) (0.24)
 9.02 9.39
- W8 = - 0.020*PW, Errorvar.= 0.25 , R² = 0.0017
 (0.035) (0.021)
 -0.58 11.68

Correlation Matrix of Independent Variables

PW

1.00

Goodness of Fit Statistics

Degrees of Freedom = 20

Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 22.01 (P = 0.34)

Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 22.24 (P = 0.33)

Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 2.24

90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (0.0 ; 18.03)

Minimum Fit Function Value = 0.081

Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 0.0082

90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (0.0 ; 0.066)

Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.020

90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.0 ; 0.057)

P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.89

Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 0.20

90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (0.19 ; 0.26)

ECVI for Saturated Model = 0.26

ECVI for Independence Model = 1.72

Chi-Square for Independence Model with 28 Degrees of Freedom = 453.59

Independence AIC = 469.59

Model AIC = 54.24

Saturated AIC = 72.00

Independence CAIC = 506.50

Model CAIC = 128.05

Saturated CAIC = 238.07

Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.95

Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.99

Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.68

Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 1.00

Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 1.00

Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.93

Critical N (CN) = 466.97

Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.078

Standardized RMR = 0.037

Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.98

Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.96

Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.54

Time used: 0.016 Seconds

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Output for Selfesteem

L I S R E L 8.80

BY

Karl G. Jöreskog & Dag Sörbom

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The following lines were read from file C:\Users\Admin\Desktop\SE.SPJ:

Raw Data from file 'C:\Users\Admin\Desktop\SE.psf'

Latent Variables Selfesteem

Relationships

SE1 = Selfesteem

SE2 = Selfesteem

SE3 = Selfesteem

SE4 = Selfesteem

SE5 = Selfesteem

SE6 = Selfesteem

SE7 = Selfesteem

SE8 = Selfesteem

SE9 = Selfesteem

SE10 = Selfesteem

Path Diagram

End of Problem

Sample Size = 276

Covariance Matrix

	SE1	SE2	SE3	SE4	SE5	SE6
SE1	2.10					
SE2	0.86	2.11				
SE3	0.54	0.71	1.95			
SE4	0.68	0.83	0.55	2.24		
SE5	0.60	0.52	0.79	0.75	1.65	
SE6	0.75	0.82	0.75	0.69	0.64	2.12
SE7	0.82	0.70	0.81	0.91	0.60	0.73
SE8	0.77	0.69	0.62	0.86	0.80	0.71
SE9	0.03	-0.05	-0.01	-0.10	-0.18	-0.13
SE10	0.63	0.70	0.72	0.79	0.77	0.65

Covariance Matrix

	SE7	SE8	SE9	SE10
SE7	2.10			
SE8	0.83	2.01		
SE9	-0.12	0.07	1.21	
SE10	0.76	0.77	-0.05	1.97

Number of Iterations = 6

LISREL Estimates (Maximum Likelihood)

Measurement Equations

SE1 = 0.82*Selfeste, Errorvar.= 1.42 , R² = 0.32
 (0.087) (0.13)
 9.44 10.62

SE2 = 0.84*Selfeste, Errorvar.= 1.40 , R² = 0.34
 (0.087) (0.13)
 9.67 10.55

SE3 = 0.80*Selfeste, Errorvar.= 1.30 , R² = 0.33
 (0.084) (0.12)
 9.63 10.57

SE4 = 0.90*Selfeste, Errorvar.= 1.43 , R² = 0.36
 (0.089) (0.14)
 10.13 10.41

SE5 = 0.80*Selfeste, Errorvar.= 1.01 , R² = 0.39
 (0.076) (0.099)
 10.61 10.24

SE6 = 0.84*Selfeste, Errorvar.= 1.42 , R² = 0.33
 (0.087) (0.13)
 9.57 10.58

SE7 = 0.90*Selfeste, Errorvar.= 1.28 , R² = 0.39
 (0.085) (0.13)
 10.60 10.24

SE8 = 0.89*Selfeste, Errorvar.= 1.21 , R² = 0.40
 (0.083) (0.12)
 10.75 10.18

SE9 = - 0.072*Selfeste, Errorvar.= 1.21 , R² = 0.0043
 (0.073) (0.10)
 -1.00 11.72

SE10 = 0.86*Selfeste, Errorvar.= 1.24 , R² = 0.37
 (0.083) (0.12)
 10.29 10.35

Correlation Matrix of Independent Variables

Selfeste

 1.00

Goodness of Fit Statistics

Degrees of Freedom = 35
 Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 55.50 (P = 0.015)
 Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 50.40 (P = 0.044)

Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 15.40
90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (0.42 ; 38.37)
Minimum Fit Function Value = 0.20
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 0.056
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (0.0015 ; 0.14)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.040
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.0066 ; 0.063)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 0.74
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 0.33
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (0.27 ; 0.41)
ECVI for Saturated Model = 0.40
ECVI for Independence Model = 4.81
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 45 Degrees of Freedom = 1303.50
Independence AIC = 1323.50
Model AIC = 90.40
Saturated AIC = 110.00
Independence CAIC = 1369.71
Model CAIC = 182.81
Saturated CAIC = 364.12
Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.96
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 0.98
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.74
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 0.98
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 0.98
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.95
Critical N (CN) = 285.12
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.073
Standardized RMR = 0.039
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.96
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.94
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.61

Time used: 0.016 Seconds

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Output for Identity Style

L I S R E L 8.80

BY

Karl G. Jöreskog & Dag Sörbom

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The following lines were read from file C:\Users\Admin\Desktop\IS.SPJ:

Raw Data from file 'C:\Users\Admin\Desktop\IS.psf'

Latent Variables INFO NORM DIFFU

Relationships

I1 = INFO

I2 = INFO

I3 = INFO

I4 = INFO

I5 = INFO

I6 = INFO

I7 = INFO

N1 = NORM

N2 = NORM

N3 = NORM

N4 = NORM

N5 = NORM

N6 = NORM

N7 = NORM

N8 = NORM

D1 = DIFFU

D2 = DIFFU

D3 = DIFFU

D4 = DIFFU

D5 = DIFFU

D6 = DIFFU

D7 = DIFFU

D8 = DIFFU

D9 = DIFFU

Path Diagram

End of Problem

Sample Size = 273

Covariance Matrix

	I1	I2	I3	I4	I5	I6
I1	1.69					
I2	0.78	1.44				
I3	0.92	0.71	1.48			
I4	0.86	0.80	0.81	1.39		
I5	1.20	1.03	1.11	1.01	1.78	
I6	1.00	0.79	0.82	0.81	1.09	1.71
I7	0.94	0.82	0.77	0.72	1.06	0.80
N1	-0.24	-0.13	-0.30	-0.25	-0.36	-0.28
N2	-0.29	-0.14	-0.32	-0.22	-0.32	-0.20
N3	-0.25	-0.18	-0.32	-0.24	-0.33	-0.21
N4	-0.26	-0.17	-0.26	-0.23	-0.30	-0.20
N5	-0.25	-0.15	-0.29	-0.17	-0.30	-0.13
N6	-0.32	-0.15	-0.27	-0.15	-0.29	-0.23
N7	-0.20	-0.08	-0.21	-0.10	-0.25	-0.15
N8	0.04	0.05	0.07	0.09	0.04	0.05

D1	-0.61	-0.44	-0.34	-0.45	-0.51	-0.49
D2	-0.38	-0.31	-0.13	-0.29	-0.32	-0.29
D3	-0.55	-0.43	-0.32	-0.45	-0.42	-0.48
D4	-0.43	-0.36	-0.20	-0.33	-0.36	-0.38
D5	-0.53	-0.37	-0.32	-0.47	-0.54	-0.52
D6	-0.36	-0.25	-0.20	-0.27	-0.30	-0.35
D7	-0.45	-0.40	-0.32	-0.37	-0.43	-0.35
D8	-0.59	-0.41	-0.32	-0.46	-0.52	-0.47
D9	-0.06	-0.04	-0.07	-0.08	-0.09	-0.03

Covariance Matrix

	I7	N1	N2	N3	N4	N5
I7	1.49					
N1	-0.18	1.15				
N2	-0.20	0.70	1.06			
N3	-0.28	0.74	0.74	1.22		
N4	-0.17	0.75	0.74	0.73	1.01	
N5	-0.18	0.73	0.76	0.76	0.76	1.11
N6	-0.18	0.73	0.69	0.71	0.70	0.69
N7	-0.08	0.63	0.65	0.59	0.61	0.65
N8	0.02	0.02	0.05	0.05	0.02	0.07
D1	-0.43	-0.25	-0.18	-0.24	-0.25	-0.22
D2	-0.32	-0.23	-0.17	-0.17	-0.25	-0.26
D3	-0.44	-0.19	-0.17	-0.19	-0.23	-0.24
D4	-0.37	-0.25	-0.17	-0.20	-0.20	-0.26
D5	-0.45	-0.21	-0.16	-0.23	-0.26	-0.26
D6	-0.36	-0.18	-0.21	-0.19	-0.25	-0.21
D7	-0.43	-0.20	-0.11	-0.14	-0.23	-0.19
D8	-0.49	-0.16	-0.14	-0.13	-0.19	-0.14
D9	-0.05	0.04	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.05

Covariance Matrix

	N6	N7	N8	D1	D2	D3
N6	1.20					
N7	0.55	0.97				
N8	0.07	0.09	0.37			
D1	-0.15	-0.23	-0.03	1.56		
D2	-0.21	-0.22	-0.04	1.03	1.40	
D3	-0.14	-0.24	-0.04	1.19	1.03	1.63
D4	-0.15	-0.22	-0.06	1.16	0.94	1.08
D5	-0.14	-0.21	-0.06	1.16	0.91	1.08
D6	-0.22	-0.28	-0.04	1.00	0.86	0.97
D7	-0.13	-0.22	-0.06	1.17	0.90	1.07
D8	-0.06	-0.19	-0.03	1.20	0.99	1.14
D9	0.00	0.09	-0.01	-0.09	-0.07	-0.03

Covariance Matrix

	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8	D9
D4	1.40					
D5	0.99	1.60				
D6	0.93	0.89	1.35			
D7	1.05	1.02	0.90	1.45		
D8	1.10	1.08	0.97	1.08	1.58	
D9	-0.07	-0.05	-0.03	-0.08	-0.07	0.51

Number of Iterations = 6

LISREL Estimates (Maximum Likelihood)

Measurement Equations

- I1 = 1.02*INFO, Errorvar.= 0.65 , R² = 0.61
 (0.068) (0.065)
 15.05 10.01
- I2 = 0.85*INFO, Errorvar.= 0.72 , R² = 0.50
 (0.065) (0.068)
 13.07 10.62
- I3 = 0.90*INFO, Errorvar.= 0.67 , R² = 0.55
 (0.065) (0.064)
 13.90 10.40
- I4 = 0.86*INFO, Errorvar.= 0.65 , R² = 0.54
 (0.063) (0.062)
 13.66 10.47
- I5 = 1.19*INFO, Errorvar.= 0.36 , R² = 0.80
 (0.065) (0.048)
 18.44 7.60
- I6 = 0.93*INFO, Errorvar.= 0.84 , R² = 0.51
 (0.071) (0.080)
 13.14 10.60
- I7 = 0.89*INFO, Errorvar.= 0.69 , R² = 0.54
 (0.065) (0.066)
 13.65 10.47
- N1 = 0.86*NORM, Errorvar.= 0.42 , R² = 0.64
 (0.055) (0.042)
 15.52 10.09
- N2 = 0.86*NORM, Errorvar.= 0.32 , R² = 0.69
 (0.052) (0.034)
 16.59 9.62
- N3 = 0.86*NORM, Errorvar.= 0.48 , R² = 0.61
 (0.057) (0.047)
 14.99 10.28
- N4 = 0.86*NORM, Errorvar.= 0.27 , R² = 0.73
 (0.050) (0.030)
 17.33 9.18
- N5 = 0.88*NORM, Errorvar.= 0.35 , R² = 0.69
 (0.053) (0.036)
 16.49 9.67
- N6 = 0.81*NORM, Errorvar.= 0.55 , R² = 0.54
 (0.058) (0.052)

13.85 10.60
 N7 = 0.72*NORM, Errorvar.= 0.45 , R² = 0.54
 (0.053) (0.042)
 13.78 10.61
 N8 = 0.056*NORM, Errorvar.= 0.37 , R² = 0.0086
 (0.038) (0.031)
 1.48 11.65
 D1 = 1.13*DIFFU, Errorvar.= 0.28 , R² = 0.82
 (0.059) (0.031)
 19.23 8.95
 D2 = 0.92*DIFFU, Errorvar.= 0.56 , R² = 0.60
 (0.061) (0.052)
 15.06 10.77
 D3 = 1.06*DIFFU, Errorvar.= 0.49 , R² = 0.70
 (0.063) (0.048)
 16.81 10.31
 D4 = 1.02*DIFFU, Errorvar.= 0.36 , R² = 0.74
 (0.057) (0.036)
 17.74 9.94
 D5 = 1.01*DIFFU, Errorvar.= 0.59 , R² = 0.63
 (0.064) (0.055)
 15.62 10.65
 D6 = 0.90*DIFFU, Errorvar.= 0.54 , R² = 0.60
 (0.060) (0.050)
 14.99 10.79
 D7 = 1.01*DIFFU, Errorvar.= 0.42 , R² = 0.71
 (0.059) (0.041)
 17.07 10.22
 D8 = 1.07*DIFFU, Errorvar.= 0.43 , R² = 0.73
 (0.061) (0.042)
 17.41 10.08
 D9 = - 0.061*DIFFU, Errorvar.= 0.51 , R² = 0.0073
 (0.044) (0.044)
 -1.38 11.66

Correlation Matrix of Independent Variables

	INFO	NORM	DIFFU
INFO	1.00		
NORM	-0.29 (0.06)	1.00	
DIFFU	-4.76 (0.06)	-0.23 (0.06)	1.00

Goodness of Fit Statistics

Degrees of Freedom = 249
 Minimum Fit Function Chi-Square = 237.08 (P = 0.70)
 Normal Theory Weighted Least Squares Chi-Square = 229.15 (P = 0.81)
 Estimated Non-centrality Parameter (NCP) = 0.0
 90 Percent Confidence Interval for NCP = (0.0 ; 18.20)

Minimum Fit Function Value = 0.87
Population Discrepancy Function Value (F0) = 0.0
90 Percent Confidence Interval for F0 = (0.0 ; 0.067)
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = 0.0
90 Percent Confidence Interval for RMSEA = (0.0 ; 0.016)
P-Value for Test of Close Fit (RMSEA < 0.05) = 1.00
Expected Cross-Validation Index (ECVI) = 1.29
90 Percent Confidence Interval for ECVI = (1.29 ; 1.36)
ECVI for Saturated Model = 2.21
ECVI for Independence Model = 36.00
Chi-Square for Independence Model with 276 Degrees of Freedom = 9743.00
Independence AIC = 9791.00
Model AIC = 331.15
Saturated AIC = 600.00
Independence CAIC = 9901.62
Model CAIC = 566.23
Saturated CAIC = 1982.84
Normed Fit Index (NFI) = 0.98
Non-Normed Fit Index (NNFI) = 1.00
Parsimony Normed Fit Index (PNFI) = 0.88
Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = 1.00
Incremental Fit Index (IFI) = 1.00
Relative Fit Index (RFI) = 0.97
Critical N (CN) = 349.59
Root Mean Square Residual (RMR) = 0.052
Standardized RMR = 0.042
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI) = 0.93
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI) = 0.92
Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI) = 0.78

Time used: 0.078 Seconds

Appendix L

The Outputs of Average Variance Extracted, Maximum Shared Squared Variance,
Average Shared Squared Variance and Composite Reliability for each Parenting
Subscales

Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = (sum of standardized loadings squared) / number of items

$$VE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i^2}{n}$$

Where λ =Standardized Factor Loading; n = number of items

Composite Reliability (CR) = [(sum of standardized loadings) ²] / [(sum of standardized loadings) ² + (sum of indicator measurement errors)]

$$CR = \frac{(\sum_{i=1} \lambda_i)^2}{(\sum_{i=1} \lambda_i)^2 + (\sum_{i=1} (1-\lambda_i^2))}$$

Where λ = Standardized Factor Loading

Reasonable Parenting Style

$$AVE = (.81^2 + .81^2 + .83^2 + .82^2 + .88^2 + .85^2 + .83^2) / 7 = .69$$

$$MSV = -.50^2 = .25$$

$$ASV = [(-.50)^2 + (-.31)^2 + (-.33)^2] / 3 = .15$$

$$CR = [(.81 + .81 + .83 + .82 + .88 + .85 + .83)^2] / [(.81 + .81 + .83 + .82 + .88 + .85 + .83)^2 + (1-.81^2 + 1-.81^2 + 1-.83^2 + 1-.82^2 + 1-.88^2 + 1-.85^2 + 1-.83^2)] = .94$$

Decent Parenting Style

$$AVE = (.83^2 + .84^2 + .85^2 + .79^2 + .82^2 + .82^2 + .81^2 + .81^2) / 8 = .68$$

$$MSV = -.50^2 = .25$$

$$ASV = [(-.50)^2 + (-.28)^2 + (-.25)^2] / 3 = .13$$

$$CR = [(.83 + .84 + .85 + .79 + .82 + .82 + .81 + .81)^2] / [(83 + .84 + .85 + .79 + .82 + .82 + .81 + .81)^2 + (1 - .83^2 + 1 - .84^2 + 1 - .85^2 + 1 - .79^2 + 1 - .82^2 + 1 - .82^2 + 1 - .81^2 + 1 - .81^2)] = .94$$

Pampering Parenting Style

$$AVE = (.87^2 + .85^2 + .85^2 + .83^2 + .84^2 + .83^2) / 6 = .72$$

$$MSV = -.31^2 = .09$$

$$ASV = [(-.31)^2 + (-.25)^2 + (-.07)^2] / 3 = .05$$

$$CR = [(.87 + .85 + .85 + .83 + .84 + .83)^2] / [(87 + .85 + .85 + .83 + .84 + .83)^2 + (1 - .87^2 + 1 - .85^2 + 1 - .85^2 + 1 - .83^2 + 1 - .84^2 + 1 - .83^2)] = .93$$

Autocrat Parenting Style

$$AVE = (.87^2 + .88^2 + .86^2 + .84^2 + .84^2) / 5 = .74$$

$$MSV = -.33^2 = .11$$

$$ASV = [(-.07)^2 + (-.33)^2 + (-.28)^2] / 3 = .06$$

$$CR = [(.87 + .88 + .86 + .84 + .84)^2] / [(87 + .88 + .86 + .84 + .84)^2 + (1 - .87^2 + 1 - .88^2 + 1 - .86^2 + 1 - .84^2 + 1 - .84^2)] = .92$$